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Contents

2023, Vol.5, Issue.2

The Effect of Professional Qualifications of Chefs on Recruitment: A study in Hotel Businesses in Ankara

İsmail MURATOĞLU, Gonca GÜZEL ŞAHİN

pp.46-65

Being A Woman in Kosovo: Key Issues and Norms for Change in the Perspective of Feminist Legal Theory

Sibel AKGÜN, Asena BOZTAŞ, Emine BALCI

pp. 66-80

Discussions on the Growth Efficiency of Expansionary Fiscal Policy via Monetary Policy in Shrinking Periods: Wide Range of Country Analysis

Tuğba DEMİRTAŞ

pp.81-97

Market Orientation as a Comparative Advantage Tool: Ankara Province Research Example

Tuba TOKUÇOĞLU YUMUŞAK, M. Mithat ÜNER

pp.98-112

The Role of Official Websites in Destination Branding: A Systematic Literature Review

Serkan ROL, Ayşe Nevin SERT

pp.113-135

The Effect of Professional Qualifications of Chefs on Recruitment: A study in Hotel Businesses in Ankara

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Abstract

In today's competitive conditions, businesses have to make a difference in every field and they have to be meticulous in choosing employees. For this reason, professional competence is important in terms of both meeting the individual's job search and finding the employees with the qualifications they want. The aim of the research is to evaluate the effect of the professional competencies of the chefs working in four and five star hotels on the recruitment process. The sample of the study is made up of 304 employees who took decisions in the recruitment process of 4 and 5-star hotel businesses in Ankara. The survey technique was used as a data collection tool in the research. The characteristics that should be found in the chefs who will work in the hotel enterprises are in order of priority; it is determined to apply the theory to practice, to be experienced, to be educated and to finally speak a foreign language. Theoretical competencies of chefs have an important role in the recruitment process. The importance that hotel managers give to theoretical competence is related to their educational status. It has been determined that the number of stars owned by the hotel enterprises is related to the importance given to practical competence in the recruitment process.

Keywords: Hotel Management, Chef, Professional Qualification, Human Resources

1. INTRODUCTION

In the evolving world of globalization and technological advancements, Turkey is undergoing significant development and change in its traditional production methods. Especially in developing countries, certain professions are disappearing while new ones are emerging due to technological progress. In light of this information, it can be said that vocational competence has gained even greater importance. Vocational competence is acquired through vocational education, aiming to equip individuals with knowledge, skills, and qualifications related to their profession. Just like in any other sector, vocational competence holds undeniable significance in food and beverage establishments directly related to human health. The importance of vocational competence is evaluated from various perspectives such as consumer satisfaction and institutional image. Furthermore, vocational competence has a direct impact on an individual's success in their professional life. In fact, in today's world, technological advancements and the pursuit of offering higher quality products and services rely on well-

equipped employees. Based on this context, this study aims to examine the impact of vocational competence of chefs working in four and five-star hotels on the recruitment process and to elucidate the relationship among them.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Culinary arts are a form of art encompassing the selection of quality ingredients, preparation, and presentation of food. When talking about culinary arts, one immediately thinks of the hospitality industry. The kitchen of hospitality establishments plays a crucial role in offering rich and delectable products and services, greatly influencing customer preferences. Similarly, factors like meal presentation, the flavor of the cuisine, and qualified staff are of utmost importance in a restaurant's appeal to customers, highlighting the significance of the culinary arts profession (Cullen, 2010). Innovation and creativity are also effective in kitchen work as in every field. Through innovations, cooks reveal differences in the sector (Aslan, 2018:29). In order to increase the adequacy of theoretical education, which is the most important stage of culinary education, schools and the curriculum applied in these schools should be arranged accordingly. In order to keep up with the constantly changing and developing conditions, training programs will be developed and changed, and thus the quality will be increased by increasing the number of qualified personnel in the sector (Çımar, 2019:210). Wong and Pang (2003) observed that acquiring new skills is also effective in the motivation of employees. In the sector where there is a strong competition, hotel businesses need to employ qualified chefs in order to be successful in their kitchen departments. Chefs who stay in the sector for a long time and improve their professional competencies contribute to the preservation of kitchen quality (Ko, 2012:1004). Deutscher and Winther (2017) stated that the performance of employees is related to the training they received in their article studies.

Dishes prepared by a kitchen team are served in various presentation styles. The head of the kitchen team is the chef de cuisine. The lower ranks are formed according to the demands of the chef de cuisine. The lower ranks may consist of sous-chefs, journeymen, apprentices, and dishwashers. The development of the culinary arts profession has been influenced by factors such as urbanization, growth in commerce, and the concept of hospitality. This has led to the emergence of facilities providing paid accommodations in cities, subsequently establishing culinary arts as a professional occupation (Aksoy et al., 2016). Ensuring that a business provides services at the desired standards and quality for customers depends on the quality of the personnel, hence the necessity for well-trained staff (Çemrek & Yılmaz, 2010). Kitchen chefs who previously demonstrated an authoritarian management style and withheld their professional knowledge from their subordinates have been replaced by culinary courses and culinary schools. The establishment of culinary schools not only provides a solid foundation for individuals aspiring to progress in the restaurant and food service industry but also elevates the societal perception of cooking as a profession (Hughes, 2003).

Culinary education in Turkey continued through the master-apprentice method until the 1950s. From this period onwards, short-term courses for culinary training started being offered through Vocational Chambers and Municipalities in Ankara, Izmir, and Istanbul, aiming to train chefs. However, the comprehensive provision of culinary education began after the establishment of the Ministry of Tourism (Grkem and Sevim, 2016). Since the early 1960s, culinary education has been provided by the government in two forms: formal education and informal education. In recent years, institutions offering culinary academies and private

cooking courses have also begun their activities. Culinary education is offered at the levels of high school, associate degree, bachelor's degree, and master's degree (Arslan et al., 2009). Pre-school education, primary education, secondary education, and higher education institutions are part of the formal education system. In Turkey, culinary education is offered at three different levels: secondary education, associate degree, and bachelor's degree (Birdir and Kılıřhan, 2013; Denk and Kořan, 2017). In addition, other institutions providing informal culinary education include the Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of National Education, Turkish Employment Agency, Vocational Organizations, Open Education Faculty, Social Organizations, and similar institutions (Aslan, 2018).

One of the norms that Turkey needs to adhere to during its process of joining the European Union is the alignment of vocational education provided in vocational institutions with national occupational standards. National culinary occupational standards define the necessary qualifications, required education, and tools and equipment used for individuals who will work in the profession, in order to ensure that the tasks related to the profession are carried out according to accepted minimum standards in the industry. The development of professional kitchen education programs should be based on job analyses and prepared in accordance with occupational standards. Like other occupational standards, culinary occupational standards also have a dynamic nature, and therefore, the culinary education standard, examination, and certification criteria need to be updated periodically in line with the expectations of the food and beverage sector.

Human beings are the most valuable resource and the most important asset in an organization. Machines, capital, materials, management, and humans are inputs for a business, and human input has a different value and position compared to others. Human resources are irreplaceable because they are the source that provides, plans, organizes, and manages all other resources, thus having a controlling position over inputs (Sabuncuođlu, 2013). Human Resource Management (HRM) refers to the design and implementation of an organization's formal systems to ensure the effective and efficient use of human talent to achieve organizational goals. This impact includes activities to attract, develop, and retain a workforce (Daft, 2012). In organizations, humans are a fundamental element that reduces costs rather than increasing them. Along with the training and development of human resources, enhancing knowledge, skills, and abilities of individuals to increase productivity is one of the primary objectives of businesses. The recruitment process varies based on the type and nature of the job or the practices within the organizations. Depending on the hierarchical level of the position the employee will be employed in, in some cases, different research and techniques may need to be applied. The organization carries out the recruitment process by taking all these criteria into consideration (İbiciođlu, 2011). Therefore, candidates go through several stages from the acceptance of applications to the hiring stage, and their qualifications are evaluated accordingly.

3. METHODOLOGY

The subject of the research is the examination of the impact of culinary candidates' vocational qualifications on the recruitment process from the perspective of decision-making managers in hotel establishments. This study was conducted in four- and five-star hotels located in Ankara. Quantitative research method was employed for this study, using the survey method as the data collection technique. The survey was administered to managerial employees in various positions who are involved in the recruitment process at hotel establishments in Ankara. The

survey questions were designed to determine the effect of culinary candidates' vocational qualifications on the recruitment process. The statistical analysis of the collected data was conducted using IBM SPSS Statistics 22.0 software, with a significance level set at $\alpha=0.05$.

The population of the study consists of employees in the positions of general manager, deputy general manager, food and beverage manager, deputy food and beverage manager, kitchen chef, and assistant kitchen chef working at Culture and Tourism Ministry-certified four- and five-star hotel establishments in Ankara. The sample of the research includes 304 employees who are involved in the recruitment process of four- and five-star hotel establishments in Ankara. The survey used as the data collection tool consists of four sections. The first section of the survey includes ten questions related to gender, age, marital status, education level, foreign language skills, work experience, the class of the establishment, and position of the managers and department heads. The second and third sections of the survey consist of a total of 40 closed-ended statements (20 theoretical and 20 practical competencies) based on the competency table criteria. The fourth section includes 25 questions related to human resources and the recruitment process. The questions in the survey were prepared using scales from various academic studies. The questions in the second and third sections were adapted from surveys used in Daylar's (2015) academic work, while the questions in the fourth section were created based on academic studies conducted by Kızıloğlu (2011).

The hypotheses developed for the analysis of the main research problems are as follows:

H1: There is a significant relationship between the theoretical competency level and practical competency level of culinary candidates during the recruitment process.

H2: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the education levels of decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred theoretical competencies.

H3: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the tourism, hospitality, or culinary education backgrounds of decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred theoretical competencies.

H4: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the foreign languages known by decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred theoretical competencies.

H5: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the total work experience of decision-making managers and department heads in the establishment.

H6: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the total work experience of decision-making managers and department heads in the tourism sector.

H7: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the class of the establishment where decision-making managers and department heads work.

H8: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the positions and roles of decision-making managers and department heads.

H9: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the education levels of decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred practical competencies.

H10: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the tourism, hospitality, or culinary education backgrounds of decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred practical competencies.

H11: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the foreign languages known by decision-making managers and department heads in terms of their preferred practical competencies.

H12: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the total work experience of decision-making managers and department heads in the establishment.

H13: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the total work experience of decision-making managers and department heads in the tourism sector.

H14: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the class of the establishment where decision-making managers and department heads work.

H15: The preference for a culinary candidate in the recruitment process differs based on the positions and roles of decision-making managers and department heads.

4. RESULTS

3.1. Factor Analysis

In order to assess the suitability of the data set created for the "Theoretical Competency Scale" for factor analysis, the Bartlett's test was conducted. The results of the Bartlett's test indicated that the data set is suitable for factorization ($p < 0.001$). The data set has a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value of 0.850, which is sufficient for factor analysis. The next step is to obtain the factors. When the data set was analyzed using Principal Component Factor Analysis, four factors with eigenvalues greater than one were obtained. The scree plot graph shown in the figure indicates that there are four factors with eigenvalues greater than one. However, it can also be noted that there are three distinct factors.

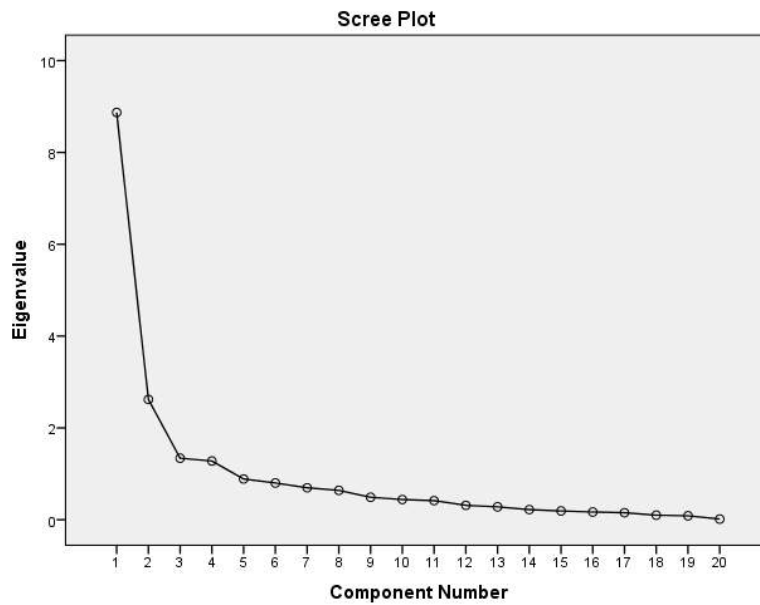


Figure 1: Scree Plot Results

After considering these criteria, the results of Varimax Rotation were examined, and the decision was made to remove problematic items from the scale. Under these conditions, the following items were removed from the scale:

-Item 1 and Item 17 were removed from the scale because they did not provide a sufficient number of items under the factor.

-Item 18 was removed from the scale because it did not exceed the threshold of 0.40 factor loading under any factor.

-Item 10 was removed from the scale because the difference between factor loadings was below 0.10. Thus, a total of 4 items were removed from the scale. In the second step, tests were repeated to determine whether the remaining 16 items were suitable for factor analysis. The KMO test value for the remaining 16 items is 0.851, which is 85% and greater than 0.50. Therefore, the scale is suitable for factor analysis. The next test we will consider is the Bartlett test. The Bartlett test is significant for the scale ($p < 0.001$). There are high correlations among variables, and the data set used in the scale is suitable for factor analysis. When the data set is analyzed using Principal Component Factor Analysis, three factors with eigenvalues greater than one were obtained.

As a result of the analysis, the following items were removed from the scale:

-Item 19 was removed from the scale because the difference between factor loadings was below 0.10.

-Item 3 was removed from the scale because the difference between factor loadings was below 0.10.

Thus, an additional 2 items were removed from the scale. In the third step, tests were repeated to determine whether the remaining 14 items were suitable for factor analysis. The KMO test value for the remaining 14 items is 0.863, which is 86% and greater than 0.50. Therefore, the scale is suitable for factor analysis. The next test we will consider is the Bartlett test. The Bartlett test is significant for the scale ($p < 0.001$). There are high correlations among variables, and the data set used in the scale is suitable for factor analysis. When the data set is analyzed using Principal Component Factor Analysis, three factors with eigenvalues greater than one were obtained.

Table 1: Results of Factor Analysis for Theoretical Competence Scale

Factor 1: Various Cuisines and Dishes (Explained Variance: 33.426)	Factor Loadings
12. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of preparing dishes specific to Ottoman cuisine in personnel selection.	0.901
11. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of preparing dishes specific to Turkish cuisine in personnel selection.	0.893
13. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of various world cuisines in personnel selection.	0.863

7. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of cooking local and international soup varieties in personnel selection.	0.854
8. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of preparing and cooking meats in personnel selection.	0.811
9. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of preparing and cooking seafood in personnel selection.	0.793
Factor 2: Menu Planning, Decoration, and Desserts (Explained Variance: 20.867)	Factor Loadings
16. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of preparing cold kitchen products in personnel selection.	0.831
14. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of menu planning in personnel selection.	0.753
15. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of the art of food decoration in personnel selection.	0.729
20. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of bakery products and desserts in personnel selection.	0.61
Factor 3: Chopping Vegetables, Portion Sizes, Hygiene, and Cooking Methods (Explained Variance: 17.99)	Factor Loadings
5. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of chopping vegetables in international styles in personnel selection.	0.847
4. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of determining daily portion sizes of food groups in personnel selection.	0.706
2. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of hygiene rules in personnel selection.	0.668
6. I prioritize candidates who have theoretical knowledge of different cooking methods in personnel selection.	0.661

Eigenvalue statistics indicate the presence of three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1. The first factor explains 33.426% of the total variance, and the combination of the first and second factors explains 54.293% of the total variance. The three factors combined explain 72.283% of the total variance. To assess the suitability of the data set created for the "Practical Competence Scale" for factor analysis, a Bartlett test was conducted. According to the results of the Bartlett test, the data set is suitable for factorization ($p < 0.001$). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is 0.633, indicating an adequate level for factor analysis. When the data set was analyzed using Principal Component Factor Analysis, five factors with eigenvalues greater than one were

obtained. The results of Varimax Rotation were examined, and it was decided to remove problematic items from the scale. Under these conditions, the following items were removed from the scale:

- Item 2, as it was loaded solely on Factor 2
- Item 15, as it was loaded solely on Factor 3
- Item 18, as it was loaded solely on Factor 3
- Items 1, 16, 19, 3, 4, and 14, due to factor loadings differences being below 0.10

As a result, a total of 9 items were removed from the scale. In the second step, tests were repeated to determine if the remaining 11 items were suitable for factor analysis. The KMO test value for the remaining 11 items is 81% (0.810), which is greater than 0.50, indicating that the scale is suitable for factor analysis. The second test is the Bartlett test, which is significant for the scale ($p < 0.001$). There are high correlations among variables, and within the scale used, the data set is suitable for factor analysis. When the data set was analyzed using Principal Component Factor Analysis, two factors with eigenvalues greater than one were obtained.

Table 2: Results of Factor Analysis for Practical Competence Scale

Factor 1: Various Cuisines and Dishes (Explained Variance: 45.179)	Factor Loadings
11. I prioritize candidates who can effectively apply dishes specific to Turkish cuisine in personnel selection.	0.865
8. I prioritize candidates who can effectively prepare and cook meats in personnel selection.	0.815
12. I prioritize candidates who can effectively apply dishes specific to Ottoman cuisine in personnel selection.	0.811
9. I prioritize candidates who can effectively prepare and cook seafood in personnel selection.	0.806
13. I prioritize candidates who can effectively apply dishes from various world cuisines in personnel selection.	0.799
10. I prioritize candidates who can effectively prepare open buffet cocktail foods in personnel selection.	0.799
7. I prioritize candidates who can effectively cook local and international soup varieties in personnel selection.	0.708
20. I prioritize candidates who can effectively apply bakery products and desserts in personnel selection.	0.571
Factor 2: Chopping Vegetables, Cooking, and Serving (Explained Variance: 23.425)	Factor Loadings

6. I prioritize candidates who can effectively apply different cooking methods in personnel selection.	0.897
17. I prioritize candidates who can effectively perform show service in personnel selection.	0.855
5. I prioritize candidates who can effectively chop vegetables in international styles in personnel selection.	0.725

These results provide insights into the preferences for practical competence in personnel selection, with Factor 1 focusing on various cuisines and dishes, and Factor 2 focusing on the skills related to chopping vegetables, cooking, and serving. The eigenvalue statistics indicate that the first factor explains 45.179% of the total variance, while the second factor explains 23.425% of the total variance.

3.2. Reliability Analysis of Data Collection Instrument

In the research, the reliability coefficient for the theoretical competence scale was calculated as $\alpha=0.927$, and for the practical competence scale, it was found to be 0.882. Reliability analysis is used to test the consistency of statements (judgments, propositions, questions, etc.) that make up a measurement tool developed to collect data from units forming a sample for a particular subject. The obtained reliability coefficients for both the theoretical and practical competence scales being greater than 0.80 indicate a high level of reliability for both scales in the research.

Table 3: Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Research Participants

Variable	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage within Valid Responses
Gender			
Female	77	25.3	25.3
Male	227	74.7	74.7
Age			
18-25	23	7.6	7.6
26-30	59	19.4	19.4
31-40	70	23	23
41-50	96	31.6	31.6
51-60	46	15.1	15.1
61+	10	3.3	3.3
Marital Status			
Single	100	32.9	32.9
Married	204	67.1	67.1
Education Level			
Secondary Education	16	5.3	5.3
High School	80	26.3	26.3
Associate's Degree	76	25	25

Bachelor's Degree	89	29.3	29.3
Graduate Degree	43	14.1	14.1
Level of Tourism and Hospitality or Culinary Education			
None	60	19.7	19.7
Apprenticeship Training Center	35	11.5	11.5
High School or Equivalent	134	44.1	44.1
Associate's Degree	20	6.6	6.6
Bachelor's Degree	35	11.5	11.5
Graduate Degree	20	6.6	6.6
Known Foreign Languages			
English	166	54.6	54.6
German	39	12.8	12.8
French	16	5.3	5.3
Arabic	7	2.3	2.3
Spanish	6	2	2
None	18	5.9	5.9
English and German	30	9.9	9.9
English and French	5	1.6	1.6
English and Arabic	7	2.3	2.3
English and Spanish	3	1	1
German and French	2	0.7	0.7
English, German, and French	5	1.6	1.6
Total Work Experience in the Business			
Less than 1 year	46	15.1	15.1
1-5 years	136	44.7	44.7
6-10 years	77	25.3	25.3
11-15 years	20	6.6	6.6
16-20 years	20	6.6	6.6
21+ years	5	1.6	1.6
Total Work Experience in Tourism Enterprises			
Less than 1 year	-	-	-
1-5 years	56	18.4	18.4
6-10 years	87	28.6	28.6
11-15 years	55	18.1	18.1
16-20 years	44	14.5	14.5
21+ years	62	20.4	20.4
Classification of the Serviced Business			
4-star hotel	128	42.1	42.1
5-star hotel	176	57.9	57.9
Position in Hotel Management			
General Manager	22	7.2	7.2

Deputy General Manager	21	6.9	6.9
Food and Beverage Manager	28	9.2	9.2
Deputy Food and Beverage Manager	19	6.3	6.3
Executive Chef	143	47	47
Assistant Executive Chef	71	23.4	23.4
Service Manager	-	-	-

Table 4: Distribution of Criteria that Hotels Emphasize Most in Chef Placement

Frequency	Percentage	Percentage within Valid Responses
Having completed a relevant undergraduate program	41	13.5
Having sufficient knowledge about the job	183	60.2
Having professional experience	77	25.3
Being familiar to someone	3	1

A majority of participants, around 60.2%, indicated that hotels primarily emphasize having sufficient knowledge about the job during personnel placement. About 25.3% mentioned that professional experience is important, 13.5% mentioned the completion of a relevant undergraduate program, and 1% noted the significance of having a familiar connection. Based on this information, it is evident that in chef recruitment for hotel establishments, skills, education, and experience play significant roles. The finding that knowing someone familiar can facilitate job placement highlights that even with connections, having the necessary skills, education, and experience remains essential.

Table 5: Relationship Between Theoretical Competence and Practical Competence

N	Correlation Coefficient	Significance (p)
304	0,31**	<0,001

**0,01 Significant at the 0.01 level of significance.

The analysis revealed a significant relationship between the level of theoretical competence and the level of practical competence ($p < 0.01$). There is a positive linear relationship between the level of theoretical competence and the level of practical competence. As the level of theoretical competence increases, the practical competence of personnel also increases.

Table 6: Comparison of Theoretical Competence of Chef Applicants with the Professional Competence of Managers in the Hiring Process

Dimension	Theoretical Competence	Variables Groups	Groups Median (Min-Max)	p-value
Education Level		Education Level		
		High School	78.5 (56-90)	<0.001
		High School	80 (20-95)	

<i>Tourism and Hospitality or Culinary Education Level</i>	Graduate		
	Associate's Degree	82 (63-92)	
	Bachelor's Degree	86 (59-98)	
	Master's Degree	82 (67-100)	
	No Education	82 (20-96)	<0.001
	Apprentice Training Center	82 (68-92)	
	High School Graduate or Equivalent	83 (59-98)	
	Associate's Degree	80 (67-89)	
	Bachelor's Degree	86 (80-100)	
	Master's Degree	85 (78-93)	
<i>Known Foreign Language</i>	English	83 (59-98)	<0.001
	German	80 (20-92)	
	French	70.5 (64-86)	
	Arabic	79 (68-87)	
	Spanish	83 (71-84)	
	None	79 (56-90)	
	English and German	88 (80-100)	
	English and French	86 (86-86)	
	English and Arabic	84 (84-84)	
	English and Spanish	85 (85-85)	
	English and German	85 (85-85)	
	English, German, and French	80 (80-80)	
<i>Total Work Experience in the Establishment</i>			

<i>Total Experience in Tourism Establishments</i>	Less than 1 year	83.5 (70-98)	0.157
	1-5 years	82 (20-100)	
	6-10 years	86 (59-97)	
	11-15 years	83.5 (80-96)	
	16-20 years	81.5 (59-89)	
	21+ years	80 (80-80)	
<i>Classification of the Service-Offering Establishment</i>	Less than 1 year	-	0.001
	1-5 years	86 (70-98)	
	6-10 years	82 (56-98)	
	11-15 years	85 (59-100)	
	16-20 years	77 (20-92)	
	21+ years	82 (59-96)	
<i>Position in Hotel Management</i>	4-star Hotel	82 (20-98)	0.008
	5-star Hotel	84 (60-100)	
	General Manager	82 (67-96)	<0.001
	Deputy General Manager	82 (79-92)	
	Food and Beverage Manager	74 (59-91)	
	Assistant Food and Beverage Manager	87 (70-98)	
	Kitchen Chef	80 (59-100)	
	Assistant Kitchen Chef	86 (20-98)	
	Service Chef	-	

As it is seen that in Table 6, the theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment exhibit differences ($p < 0.001$) based on the educational level of the decision-making managers and department heads involved in the hiring process. Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with secondary education ($p = 0.038$). Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with high school education ($p < 0.001$). Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree prefer chefs with

higher theoretical competencies compared to those with associate's degree ($p=0.001$). Among other educational levels of managers, there is no difference in the preferred theoretical competency levels for chef candidates.

The theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment in the hiring process exhibit differences ($p<0.001$) based on the foreign language skills possessed by the decision-making managers and department heads in the tourism and hospitality or culinary fields. Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those without such education ($p=0.001$). Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with apprenticeship education in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts ($p=0.004$). Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with high school and equivalent education in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts ($p=0.006$). Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts prefer personnel with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with associate's degree education in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts ($p=0.001$). Among other managers with different foreign language skills, there is no difference in the preferred theoretical competencies for chefs.

Theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment in the hiring process do not show differences ($p=0.157$) based on the total working periods of the decision-making managers and department heads within the establishment. In other words, the preferences of managers and department heads in personnel selection remain consistent regardless of their working durations in the establishment. Theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment in the hiring process exhibit differences ($p=0.001$) based on the total working periods in the tourism sector of the decision-making managers and department heads. Managers and department heads with 1-5 years of working experience in the tourism sector prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with 16-20 years of experience ($p<0.001$). Managers and department heads with 1-5 years of working experience in the tourism sector prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with 21 years and more of experience ($p=0.01$). Among other managers, there is no difference in the preferred theoretical competencies for candidates.

Theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment in the hiring process exhibit differences ($p=0.008$) based on the class of the establishment where the decision-making managers and department heads provide services. Managers and department heads serving in a five-star hotel prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to those serving in a four-star hotel. Theoretical competencies of chef candidates desired for employment in the hiring process exhibit differences ($p<0.001$) based on the roles of the decision-making managers and department heads. Food and beverage managers prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to general managers, assistant food and beverage managers, and assistant kitchen chefs. Kitchen chefs, on the other hand, prefer chefs with higher theoretical competencies compared to assistant kitchen chefs and assistant food and beverage managers. Among managers in other roles, there is no difference in the preferred theoretical competencies for candidates. The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance

process shows variation based on the roles of the decision-making managers and department heads ($p < 0.001$). Food and beverage managers prefer chefs with lower practical competence compared to general managers, assistant food and beverage managers, and kitchen chef assistants. Kitchen chefs, however, prefer chefs with higher practical competence compared to kitchen chef assistants and assistant food and beverage managers. Among other managers, there is no difference in preferred practical competence for candidates.

3.3. Evaluation of Research Findings

In this study examining the impact of the professional competence of managers and department heads involved in the job acceptance process in four and five-star hotels on the hiring process, the obtained findings from the analyses can be summarized as follows:

Table 7: Acceptance and Rejection Test of Hypotheses

Hypotheses	Decision
H1: There is a significant relationship between the theoretical competence level and practical competence level of chefs in the hiring process.	Accepted
H2: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the education levels of decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H3: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the education status of decision-making managers and department heads in the fields of tourism, hospitality, or culinary arts.	Accepted
H4: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the foreign languages known by decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H5: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the total work durations within the business for decision-making managers and department heads.	Rejected
H6: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the total work durations in the tourism sector for decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H7: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in	Accepted

the job acceptance process shows variation based on the class of the establishment where decision-making managers and department heads provide services.	
H8: The theoretical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the roles or positions of decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H9: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the education levels of decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H10: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the education status of decision-making managers and department heads in the fields of tourism, hospitality, or culinary arts.	Rejected
H11: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the foreign languages known by decision-making managers and department heads.	Rejected
H12: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the total work durations within the business for decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H13: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the total work durations in the tourism sector for decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted
H14: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the class of the establishment where decision-making managers and department heads provide services.	Accepted
H15: The practical competence of chef candidates desired in the job acceptance process shows variation based on the roles or positions of decision-making managers and department heads.	Accepted

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this research, the impact of the professional qualifications of managers and department heads involved in the hiring process in four and five-star hotels on the recruitment process was examined, and the following conclusions were reached. When examining the gender distribution of managers and department heads working in hotel establishments, it is observed that the majority are male. This could be attributed to factors such as long working hours and demanding labor conditions in the industry compared to other sectors. Additionally, the ages of managers and department heads in hotel establishments are mostly 30 years and above. This could be indicative of the industry's preference for hiring individuals with substantial professional experience for managerial and department head positions in order to ensure effective operations and decision-making within the hotel establishments. Taking into consideration the marital status of managers and department heads, it is observed that the majority are married. The prevalence of married managers could be linked to the fact that the average age of managers and department heads is 30 years and above. When examining the educational backgrounds of managers, it has been determined that a significant majority have received various forms of education in the fields of tourism and hospitality. In this context, it can be inferred that obtaining education is not only essential but also mandatory for individuals aspiring to become managers or hold leadership positions in any branch within hotel establishments. In addition to vocational education, the fact that participants possess a high level of proficiency in foreign languages highlights the importance of foreign language skills in hotel establishments. The high turnover rate of human resources in hotel businesses has been attempted to be determined based on the total working hours in the current establishment. This phenomenon is believed to be attributed to the acceleration of hospitality activities in Turkey, leading to the possibility of existing human resources finding better opportunities within the same industry in terms of economic, social, and various other aspects.

The first characteristic that managers consider essential for chefs is the ability to "apply theory into practice." Managers believe that a chef in a hotel establishment can achieve true success in the profession by putting theoretical knowledge into practical use. In the culinary profession, it is not possible to have practical application without theoretical knowledge or theoretical knowledge without practical application. Other essential characteristics that chefs, who are an indispensable workforce in the tourism sector, should possess are as follows: having previous experience and receiving education in tourism. Past experience and expertise are of utmost importance for a chef, playing a significant role in their classification and promotion. Chefs who have received education in both tourism and culinary arts can be considered more knowledgeable than their peers who lack such education, particularly in areas such as guest relations, new product development, healthy food choices, and quality control. However, proficiency in foreign languages is ranked as of lower importance in this hierarchy. It's worth noting that if the research had been conducted in regions attracting a significant number of foreign tourists, such as the Mediterranean or the Aegean, the ranking could have shown variations. When evaluating the priority sequence in personnel employment within the tourism sector, the first priority is given to experienced personnel. Following this, the order includes being educated, pricing policies, foreign language proficiency, and recruitment through personal connections. The distribution of the pre-employment assessments has also been

examined before hiring a new employee. Upon examining the distributions, it has been observed that a significant portion of the participants conduct preliminary work by describing the job, workplace, and required skills. In cases where appropriate personnel selection cannot be made, the most significant risk among the potential outcomes is the increase in the risk of work-related accidents. This line of thought is followed by a sequence where disruptions in the workplace climate and an increase in work accidents lead to higher turnover rates and wastage. The most commonly used method in chef selection is the interview technique, followed by combinations of interview-exam and interview-exam-psychotechnical methods. When examining the implementation of HR policies concerning chefs, it was found that the top management and the human resources department take the lead. The human resources department follows in the second place, while the top management is in the last place. Methods for recruiting chefs for businesses have been evaluated. Accordingly, the most common methods for chef recruitment are various advertisements or individual applications, followed by employee recommendations and the use of educational institutions or professional organizations as the most preferred recruitment channels. It has been observed that the most significant criterion that businesses pay attention to in personnel placement is having "sufficient knowledge about the job. "In this context, it is evident that modern hotel establishments aim to gain a competitive advantage in both national and international markets by acquiring chefs with sufficient knowledge and skills. Additionally, criteria such as "having professional experience" and "having completed a degree program related to the field" emerge as focal points that hotel establishments consider in chef recruitment. Among the attributes that businesses emphasize in chef selection, the candidate's overall appearance, attire, and attention to detail stand out. Personal grooming is not only important for chefs but also a significant criterion for all professions, especially in the service sector. A chef who neglects personal grooming can cause much more harm to the establishment's image than to their own. Furthermore, the ability of candidates to express themselves accurately and their competencies in customer and staff relations are qualities highly valued by hotel establishments in their hiring process. Factors such as the employee's enthusiasm for the job, their previous professional development, decision-making and leadership skills, are also among the other considerations that businesses take into account in personnel selection. The theoretical competencies of chef candidates applying for a job do not vary based on the total work experience of the managers and department heads involved in the recruitment process of the establishments. The theoretical competencies of chefs differ based on the educational level of managers and department heads, their education level in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts, their proficiency in foreign languages, the total work experience in tourism establishments, the class of the service-providing establishment, and their roles in hotel management.

Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree level of education prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with a secondary education, high school, or associate degree education level. Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree level of education in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts prefer chefs with a higher theoretical competency who also have a bachelor's degree level of education in tourism and hospitality or culinary arts, compared to those who have not received education in these fields or have education from vocational training centers, high school, and associate degree level. Managers and department heads who are proficient in both English and German prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to those who have knowledge

of only German and no other foreign language. Managers and department heads with proficiency in English prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to those who have proficiency in French but no knowledge of other foreign languages. In the tourism sector, managers and department heads with 1-5 years of work experience prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to those with both 16-20 years and 21 years and above of work experience. In a five-star hotel, managers and department heads providing services prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to those in a four-star hotel. Food and beverage managers prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to general managers, food and beverage manager assistants, and kitchen chef assistants. Kitchen chefs prefer chef candidates with higher theoretical competencies compared to kitchen chef assistants and food and beverage manager assistants. The practical competencies of chef candidates do not vary based on the education level and foreign language proficiency of the managers and department heads involved in the recruitment process of the establishments. The practical competencies of chef candidates vary based on the education level of managers and chefs, the total working period in the establishment, the total working period in tourism enterprises, the class of the service-providing establishment, and the managerial responsibilities. Managers and department heads with a bachelor's degree prefer chef candidates with higher practical competencies compared to those with high school or equivalent education. Managers and department heads with a postgraduate degree also prefer chef candidates with higher practical competencies compared to those with high school or equivalent education. Managers and department heads with an associate degree prefer chef candidates with higher practical competencies compared to those with high school or equivalent education. Based on the data obtained from the research, several recommendations have been provided to hotel establishments, managers, and employees. These include: (1) Increasing the participation of female managers in the sector to address gender disparities in leadership roles within hotel businesses. (2) Offering employment opportunities to educated recent graduates to contribute to the development of a young managerial profile in hotel establishments. (3) While the rate of professional training among hotel managers is already high, expanding the scope of content in vocational training curricula and diversifying training activities to enhance their effectiveness. (4) Many hotel managers are proficient in at least one foreign language. Expanding foreign language education both within and outside the business could contribute to the positive development of the organizational culture. (5) Aiming for a significant reduction in workplace accidents and potential risks by prioritizing the selection of appropriate and experienced personnel.

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Being A Woman in Kosovo: Key Issues and Norms for Change in the Perspective of Feminist Legal Theory

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Abstract

The role of women has been persistently overlooked within the societal and state structures. Women's existence, challenges, and significant impact have persisted as problematic issues across multiple aspects. Kosovo, located in the Balkans, has been a region where women have faced continuous struggles. The prevalent patriarchal structure in the country plays a significant role in perpetuating these challenges. Despite the existence of legal guarantees ensuring equality, both Kosovo women in general and women from minority backgrounds benefit from such protections. However, practical obstacles persist regarding women's identity. This study, adopting a feminist legal theory perspective, aims to discuss the constitutional rights of (minority) women in Kosovo and shed light on the challenges they encounter. Analysing the situation in Kosovo through the lens of feminist legal theory, the study provides a framework that addresses the contradiction between legal principles and social norms. Utilizing qualitative research methods like document analysis and case studies, the study examines gender inequality deficiencies among a sample of (minority) women from Kosovo, highlighting the global implications of these issues.

Keywords: Gender Equality; Feminist Legal Theory; Kosovo (Minority) Women; Constitutional Rights; Balkans.

1. INTRODUCTION

Feminism, which addresses inequality between the sexes in all areas of life and science, acknowledges that male-dominated perspectives shape sciences and disciplines. It extends its interest beyond fields like feminist philosophy, feminist theology, feminist scientific research, and feminist methodology, also encompassing the realm of law. The feminist legal theory aims to provide an alternative to the male-dominated understanding prevalent in positive law, which is believed to serve male interests by employing seemingly abstract and general norms.

Moreover, positive law often fails to consider the characteristics of the feminine lifestyle (Heper, 2014:13-14).

The emergence of the field of "feminist legal theory" can be attributed to law students who are sensitized to women's issues, and analyse the law from a feminist perspective during their professional practice after graduation (Weisberg, 1993: xvi). The term "feminist legal theory" was first introduced by Ann Scales at a Harvard conference in 1978. This field gained scientific grounding with the publication of influential articles such as Scales's "Towards Feminist Legal Theory" in 1981 and Katherina Mackinnon's "Feminism, Marxism, Method, and the State: Towards Feminist Legal Theory" in 1983 (Çağlar, 2002: 84).

During the first phase of feminist legal theory in the 1960s until the early 1980s, advocates sought equality with men in education, employment, and politics. They drew attention to the exclusion of women from public life and the prevailing male monopoly over law. However, feminists of this period focused on eliminating inequalities within the existing system without critically examining the system itself. They regarded the law as a rational, objective, honest, and gender-neutral discipline, attributing the problems to flawed laws that could be rectified through legal changes. Despite legal reforms, these early feminists recognized that the law perpetuated male dominance, relegating women to a secondary or inferior position. Consequently, they concluded that the law, despite its appearance of impartiality, objectivity, and rationality, was inherently biased. This realization marked the transition to the second phase of feminist legal theory (Arat, 2006: 55-56). The second phase, dominant since the 1980s, acknowledges that the patriarchal mentality is the root cause of gender inequality. Feminist legal theorists in this phase criticize the patriarchal mindset that impacts both women and men. Identifying patriarchal thought as the problem, this phase represents the current state of feminist legal theory (Barnett, 1998: 5).

In the contemporary period of women's studies, there is a critical examination of international norms and principles concerning women's rights. These norms are seen as having been established by men and based on gender. A more recent perspective on women's rights emphasizes the autonomy and reasoning capacity of individuals, incorporating a post-structuralist approach to human rights discourse. The demand for gender redefinition, along with all its manifestations, forms a fundamental aspect of women's rights (Gagliardi, 2019).

In other words, there are symbolic and material domination patterns and norms created by the pre-existing socio-institutional histories, gender stereotypes and social structures that occur in the background of states and societies against women. First of all, gender models of subjugation have been established. Compromising with different layered norms in the face of patriarchal discourse or creating ways for the counterattack, namely resistance and micro-resistance, is often used by women who act by resorting to remedies (Henry, 2017: 467).

Although feminism encompasses diverse perspectives, it starts with a shared premise: the world is patriarchal, which is detrimental to women. The focus of feminist legal theorists on the patriarchal nature of law distinguishes them from other legal approaches. No other legal theory critiques patriarchal institutions and centres its theories around them. Consequently, feminist legal theory involves the criticism and analysis of law as a patriarchal institution (Smith, 1993: 9).

Feminist legal theorists seem to ask seven questions in their work. These are (Çağlar, 2002: 85): To what extent women's life experiences have been and are being given in the legal field or legal doctrine; what kind of definitions, explanations and predictions are made in the legal field on the experiences of women, men or seemingly neutral genders; what are the areas of contrast, distortion and incompatibility created by the differences between the structures assumed or

imposed by the law and the life experiences of women; what is the relationship between disharmony and patriarchy; what kind of reforms are proposed to the legal field related to women's life experiences and how these reforms will affect women practically and ideologically if these reforms are carried out; what women's lives would be like in an ideal world and what the law would be like in this relationship; women are the questions of how they can move from their current state to the said ideal state.

In line with these questions, the main task of feminist legal theory is to analyse and research women's legal conditions to improve the status of women in different cultural, political and social contexts (Dahl, 1987: 11). According to the feminist point of view, which traditionally adopts that law is based on a male perspective, women have been ignored by the law throughout history, and a social order has been established against women within the framework of male domination, which is considered natural and normal in many societies, and the relations that women are subject to men. From this point of view, feminist legal theory deals with the question of why women's subordinate position has not changed, although time and place have traditionally changed, in particular, the concept of law as a style of criticism and an alternative method. Therefore, feminist legal researchers seek to understand the inequality to which women are subjected and the causes of this inequality by contributing to real equality and freedom in the complex interaction between law and life. The main problem of feminist law is how to replace the common and real inequality problems of women from a feminist perspective with a feminist perspective (Dahl, 1987: 11).

It can be said that feminist legal theorists focus on three basic premises of law. First, legal theories are developed by men and reflect a fundamental male bias even in the face of gender-neutral situations. Second, by arguing that women's lives are different from men's, existing theories do not fit into women's reality because they do not take this difference into account. Third, feminist theory needs to include women's own experiences and perspectives in law (Baer, 2008: 438).

The main criticism of the traditional established law concept is that gender relations, which constitute the basic framework of all legal institutions, organizations and systems, have not been taken into account in traditional legal processes. Gender is a biological distinction between people as men and women, and it is made to define the difference. Gender, on the other hand, describes the sexual roles imposed on women and men socially and culturally. Therefore, the feminist perspective of law emphasizes that traditionally, men's preferences are given more place than women's preferences, gender relations deny women, and the traditional established law concept mediates the consolidation of male-dominated social relations (Yüksel, 2003: 134). In other words, feminist legal theory analyses the patriarchal structure of law from a gendered perspective.

Discriminatory policies deliberately and systematically exclude women from public life. In other words, traditional law was established with a male interpretation from a male perspective, limited the feminist agenda and women were ignored by not being included in the subject of law. Today, the situation of women is developing and changing. However, this change is slow. The positive development of women's social position is possible by making it possible to cover the whole of the law (Yüksel, 2003: 137). In particular, women's unique struggles, problems, difficulties and successes continue in this field. In this process, women have to understand the complex and never-ending negotiation process, bargain, compromise, criticize and prove themselves as a part of their lives. In fact, promoting gender equality and justice in themselves is essential for the legal norms of societies and states, but women need to struggle more in this regard (Belli et al., 2017: 492-493).

Just like in feminist theory, there are different feminist approaches in feminist legal theory. It is not possible to consider feminist theory independently of law, and feminist legal theory from feminist theory and women's movement. In the literature, there are different classifications in the expression of feminist legal theories. Arat classifies under the heading of feminist schools of thought as liberal feminism, cultural feminism, radical feminism and postmodern feminism (Arat, 2006). Starting from the theories of feminist thought, Gürgey categorizes feminist legal theories as egalitarian feminist legal theory, pro-diversity feminist legal theory, cultural feminist legal theory, radical feminist legal theory, and postmodern feminist legal theory under the title of feminist legal approaches. Similarly, Uygur and Çağlar (2012) describe the egalitarian feminist legal theory, pro-diversity feminist legal theory, cultural feminist legal theory, radical feminist legal theory, and postmodern feminist legal theory under the title of feminist legal theories. Regardless of its point of view or political ideology, feminist legal theory takes women as its main subject. By looking at the law from a feminist perspective, she focuses on the positioning and perception of women in law and whether the law meets the needs of women and works to correct the existing patriarchal structure in favour of women.

In the context of the Sustainable Development Goals adopted by UN Member States in 2015, the year 2030 has been determined to ensure gender equality and empower all women and girls. While there are less than 10 years left to reach this goal, the world cannot progress on this path. During cross-cutting crises such as COVID-19, the climate emergency, and growing economic and political insecurity, the reverse has begun to emerge, with no progress being made on gender equality. A growing backlash against women's rights around the world threatens even fundamental freedoms and protections. Gender equality will remain an unrealized goal unless the global community increases its resolve. So now is the time to act and invest for women and girls (UN 2022).

Although progress has been made in reforming laws and closing gaps in legal protections, it may take another 286 years to change from the current situation to the repeal of discriminatory laws. Responses to COVID-19 and women's sexual and reproductive health claims further diminish the outlook for gender equality. Violence against women, global health, climate and humanitarian crises have further increased the risks. Violence, especially for the most vulnerable women and girls, and women feel it more (UN, 2022).

Feminist legal theory has been defined as women's demand for reforms in laws and their activities to change the patriarchal structure of law. In the historical process of feminism, "feminism" and "law" are essentially inseparable concepts. Law is defined in the dictionary of Turkish Language Institution as "the whole of the laws that regulate the society and determine the sanction power of the state". In other words, law consists of norms that provide social order. Looking at the feminist demands, it is seen that women's struggle for existence in this social order comes to the fore. Considering women's demands such as admission to the profession, the right to education, the right to vote, the demand to exist in the public sphere, equal pay, property in marriage, and the right to custody since the beginning of feminism, it is necessary to legally reorganize these demands and ensure that these laws are enforced. However, the legal changes did not produce the expected results, and later feminists drew attention to the influence of the law enforcement mentality. In other words, the patriarchal structure in the social order constitutes the essence of the problem. Feminist legal theory is also concerned with this essence and has emerged with the criticism of the essence.

In the first phase of feminist legal theory that started in the 1960s, it was believed that the problem would be solved and equality with men would be achieved by changing the laws without criticizing the system by emphasizing masculinity in the laws. However, until the end of the 1970s, it was seen that the changes made in the laws did not change the subordinate

position of women, and the changes in the laws were not reflected in practice. Then, after the 1980s, feminist lawyers who accepted that the source of the problem was not only the laws but also the patriarchal mentality, started to criticize not only the patriarchal structure of the laws but also the patriarchal mentality of the law practitioners. Feminist lawyers continued their work in this direction, arguing that all law reflects and legitimizes the masculine mentality, with both the maker and the implementer of the laws being masculine, and that women should take an active role in the formation and implementation of the law from a female perspective.

Although the issue of women's rights is an area that countries want to protect with legal regulations, minority women are not included in this scope and are not given a special place at the national level. In general, minorities and women are traditionally seen as disadvantaged groups and in this context, their differences are ignored. Therefore, this study had to deal with women and minority women together. It is difficult to discuss them as separate categories. Minorities are extremely vulnerable as nations become more and more heterogeneous, and this is perhaps the most problematic aspect of democracy in today's world. Within the scope of women's rights, a well-functioning rule of law is necessary for minority women to protect their interests and gain their consent. As nations become more and more heterogeneous, minorities remain poignantly vulnerable, and this is perhaps the most problematic aspect of democracy in our world today. Within the scope of women's rights, a well-functioning rule of law is necessary for minority women to protect their interests and gain their consent.

After the social norms of societies emerge as normative, common cognitive and mental representations come to the fore. Normative social beliefs and norms contain descriptive and approved/accepted dimensions. In this context, they construct reality by evolving from the level of the individual to the level of society and are carried out traditionally and historically. Of course, the issue of how these social norms, common and approved behaviours relate to reality also needs to be examined. However, it has an impact on the behaviour levels of societies by constructing social norms other than legal norms.

Especially when it comes to women, social norms that have been established as a patriarchal point of view in Kosovo, as in many societies, cover legal norms. As a newly established country in 2008, Kosovo is a place where women's rights and in this context, minority women's rights are also experiencing difficulties. There are established patterns that fall under the established norms and value judgments in the country that has accepted the international legal norms in its establishment. The positions of both majority and minority women in the country are worth considering in this context.

The origin of gender problems in Kosovo is recorded as the dominant male mentality with its long and historical roots of patriarchy. Despite all legal norms and regulations, the status and roles of women and/or minority women in society have difficulty changing. For example, family approval, especially in rural areas, is based on traditional patriarchy in Kosovo. When women age to fulfil their duties in traditional taught roles, their youngest son and his wife take care of them (Strapocava, 2015:67). The slow concrete progress towards the advancement of women's rights in Kosovo since the post-war period reveals how drastic the change in religious, cultural and social norms in the country has been.

Feminist legal theory studies seek answers to two questions. First, will changing laws transform the patriarchal structure of law? Secondly, will the increase in the number of legal women in the legal profession transform the patriarchal structure of law? The first question focuses on the issue of changing the laws that subordinate women in the existing legal regulations. At this point, women's involvement in the lawmaking processes is of great importance, since there is a need for a woman's perspective during the law-making stages to identify and amend the laws

that subordinate women. This study focuses on the first question in feminist law studies. However, Kosovo is a country where women, whether majority or minority, face various problems based on their human rights. Albanian women who are the majority in the country or women with various identities as a minority face various difficulties due to their female identities, although various legal norms are accepted. Therefore, in this study, the constitutional and legal rights of women in Kosovo and the problems they face in the implementation of these rights are analysed within the framework of the contradiction between legal and social norms.

2. METHOD

The research deals with the content of women's rights and social norms in Kosovo according to the feminist theory. For this purpose, the theoretical framework of the subject has been created with the feminist theory in the literature. In this context, the problems of women and minority women living in Kosovo that are not compatible with legal norms are discussed. In the research, firstly, legal norms were selected from the qualitative research methods, and then their application with analytical method was interpreted.

The data were analysed with descriptive and interpretative methods. In the literature review, firstly, sources from feminist legal theory were scanned. Then, the Constitution of Kosovo and the international conventions and agreements accepted in this constitution were identified. In this context, the relevant articles of the Constitution, CEDAW, the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, and the Council of Europe Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities). Subsequently, local, national and international literature on women's and minority rights in Kosovo was analysed. The analyses conducted in Kosovo by international organizations such as the UN, OSCE and OHCHR were also reviewed. Not all analyses and evaluations of these international structures were used in the study. In this selection, important analyses related to the subject were included in the study. The attitudes of national and international civil society organizations in Kosovo were also included.

The scale of the study was education, employment, discrimination, social oppression, sexual or physical violence, property ownership, and political representation of all women (majority or community) in Kosovo. Selected case studies from the period after the independence of the country in 2008 were also included and analysed.

3. FINDINGS

3.1. Discussion and Findings: Women's Position in Kosovo Based on Feminist Legal Theory

Kosovo declared independence on February 17, 2008. The Kosovo Assembly's unilateral declaration of independence on 17 February 2008, which caused mixed reverberations in different parts of the world, was instantly recognized by some of the most influential members of the international community with its historical past and as one of the countries with a multi-ethnic and religious structure in the Balkans, Kosovo is an area where many groups and identities live (Selver, 2009: 235). With its historical past and as one of the countries with a multi-ethnic and religious structure in the Balkans, Kosovo is an area where many groups and identities live. Written legal norms that were adopted after the Declaration of Independence comprise regulations on both human rights and women's rights in a wide framework.

Other than Albanians and Serbs, minorities as well historically continue to live in Kosovo since its independence in 2008. According to the census held in April 2011 in the Republic of Kosovo, the general population stands at 1.739.825 excluding [the regions of] Leposaviq, Zubin Potok, Zveçan and Mitroviça in the north of Kosovo (ask.rsk, 2011). Albanians (92.9%) form the overall

majority of the population. On the other side, the distribution of the population among the main minority groups is Bosniaks (1.6%), Serbs (1.5%), Turks (1.1%), Ashkalia (0.9%), Gorani (0.6%), and Roma (0.5%). There has not been any other census since the one that took place in 2011 (minortyrighs, 2022).

In Kosovo, the Constitution was adopted on April 8, 2009, and came into force on January 15, 2009. Article 7, entitled Values, of the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo has accepted as a norm the existence of women and men with equal opportunities based on gender equality in addition to all human rights:

- 1. *The constitutional order of the Republic of Kosovo is based on the principles of freedom, peace, democracy, equality, respect for human rights and freedoms and the rule of law, non-discrimination, the right to property, the protection of the environment, social justice, pluralism, separation of state powers, and a market economy.*
- 2. *The Republic of Kosovo ensures gender equality as a fundamental value for the democratic development of the society, providing equal opportunities for both female and male participation in the political, economic, social, cultural and other areas of societal life (kushtetutakosoves.info, 2021).*

The state of Kosovo has constitutionally accepted universal human rights regulations and gender equality in addition to regulations on women's rights, in particular. The most important regulations in this regard, the Women's Convention and the Istanbul Convention, have also been approved by the state of Kosovo.

The first binding international document prohibiting discrimination against women and obligating governments to take measures for the equality of women is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (Women's Convention or CEDAW), adopted [by the United Nations (UN)] in 1979 and entered into force in 1981. It aims to eradicate all forms of discrimination against women. Article 1 of CEDAW defines the term "discrimination against women" as "any distinction, exclusion or restriction made based on sex which has the effect or purpose of impairing or nullifying the recognition, enjoyment or exercise by women, irrespective of their marital status, on a basis of equality of men and women, of human rights and fundamental freedoms in the political, economic, social, cultural, civil or any other field." The States Parties are obliged to submit regular reports on their compliance with the convention's rules (OHCHR).

From the perspective of women's rights, CEDAW gained legitimacy in Kosovo with the UN Security Council Resolution 1325 on October 31, 2000. After the Declaration of Independence in the country, gender equality, non-discrimination and the protection of women against violence and abuse were accepted in the Constitution in this framework (Holzner, 2021:6).

Another regulation on women's rights is The Council of Europe Convention on Preventing and Combating Violence Against Women and Domestic Violence, [also known as the Istanbul Convention] adopted in Istanbul in 2011. The Istanbul Convention aims to combat violence against women and domestic violence. The Convention expects state parties to protect women against all forms of violence, to prevent, prosecute and eliminate violence against women and domestic violence; and to establish support policies against victims and perpetrators of violence. The Convention stipulates the cooperation of state parties with all relevant bodies, institutions and organizations and establishes a coordination unit. To design a comprehensive framework, policy and measures to protect and assist all victims of violence against women and domestic violence is also among the objectives of the convention. Also, state parties shall

allocate appropriate financial and human resources to combat violence according to the convention.

Obligations of the signatory state according to the convention:

- Implementing gender-sensitive policies, inclusive and coordinated policies,
- Allocating financial resources,
- Establishing a formal coordination unit,
- Collecting, examining, publishing statistical data, and
- Providing mentality change to prevent violence (Sade, 2020).

The Parliament of the Republic of Kosovo ratified the inclusion of the Istanbul Convention in the Constitution on September 25, 2020 (kosovahaber-a, 2022). Concerning legislation, the state of Kosovo, as seen both constitutionally and legally, is in foremost conformity concerning human, minority and women's rights. However, problems do exist in practice regarding women's rights as is the case in minority rights.

With minority rights, the general citizenship bond is emphasized universally in the definition of Article 1 of the Constitution as "The Republic of Kosovo is a state of its citizens." Again, Clause 1 of Article 3, entitled "Equality before the Law", states "The Republic of Kosovo is a multi-ethnic society consisting of Albanian and other Communities". Therefore, the constitution states with the phrase "communities" that minorities are also the main element of the country apart from the Albanians who represent the majority. As will be discussed below, Article 64 of the Constitution designating the structure of the Assembly of the Republic of Kosovo enumerates six groups as Serbs, Roma, Ashkalia, Egyptians, Bosniaks and Turks within the concept of communities (kushtetutakosoves.info, 2021)

Kosovo is a state in which minority rights are under utmost protection. In its constitution, rights for minorities are equal for all groups; and the legal infrastructure has established a safe environment for the rights of minorities (Rrahmani, 2018: 239). The following conventions on both general human rights and minority rights have also been adopted in the Constitution of Kosovo:

- (1) The Universal Declaration of Human Rights;
- (2) European Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms and its Protocols;
- (3) International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and its Protocols;
- (4) Council of Europe - Framework Convention for the Protection of National Minorities;
- (5) International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination;
- (6) Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women;
- (7) Convention on the Rights of the Child;
- (8) Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment (kushtetutakosoves.info, 2021).

It is seen in its Constitution that Kosovo has ratified international regulations and norm agreements on human and minority rights after the Declaration of Independence. However, there are problems in the implementation of these norms and regulations. Women constitute

half of the population in the country, but concerning women's rights, problems in all headings exist. Before moving on to the problems in this regard, it is beneficial to look into the female population living in Kosovo.

In Kosovo, men form 50.1% of the population in urban areas while women make up 49.9%; in rural areas, 50.2% of the population distribution by sex is men and 49.8% by women. According to statistics, for every 100 girls born in Kosovo, there are 109 boys born. In 2009, the average age at marriage stood at 28 for women and 31 for men. The illiteracy rate in Kosovo differs by gender and average age: Urban illiteracy is 7.5% for women and 3.3% for men. In rural areas, 11.3% of women and 5.5% of men are illiterate. Despite the years passed, the average labour force participation rate for women has dropped from 30% to 29% and for men from 68% to 67% (kosovahaber-b, 2011).

Within the framework of these statistical data, the female and male populations in Kosovo seem to constitute half the total countrywide. Even within the framework of these data, women still fall behind in literacy rates in cities and rural areas, indicating that women's right to access education is restricted.

Aside from education, the participation of both women in general and minority women in political bodies in Kosovo remains low despite all efforts. In general, there have been positive developments in the active participation of women in political life since the establishment of Kosovo. After the Declaration of Independence, two female presidents were elected in the country and the rate of parliamentary members increased to 32%. Women occupied effective ministry positions in the government and were elected mayors in local elections. Nevertheless, there remain many key leadership roles and sectors in Kosovo where women are not represented and participated. The situation is even more difficult for minority women. Many minority communities generally live in rural areas with traditional family values. That significantly eliminates the existence of minority women living in rural areas of Kosovo where women are already very little able to participate in politics. First of all, the active participation of these women in politics can be started at the local level and increased at the national level. For this, however, all stakeholders, political parties, in particular, must work effectively (USAID, 2015: 8-13).

In Kosovo, the women's quota in the Parliament stands at 30% and the number of female employees in all public institutions reaches 32%. It is essential to have all women and minority women in representation because it provides legitimacy to a political system and integrates segregated ethnic minorities in the country. Nonetheless, while some minority women (Serbs and Bosniaks) are part of the parliament in Kosovo other minority women such as Roma, Ashkalia and Egyptians are not (Gacanica et al., 2020: 7; Berishaj, 2017:57).

Within the context of the women's quota in Kosovo, some initiatives deal with the issue and work institutionally, such as the Women's Member of Parliament formed by women deputies in the parliament since 2005, OSCE, UN, UNDP, and nongovernmental organizations. Improving the position of women both in politics and in issues such as education, health, culture, economy, and gender equality remain at the forefront of the country (OSCE, 2007).

Although written legal norms declare women and men equal other than participation in education and political life, women, in reality, face insurmountable struggles compared to their male counterparts in everyday life. Women experience discrimination regarding access to property and social resources, and problems of personal security and cultural equality. The traditional patriarchal society that exists in Kosovo causes men to always be represented and exist foreground (The Borgen project, 2021).

For instance, property rights in the country are an indicator very clearly laying the situation before eyes. Women own only 17% of property in Kosovo because of the code of ethics, traditional societal norms and traditions. Women proceed with basic judgments of making a living inside the home and men outside, and act within this framework in many other areas, especially in property. As a result, women's ownership of property is restricted; it is even specified that if the husband dies, the property rights should go to the woman's brother or a male cousin. Thus, cultural norms are important and significantly limit women's chances of economic and social progress (The Borgen project, 2021).

In January 2014, [UN Women in Kosovo] financed the preparation of a report and brochure to provide information on property rights, related legal structures and codes to women in Kosovo. Other organizations and human rights NGOs, including the European Union Rule of Law Mission in Kosovo (EULEX), have followed suit and undertaken and supported campaigns aimed at researching, spreading awareness and pressuring the domestic government to enforce equal property rights.

In terms of business life, women's participation in the labour market remains very low in Kosovo. According to the World Bank, labour force participation in the country is very low - especially among women. In 2014, about 57% of the working population became passive. The unemployment rate of women in rural areas seems higher than that of men while the unemployment rate of men has reached 37.2%; it is 77.2% for women. The World Bank report states the main causes behind women's unemployment as family responsibilities depending on the formation of the family. In frequently seen cases, the provision of child care is also problematic and is influenced by social norms. Financial difficulties begin to arise for parents of children in need of institutional care. Similar difficulties in caring for older members of the family are also experienced. Hence, responsibilities within the family and home also limit the activities of working women. In 2015, only 28 percent of the total number of employees in Kosovo municipalities were women (Paci, 2021: 289).

In Kosovo, both women and women in minority groups have problems not only in education, employment, and participation in political life but also in more specific issues, such as domestic violence. A survey carried out in Kosovo on a sample of 1315 adult Kosovans of all ethnic groups (51.6% women) was aimed at measuring awareness, attitudes, and incidence of domestic violence. Results indicated that 68% of women and 56% of men reported they had suffered some form of domestic violence in their lifetimes. Men reported experiencing violence from their parents, while women suffered violence from both parents and partners. Attitudes toward violence were examined in detail. The idea that domestic violence is "a normal part of any relationship and society, in general, accepts that violence happens sometimes" was accepted by 29.9% of respondents. Similarly, 31.3% of respondents believe that domestic violence is "a family matter, so neighbours should not report it to the police". The Government of Kosovo launched 2017 the National Strategy that tackled domestic violence only (europarl.europa.eu, 2019).

In Kosovo, inadequacies exist in the protection of women from domestic violence and in meeting the needs of sheltering and protecting women who have been exposed to domestic violence. The inadequacy of women's shelters and the weak management of inter-agency cases pave the way for inadequacy in the fight against not only domestic violence but also gender-based violence in general.

Concerning women and minority women, yet another issue that refrained to be voiced and even is problematic to speak about socio-psychologically, is the sexual violence experienced in Kosovo during and after the war. Although the exact numbers are still unknown, it is estimated

that around 20,000 women were subjected to sexual violence during the war. Women from ethnic groups other than Albanians had also suffered sexual violence. In the trial of [the late president of Serbia in former Yugoslavia Slobodan Milosevic in the International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia (ICTY), sexual violence during the war was defined as a crime against humanity (Daşlı et al., 2016: 59).

With the encouragement of women's organizations, a few women who testified at the ICTY later regretted it and chose to remain silent. Women's struggle for years, Women's World Experiences in the Struggle for Peace have achieved both legal and social gains even in such an issue in which silence and silencing are very deep. In 2014, women victims of conflict-related sexual violence were deemed "victims of war" just like fighters and their families and were included in the law that provides compensation for these groups (Daşlı et al., 2016: 61-63).

Women in Kosovo are tussling to have their voices heard on all national platforms. As an example, [during the observation of the International Women's on March 8, 2018, women marched for equality. Hundreds of women participated in the march that took place in the main streets of the capital Pristina, Kosovo. Women marched under the slogan "We are not celebrating, we are organizing a march". Kosovo women expressed the inequality, injustice and wrongdoings they face in society by shouting slogans. Women protesters holding banners such as "Occupation has no gender," "We want the job," "My body, my choice," and "No to sexual harassment" often chanted "We don't celebrate, we organize marches" and tried to make their voices heard with the slogans "No to unemployment and poverty," and "No to violence against women". This time, men supported women and participated in the march organized by Kosovo Women's Network and women's associations. In Kosovo, where 50 percent of the population is women, women protesters, who consider it unfair that only 12 percent of women work, demanded 50 percent representation of women in decision-making bodies, trade unions, public and private institutions, and all levels of society. These demands were also expressed in the speeches made within the framework of the protest (AVİM, 2018).

On the subject of violence against women, artists in Kosovo and the global community have spearheaded awareness campaigns. In July 2015, a Kosovo-born artist transformed a football pitch into a giant art installation in tribute to survivors of sexual violence on the anniversary of NATO forces entering post-conflict Pristina. Thousands of clean, donated dresses hanging on washing lines over the "masculine" football field reminded citizens of the crimes committed against their countrywomen, broke the oppressive silence on Kosovo's wartime rapes, and served as a step toward removing the heavy stigma of victimhood (opendemocracy.org, 2015).

Hence, women and minority women strive to make their problems heard more loudly every passing day through non-governmental organizations, international organizations and domestic national initiatives. As stakeholders and initiatives multiply, women and minority women have the potential to raise awareness of changing social norms in Kosovo. Such initiatives also increase the strength of legal norms.

Feminist Legal Theory offers valuable insights and perspectives on the issues related to women's rights and gender equality discussed in the provided text. Feminist Legal Theory recognizes that the struggle for women's rights is ongoing and highlights the need for legal systems to address gender-based discrimination and promote gender equality. It critiques traditional legal frameworks that have historically perpetuated gender disparities and calls for a more inclusive and equitable approach to law. In the context of Kosovo, Feminist Legal Theory would likely emphasize the importance of recognizing women's rights as human rights and advocating for their full integration into legal frameworks. It would stress the need for comprehensive legislation that addresses not only formal legal equality but also substantive

equality, considering the socio-cultural context and specific challenges faced by women in Kosovo.

Feminist Legal Theory would scrutinize the existing legal norms and institutions in Kosovo to identify any biases or discriminatory practices that hinder the realization of gender equality. It would support the adoption and implementation of international conventions such as the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW) and the Istanbul Convention, recognizing their significance in promoting women's rights and combating violence against women.

Furthermore, Feminist Legal Theory would critique the patriarchal norms and cultural traditions that perpetuate gender inequalities in Kosovo, such as restricted access to education, limited political participation, unequal property rights, and pervasive domestic violence. It would advocate for legal and social reforms aimed at challenging and transforming these structures of oppression.

Feminist Legal Theory would also underscore the importance of intersectionality, acknowledging that women's experiences and struggles are shaped by multiple intersecting factors, such as race, ethnicity, class, and sexuality. It would call for an inclusive approach that considers the specific needs and challenges faced by minority women in Kosovo, ensuring that their voices and experiences are heard and addressed.

Overall, Feminist Legal Theory provides a critical lens through which to analyse and advocate for gender equality, women's rights, and social justice within the legal system of Kosovo. It emphasizes the need for legal reforms, policy changes, and societal transformations to create a more just and inclusive society for all individuals, regardless of their gender.

4. CONCLUSION

In the world, in general, and in Kosovo, in particular, since its establishment, women's rights seem to have been guaranteed by international regulations within the scope of human rights in general. The visibility of women in business, education, politics, and inheritance in the country has started to gradually increase owing to these norms. Yet, in practice, the patriarchal structure and social norms determined by this structure contradict legal norms, and difficulties continue for women.

To this must be added the situation of minority women in the country. Advanced international regulations and norms are in force regarding the rights that minorities will have in the countries where they live. Many different minority groups live in Kosovo, a new country that gained independence in 2008. Apart from Albanians, who hold the constitutional majority, six different minority communities have been recognized. The country has accepted international norms concerning minority rights with the Constitution of the Republic of Kosovo adopted in 2009 and the Conventions adopted afterward. However, both minority groups, in general, and women, in particular, face many problems and obstacles in exercising these rights.

Particularly women who make up half of the country's population experience problems in many areas such as education, employment, non-family/external violence, exclusion and discrimination despite the ratification of the Women and Istanbul Conventions. In the face of these problems, women organizing protests to make their voices heard at the national level desire to protect and strengthen their existence both as a minority and as women. Ergo, they wish to obtain the rights that they have at the legal level at the implementation level as well.

The problem in Kosovo is that social norms are more common and are accepted more deeply than legal norms. In this case, although the visibility of women increases, their problems in

implementation and content continue. Changing social norms by societies depends on changes to take place in social and cultural life along with legal regulations. Thus, for Kosovo women or minority women to continue their struggle is the most usual instrument. With the international and national incentives of political decision-makers, change is inevitable as the practices on social norms soundly increase over time. Hence, it is substantial to emphasize the importance of the issue by all stakeholders focusing more on this issue and staying on the agenda.

To expose, identify and address the discriminatory and exclusionary attitudes in social behaviours are critical. In addition, conducting works to this end in local, regional and international platforms and raising awareness are considered essential for the change of social norms. As such, it would be beneficial to make these problems visible, show them and address them for the Kosovo women to overcome, within the patriarchal structure they live in, economic, political, and cultural problems, and domestic and extra-familial sexual violence.

The results obtained in the study show that women in Kosovo also experience the situations constructed by feminist legal theory on women. Thus, the main problem of the study, the situation that women live through established stereotypes and constructed situations, has been confirmed. In the study, the contradiction between legal norms and practices in Kosovo was also questioned as a sub-problem. It has been determined that problems continue in this field in the country.

The concept of women constructed in feminist legal theory and the content of this concept is one of the points where the study is similar to the field. Studies in feminist legal theory also indicate that it is necessary to constantly emphasise and monitor norms and practices. One of the common points that the study has in common with its counterparts in the field is that the practices in this context are carefully followed and constantly monitored and discussed in the public opinion and literature.

What distinguishes the study from other similar studies in the field is that it has tested legal norms and practices in Kosovo through case studies. Another distinctive point of the study is that it contributes to the few studies on feminist legal theory in Kosovo with up-to-date data.

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Discussions on the Growth Efficiency of Expansionary Fiscal Policy via Monetary Policy in Shrinking Periods: Wide Range of Country Analysis

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Abstract

There are many different opinions in the literature that expansionary fiscal policies can be effective on growth during periods of economic contraction. In this study, different approaches to expansionary fiscal policies are examined in terms of the effects and tradeoffs between fiscal expenditures-growth, expansionary tax policies-growth and inflation-growth. The short-term and long-term effects of fiscal policies on growth in 110 countries for the period of 2007-2016 were analyzed, taking into account the expansionary policies of the 2007-2009 period, the effect of the main growth dynamics and the interaction of monetary-fiscal policies. The results show the holistic view and effectiveness.

Keywords: Expansionary Fiscal Policy, Monetary Policy, Growth, Shrinking Period

1. INTRODUCTION

There are many different approaches and views in the literature on the effectiveness of expansionary fiscal policies applied in times of economic recession on growth. The aim of this study is to analyze the effectiveness of the implementation of fiscal policy, while bringing up different views on the effectiveness of fiscal policy practices. When examining fiscal policies and their effectiveness, we come across three different issues. These are the effect of fiscal expenditures on growth, the effect of expansionary tax policies on growth, and the effect of emerging or initial inflation on growth with policies. For this reason, in a part of the study, discussions in the literature on expenditures and growth, tax policies and growth, inflation and growth are included. Within the scope of the analysis, expenditure items, taxes and inflation variables are also included.

In addition to these, it is a fact that the growth efficiency of fiscal policy cannot be evaluated only in terms of policies. The impact of monetary policy becomes as important as fiscal policies. For this reason, within the scope of the analysis, only the effectiveness of the fiscal policy is examined, but in another model, the effectiveness of monetary and fiscal policies is examined together. Although it focuses on the effectiveness of expansionary policies, another fundamental factor is that the state of the structural and main variables that determine the growth of countries also determines policy effectiveness. For this reason, a consolidated analysis was made by including not only expansionary policies but also other main variables such as investment, capital stock, and savings that determine growth in all analyzes.

In this study, while determining the variables and scope of analysis, a comprehensive observation was tried to be made by including the main points that came to the fore and discussed in the literature. For this reason, the main points in the literature have also been the subject of the analysis.

The article is organized as follows, in the first part of the article; an extensive literature study was conducted. However, the aim here is to see the relationship between basic expansionary fiscal policies and growth. For this reason, the relationship between tax-growth, fiscal expenditure-growth and inflation-growth is included with discussions in the literature. In the second part, detailed information is given about the research method, methodology and data used. In the third part, it was aimed to find the growth efficiency by examining different models including basic expansionary fiscal policy variables, growth dynamics and monetary policy effects with a comprehensive data set consisting of 110 developed and developing countries.

The main question of the study is to investigate whether fiscal policy expenditures and tax cuts made in times of economic contraction are really effective, under the influence of inflation and basic growth dynamics, and taking into account the interaction with monetary policy. For this reason, the study seeks to answer a detailed question.

In order to reach a comprehensive analysis result, the data set of 110 countries consisting of 55 developed and 55 developing countries was studied. Within the scope of the analysis, basic growth variables, selected financial expenditures, income and corporate tax items, inflation variables are included. In the analyzes that include monetary policy, money supply items and policy rates are also used. Within the scope of the analysis, the period of 2007-2016 was taken and while the basic growth dynamics reflect the whole of this period, the period of 2007-2009, which is common to all countries, was determined for expansionary fiscal and monetary variables in order to see the effectiveness of the policies of the shrinking period. The results also synthesize the perspectives in the literature and reflect policy effectiveness in the aggregated country set.

Looking at the results of the analysis, it has been observed that fiscal policy expenditures for 110 countries are not pro-growth in the aggregated effect. The main expenditure items used here are employee expenditures, social expenditures and incentives. This result is considered as an indication that the composition of these expenditure items of countries is not uniform enough to encourage investment and growth. On the other hand, the fact that the expansionary interest policy was the same in all countries supported the growth. The inflationary effect, on the other hand, is seen to be limited. Although it is observed that the capital stock supports growth in all countries, the fact that the growth stemming from the previous period's growth supports other periods shows that the structural soundness of the countries is also effective.

Based on the results of the study, it is evaluated that the composition of expenditures and the level of joint action in resource transfer of countries may be pro-growth as much as expenditures in the growth efficiency of fiscal policies. For this reason, it is considered that resources that can be directly transferred to investment and consumption may be more pro-growth.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Discussions on the Growth Efficiency of Expansionary Fiscal Policies

In addition to the views advocating the effectiveness of expansionary fiscal policy on growth, there are also approaches suggesting that it has a limited effect. Almost the majority of the views supporting that growth will be achieved through fiscal policies argue that efficiency will increase if certain conditions are met. On the other hand, it is seen that the approaches with limited effect stand on the growth trade-off that the resulting inflation and budget deficit will cause in the long run. When it is considered in terms of policies, it is thought that examining the subject in terms of tax policy-growth, fiscal expenditure-growth and inflation-growth will shed light on the discussions in terms of policy effectiveness.

2.1.1. Views on the Relationship between Tax and Growth

In this section, different views on the effectiveness of tax policies, especially expansionary tax policies, on growth will be given. In the literature, besides the approaches that advocate the growth efficiency of expansionary tax policies, there are also opinions that argue they are not effective.

In the Keynesian point of view, expansionary tax policies are given importance because they increase the consumption tendency. According to Keynesians fiscal policy causes a higher change, especially on expectations, rather than the effect that will occur through the interest rate channel. Keynes argues that taxes such as income tax, inheritance tax, capital gains directly affect the consumption tendency. Similarly, increases in taxation for the payment of debts directly affect the consumption channel. For this reason, fiscal policy becomes determinant in the increase of effective demand and thus in supporting growth through taxes. (Keynes, 2010a: 89) It is also considered important that the state supports the taxation system in a way that will increase consumption. (Keynes, 2010a:319)

Post Keynesians gave importance to taxation policy that would not suppress consumption as well as expansionary policies made with public expenditures. Post Keynesians criticize the collection of indirect or direct taxes from the working population as it will limit the purchase of consumer products and create problems in these sectors. For this reason, they advocate collecting taxes from high-income people. Since taxes on profits will limit luxury consumption expenditures, they prevent both imports and inflation in these products. On the other hand, it is argued that making income tax exemptions to the lower income group with a higher consumption tendency would be more pro-growth. (Kalecki, 1946b:82) According to Kalecki, although taxed profits limit employment growth to some extent, it also prevents inflation due to excessive consumption as it will provide balanced growth. However, while providing the development of necessary industries with expansionary taxation, he also suggested that the increase in demand for some non-essential consumer goods and the increasing inflation should be balanced with taxes that would limit consumption. It is also emphasized that in cases where the sector does not produce by remaining liquid and waits for speculative purposes, taxation for public investments will prevent inflation caused by product scarcity. (Kalecki, 1955: 13, 19)

It can be said that the classical point of view does not include the views that expansionary tax policies will be effective. The basic point of view is budget deficits that will be caused by expansionary tax policies like tax incentives and reductions will have to be eliminated through taxation, so it will not have a positive effect on growth in the long run. Due to the fact that the taxes taken from the capital affect the production and the taxes taken from the labor force negatively affect the consumption after budget deficit, it is argued that the expansionary policy effect will not be pro-growth. (Smith, 2015a: 767-1085, Ricardo, 2008a:165)

The prominent issue within the scope of the monetarist view is the control of expenditures and taxes and the provision of a balanced budget. For this reason, expansionary tax policies were not favored since it was important to provide tax revenue as much as expenditures. On the other hand, the necessity for the progressive income tax system to be well established was also taken into consideration. (Friedman, 1948: 2,3)

In the New Classical approach, it is emphasized that expenditures should be balanced with tax revenues. Since they argued that public expenditures would be pro-growth if they were permanent, they emphasized that taxes should be used as a policy tool that balances

expenditures. But here, too, they did not take kindly to the taxation that narrowed consumption, as they were not pro-growth. (Baxter and King, 1993)

New Keynesians argued that a change in income and indirect tax composition with the differentiation of tax burden can directly affect economic activity and be pro-growth. They mentioned the studies that reducing indirect taxes and increasing direct taxes can support growth by providing a better balance between inflation and employment. (Greenwald, Stiglitz, Hall et al, 1988: 217-218)

2.1.2. Views on the Relationship between Fiscal Expenditure and Growth

Narrow debates on the effectiveness of fiscal expenditures on growth differ. The views advocating that expenditures are pro-growth say that the growth that will come through the demand and supply channels is permanent in the presence of certain conditions. On the other hand, when looking at the views that attribute limited impact, it is seen that they emphasize budget deficits and inflation caused by expenditures are not pro-growth in the long run.

From the Keynesian point of view, it is argued that effective demand should also be supported through expenditures in periods when economies shrink. In times of contraction in which employment decreases, investments and growth slow down, as consumption through incomes also decreases. Keynes argues that in this period, the state's unemployment benefit by giving budget deficits or borrowing should cover the loss in consumption by providing consumption above the income. Thus, investments and employment levels are protected before the process gets worse. (Keynes, 2010a: 91-92) According to Keynes, it is not very possible to reach the investment level that will provide full employment through the interest rate channel of monetary policy. For this reason, it is necessary to fix the level of interest that will provide investments and to use other ways. Keynes advocates increasing public investment as well. (Keynes, 2010a:319) For this reason, from a Keynesian point of view, expansionary fiscal policy affects the effective demand through taxes, investments and other regulations (especially in the periods when the marginal efficiency of capital is low and investments stop) while it supports new investments, and in case of achieving full employment level, it supports permanent growth. In the Keynesian perspective, the internal dynamics of the countries have also been defined as a determinant in the policy impact. (Keynes, 2010a:37)

It is seen that the Post Keynesian perspective gives priority to public expenditures and a larger state structure. In cases where economies shrink, especially due to the spiral of high public and household indebtedness, it is considered necessary to increase public expenditures at the expense of the budget deficit. It is argued that supporting the falling private sector profitability and consumption with public expenditures, especially in periods of payment crises, will provide a faster recovery and prevent the deepening of the contraction. (Minsky, 1995c) When public expenditures increase, growth is supported through two channels. These are the direct effect of public procurement and indirectly the income-driven increase in the consumption of the labor force. It is assumed that profits and wages increase as output increases. (Lopez and Assous, 2010: 131) In order for expenditures to support public investments, it has been suggested that tax revenues be provided in a way that does not suppress consumption. (Kalecki, 1955: 13, 19) However, according to Post Keynesians, the effects of a growth rate below or above the natural growth rate that a country can achieve in current technology, population density and capital also differ. It is emphasized that when a growth point above the natural growth rate is reached, the deflation process is entered before the full employment level is reached, while it narrows the current growth more rapidly and brings unemployment along with it. Trying to increase growth after this point brings along the inflationary effect along with the increase in profitability. The inflationary effect, on the other hand, has a contractionary

effect on growth since it also limits the consumption and savings of fixed incomes. When a growth rate below the natural growth rate is encouraged, growth occurs with successive increases in profitability. (Harrod, Blume et al, 2015:364,374) For this reason, if the current growth rate is below the natural growth rate, growth is supported by public expenditures. However, it is argued that in cases where the growth rate is above natural growth, it is necessary to keep the effect under control with interest rates and coordinated public policies. (Harrod, Blume et al, 2015: 376)

The arguments of the classics on growth are more about inclusive growth and the need to support not only certain sectors but the entire economy. When we look at the classics in terms of fiscal policies, the jobs expected to be done by the state are defined as defense, justice, public works and education. Government entry into trade was considered unproductive. The focus is on a cycle where high taxation, after periods of high spending with an expansionary fiscal policy, reduces the productivity of productive labor and shifts resources to unproductive labor. In other words, the long-term effectiveness of the expansionary fiscal policy due to the budget and taxation channel is a matter of debate. In addition, if taxation is made on capital, it is expected to have a negative impact on growth because it narrows production directly, and if it is made on income, consumption. This effect is felt more clearly when the high indebtedness caused by the continuation of high expenditures is tried to be compensated especially through the tax channel. Considering that the classical point of view sees productive labor as the main dynamic of growth, the reflection of high expenditures that come with the expansionary policy on the indebtedness and taxes of the labor force also negatively affects production and growth. (Smith, 2015a:767-1085, Ricardo, 2008a:165) In particular, the indebtedness brought by non-productive expenditures (war expenditures, etc.) in fiscal policies is defined as the withdrawal of resources from the productive area. Three types of productive areas are excluded here. First, the capital is used in a non-productive area, secondly, if the money received from the country through indebtedness is taken from productive capital, possible production is excluded. (Mill, 2009: 96-98)

The pioneers of monetarism, on the other hand, while drawing a more limited and controlled area to fiscal policy, also emphasized the concept of balanced budget. In fiscal policy, the most limited expenditure possible, which equates expenditures with revenues, is advocated. For this reason, approaches that balance the budget come to the fore rather than proposing expansionary policies in shrinking periods. For example, Meltzer argued that behind the successful policies of the 1950s, the balanced budget applied rather than monetary policy. (Bordo,2018a:21) Considering Friedman's views, it is suggested that expenditures should be made within these revenues, together with the determination of tax policy and revenues. Except for the expenditures necessary for public service and private consumption, expenditures depending on the will of the society and changing should not be made. A similar view prevails in transfer expenditures and periodic changes are not desired. In the case of a compulsory expenditure, it is aimed to create an income and to provide it through taxes. (Friedman, 1948: 2,3)

According to the New Classics, the effects of public expenditures (product and service purchases) on economic growth in shrinking periods are determined by the sources of taxation and whether the application is permanent or temporary. They focused on the findings that a permanent application rather than a temporary application would increase growth more. The negative impact of permanent public expenditure on the welfare of individuals through taxes and this not only reduces consumption, but also leads to an increase in labor supply. Here they found results that the need to regain lost income increases production and ultimately output. In such a case, growth is also supported by the increase in production in the long run. In taxation,

it is emphasized that the lump-sum tax will increase the public expenditure effect on growth, instead of an income tax increase, which will not reduce consumption for a long time. In cases where public investments do not have a crowding out effect, it is thought to support growth as long as it increases the productivity of the private sector and labor force. (Baxter and King, 1993)

The New-Keynesians have looked at the effectiveness of expansionary policies, especially with the trade-offs of inflation, employment and growth. Fiscal policy, on the other hand, should be used when monetary policy is ineffective. Likewise, in order to talk about successful growth, they set out with a perspective that takes not only expansionary periods but also long-term growth averages. They tried to explain the more successful policies in some countries not only by the inflation level over the years, but also by structural factors. However, since the reason for every crisis or every contraction period is not the same, they have gained a new perspective by examining that the expansionary policy will not be pro-growth in all cases, on the contrary, it may be necessary to implement contractionary policies to ensure growth in the long run. The New Keynesians examined the factors causing the contraction in the economy and the source of the crisis by highlighting it in the policy component. For example, the implementation of expansionary monetary and fiscal policies may be riskier in an economy where capital outflows are intense and contracting due to financial crisis. Especially in countries that are sensitive to capital flows, policy sets that try to prevent capital outflow by closing budget deficits with high interest policy and tight fiscal policy come to the fore. As much as the high interest rate policy provides time for expansionary policies by providing revaluation of money for long-term growth; It may have no effect in cases where the economic trust environment and infrastructure cannot be provided. For this reason, as much as the contraction in the economies, the factors that cause it and the state of the economies become important. (Stiglitz, Furman, Bostworth et al, 1998b: 1-28, 73-82) The expansionary policy set is not expected to support growth in countries where economies are fragile without overcoming these and similar vulnerabilities. Structural factors that determine growth and vary between countries, as well as the impact of expansionary policies on growth, have been the focus of new Keynesians. It is known that especially expansionary policies accelerate investments by supporting them in shrinking periods. In this context, the main reasons for the expansionary policies implemented in some countries to contribute more to growth, while in others less, are determined by the stable and reliable policy environment, open and competitive economy and areas where the public sector is concentrated. Factors such as monetary and fiscal policy coherence, sound exchange rate management, reliability of economic policies, and sound legal infrastructure determine the level of reliability of countries. Open competition, providing access to information, physical and human capital factor also determine the competitive level. Countries where investments and expenditures of public policies are concentrated in areas where the private sector cannot be successful are more support growth. It is suggested that areas such as education, health, communication, defense, justice, regulation of financial markets should remain as public policy. (Stiglitz and Square, 1998a)

2.1.3. Views on the Relationship between Inflation and Growth

The inflationary effect of expansionary fiscal policies and long-term growth trade-offs are included in almost all approaches. However, some views argue that if certain conditions and policy components occur, the inflationary effect will be less decisive. For this reason, while some approaches put more emphasis on inflation, others focused on the fact that growth can be supported by expansionary policies.

Although it is accepted from the Keynesian point of view that expansionary policies will cause price and wage increases, it is thought that this effect will be limited in cases where the economic conditions are not met and below the full employment level. (Keynes, 2010a: 251-259) On the other hand, it is emphasized that the price increase that occurs when the increase in demand does not affect the output is chronic and permanent. (Keynes, 2010a: 251-259)

In the post-Keynesian perspective, it is seen that the effectiveness of policies on growth is considered within the cyclicity discussions. According to this point of view, since the natural course of growth is cyclical, the effect of expansionary monetary or fiscal policies varies according to which growth cycle the countries are in. Accordingly, there is a maximum growth point that countries can reach, which they defined as the natural growth rate. For this reason, it is emphasized that no matter how much production and investment are, after a while, there will be a slowdown tendency due to insufficient effective demand. Even if investments are supported by technological innovations, the maximum point that growth will reach is certain. After this point, the intensity of the technology will not be effective as it will not provide the same amount of benefit. For this reason, even the technology that is thought to increase growth causes only an increase in inflation after the effective point. (Kalecki, 1962a) It is possible to meet with high public debt during the exit periods from the shrinking economies. It has been observed that interest rates and inflation increase in cases where the need to keep interest rates low by using expansionary monetary policy and the accompanying expansionary fiscal policy support rapidly increase investments. It also focuses on a cycle followed by contractionary policies for the resulting crises. (Minsky: 1972) It is thought that it would be appropriate to run a budget surplus and increase taxes in periods when this structuring accelerates the inflationary effect. (Minsky, 1992b:11-12) In order to reduce the inflationary effect of growth, reducing public administration expenses is among the suggestions. (Kalecki, 1955: 13)

The classical point of view looked at the expansionary policies in terms of the budget deficits they caused and emphasized that they were not pro-growth in the long run. It is seen that especially the pioneers of classics mentioned that budget deficits and compensation will also have an inflationary effect.

According to monetarists, the inflationary and even hyperinflationary effect of compensating the budget deficits that increased as a result of expansionary policies by printing money is emphasized. (Friedman, 1969c:2) Although it is known that trying to close the deficit by increasing the taxes collected from the households reduces the total demand, it is emphasized that the government prevents the increase in interest rates by borrowing. However, it is emphasized that, contrary to the effect of taxes on domestic demand, low interest rates will be used for borrowing by those whose expenditures are cut by taxes and will have an indirect inflationary effect. In other words, the effect of indebtedness and slowing demand coming from the budget is transformed into demand by means of public borrowing through taxes. In this case, while the interest rates increase more limitedly, the inflationary effect continues. From this point of view, although it is seen that both fiscal and monetary expansion have an inflationary effect, it is also possible that the effect of fiscal expansion will be slower and more indirect than the borrowing strategy implemented after budget deficits. (Friedman, 1969c:4)

The advocates of the new classical approach evaluated the effect of expansionary fiscal policy on growth through its coordination with monetary policy, indebtedness and inflationary results. The results of the policy component are determined according to the dominant monetary or dominant fiscal policy. For example, in economies where tight monetary policy is implemented, monetary base is determined and seigniorage incomes are limited, the expansion area of fiscal policy is also limited. In such a case, excessive increase in the budget deficits is not allowed through the domestic export channel with high volumes and high interest rates, there

is no need for seigniorage income afterwards, and the inflationary effect that will come from this channel is also limited. In cases where fiscal policy is dominant, budget deficits increase rapidly and deficits are tried to be closed with high domestic issuances, the tight stance of monetary policy results in a higher inflationary effect with the need for seigniorage income after a while. Here, it is emphasized that the increasing cost of domestic export and borrowing and the fact that domestic demand has a limit will bring expansionary monetary policy and higher inflation compared to the first situation in the long run. For this reason, the opinion that the dominant and uncontrolled expansionary fiscal policy will have a negative effect on growth through the inflation channel comes to the fore. (Sargent and Wallas, 1981)

In the New Consensus approach, since the greatest negative effect on growth in expansionary policy periods is due to inflation, policies and interest rate rules are determined over inflation. For this reason, they oppose the expansionary policies of the fiscal policy because of their disinflationary effect. They care about a balanced fiscal policy over a balanced budget. In addition, they set a policy priority for monetary policy that will not cause excessive indebtedness in the budget and will prevent the inflationary effect of taxes increased due to the indebtedness effect. They argue that the way to control the increases in firm product prices, not only in demand but also in the supply channel, is through an environment of trust, manageable expectations and inflation. For this reason, they prioritize controlled and balanced inflation in order for expansionary policies to result in successful growth. They emphasized that the demand-increasing effects of the fiscal policy, on the other hand, will increase inflation by causing deviations, therefore a balanced budget should be put forward. The functioning of rational expectations, on the other hand, manifests itself as monetary expansion and differentiation in the market on prices. For this reason, they find the change in prices relative. In such a case, it is thought that expansionary policies may affect growth. (King, 1982)

3. METHODOLOGY

In order to measure the effect of fiscal policies implemented during periods of shrinking economies on growth, data from 110 countries covering the period of 2007-2016 were collected. In addition to the GDP growth within the scope of the analysis; 4 main growth variables and 6 fiscal policy variables are used in the model. In order to analyze the fiscal policy effect with monetary policy together one more model is also produced with additional 4 more monetary policy variables. Models also include the inflation variable to understand the net effect of growth-inflation tradeoff. In order to find the effect of the policy applied in the periods when the economies shrank, a general impact analysis was tried to be made by taking into account the policies of the 2007-2009 period, which are common to all countries.

Within the scope of the analysis, the dynamic panel method was used to see both the effects of the variables in the previous year and the effects of the past and present variables with each other. In order to provide a better analysis of independent variables that are not completely exogenous, analyzes were made with the system GMM (generalized method of moments) estimator developed by Arellano and Bond. There are many reasons why the Arellano and Bond dynamic panel estimator is preferred. In studies that are likely to have an effect on the lags of the dependent variable in the panel data, putting these data as explanatory variables create an endogeneity problem since it will cause the correlation of these variables with the error terms. For this reason, using OLS-ordinary least square estimators causes inconsistent results. In this case, the Arellano Bond estimator is recommended as a solution for panels with high N variables and short time dimension. On the other hand, for long panels, mean group estimator, pool mean group estimator and common correlated effects mean group estimator which also includes panel unit root and cointegration tests estimators are suggested. For this

reason, the Arellano Bond estimator, which is used as a dynamic panel method, is suitable for models where the time dimension t does not exceed 10 periods and the number of n observations is at least 55. On the other hand, the relationship of dynamic variables with past realizations can be examined. It takes into account that the independent variables may also be related to the error terms of their past and present realizations, that is, they can also observe the case of not being completely exogenous. In addition, in case of heterogeneity in the data, the GMM method is an ideal method. It provides the most efficient estimation by using orthogonality conditions in case of heterogeneity, that is, changing variance. In addition to the heterogeneity problem, it is a preferred method because it provides a solution to the autocorrelation situation. (Roodman, 2009) It is recommended to add dummy variables including time variables to the model in order to provide the assumption that there is no autocorrelation between cross-sections in the coefficients of the standard errors of the autocorrelation test and the robust estimators. For this reason, time dummy variables were added to the analysis for each year.

It is recommended that Sargan and Hansen tests be performed together to check the model and estimator accuracy of GMM model. These tests are used in case the established model excludes explanatory variables or to test how valid the model is. Sargan tests the validity of the variables used in the model and evaluates the model as a whole. The H_0 hypothesis of the Sargan test accepts that all variables in the model are valid. If the probability value in the model result is greater than 0.05, the H_0 hypothesis is accepted and the variables used in the model are valid. In the opposite case, it is thought that there is over-identification in the model and the variables are not valid. The fact that the probability value is very close to 1 in the Sargan test causes the rejection of the H_0 hypothesis, since it shows that asymptotic features are revealed. The H_0 hypothesis of the Hansen test accepts that all variables are valid. It is recommended that the optimum probability value is between 0.1 and 0.25. It is stated that it will not be considered very valid between 0.4 and 0.9, and if it is above 0.9, the model should be completely rejected. (Roodman, 2009)

Another point to check in GMM estimators is that there is no autocorrelation in the error terms. As a result of the test, it is possible to measure whether there is AR (1) and AR (2) type autocorrelation. If the probability values are greater than 0.05, the validity of the H_0 hypothesis, which accepts that there is no autocorrelation, is confirmed. The possibility of AR (1) type autocorrelation is predictable in the models, and the absence of AR (2) type autocorrelation is required for validity. (Roodman, 2009; Roodman, 2014; Labra and Torrecillas, 2018)

Another advantage of Arellano-Bond GMM estimators is that they allow variables to be defined as endogenous, exogenous, fully exogenous, or predetermined. If the past period realizations of the data have an effect at t time, the data are considered endogenous. In this study, previous period growth data, basic growth variables (investment, savings, capital stock, human capital) and inflation are taken as endogenous variables. If the realizations at time t are thought to be effective only in the next period, the data are taken as predetermined. All policy variables with a dummy variable assigned in the model are defined in this way. On the other hand, time dummy variables were defined as completely exogenous.

It is possible to summarize the general structure of 3 different models defined according to each group and collective country data with model-1. Here, Y_{it} is the GDP growth at time t for country i , $\sum_1^n Y_{i(t-n)}$ is the sum of different periods of growth up to $t-n$ time for each country, x_{it} is the vector of different lags of each explanatory variable $\beta(L)$, γ_t denotes the time effect for all countries, ϵ_{it} the error term for each country and time dimension.

$$Y_{it} = \alpha_1 \sum_1^n Y_{i(t-n)} + \beta(L)x_{it} + \gamma_t + \epsilon_{it} \quad (1)$$

In this context, each model is designed to see the effects of the variables, either together or separately, in the policy sets. In some models, the effects were tried to be observed by adding the variables gradually. All models were subjected to both Sargan and Hansen tests and both were significant. The models also passed autocorrelation tests.

Within the scope of the research, 12 different variables were used. Of these, 4 are basic growth variables, 4 are monetary realization data, and 3 are fiscal policy variables. Table 1 shows the variables.

Dependent Variable	Definition
Growth	Growth is calculated using real GDP data defined at constant national prices.
Independent Variables	Definition
Growth	Previous period realizations of growth
Capitalstock/GDP	Share of capital stock in GDP
Investment/GDP	The ratio of investments to GDP is expressed as a ratio of total investment in current local currency and GDP in current local currency. Investment or gross capital formation is measured as the total value of the gross fixed capital formation for a unit or industry and changes in inventories and acquisitions less the disposal of valuable assets.
Human Capital	Human capital index based on duration of education and return to education
Saving/GDP	Gross national saving, gross disposable income, minus final consumption expenditures, after taking into account an adjustment for pension funds, as a ratio of GDP
General Expenditure/GDP	Sum of employee expenditures, subsidies and social expenditures. Employee expenditure; Payments to employees; (cash wages and salaries, wages and salaries in kind, and employers' social contributions). Subvansion; subsidies, grants and other social benefits, all unrequited, non-refundable transfers to private and public institutions on current accounts; grants to foreign governments, international organizations and other government agencies, and social security, social benefits and employer benefits in cash and in kind. Social expenditure; social contributions to households, employers and the self-employed, actual or accrued contributions to social insurance programs run by governments are also in this group
Income Tax	Effective income tax ratio
Corporation Tax	Announced corporate tax rates
Inflation	Change of consumer price index compared to the previous year (2010)

4. RESULTS

Within the scope of the analysis, the effect of expansionary fiscal policy in addition to the basic growth dynamics for 110 countries was examined in the first model and the effect of monetary policy in the second model.

In order to see the effect of fiscal policy more clearly in the first model; growth variables, inflation and only fiscal policy variables are included in the model. The model shows that in addition to the positive contribution from the capital stock, the growth is supported by the previous growth and a negative impact from inflation and general expenditures is also observed. As a result of the analysis, although the long-term growth effect is evident, it can be explained that this growth originates from the previous period growth and comes from other variables within the growth. At the same time, a positive contribution from the capital stock could be observed. In the first model, although it is evident that inflation-growth tradeoff is clear both in the short and long run, the previous growth dynamics are more supportive to the

growth. This situation may be the reflection of the structural soundness in the growth dynamics of the countries on the growth as well as the effect of other variables. (Table 2)

In the second model, the effect of fiscal policy is examined together with monetary policy. Growth variables, inflation, monetary and fiscal policy variables are considered together. In the short run, the model has the effect of investment, inflation, interest, M3 money supply, incentives and income tax. Although the short-term effects reflect a certain situation, a model calculation is also made to see the long-term effect. Accordingly, the effect of investments in the long run with a low probability is evident. When looking at the fiscal policies, only subsidies were found to be significant among the expenditure items in the short term with a low probability, but no positive relationship was found with growth. It has been revealed that the subsidies given during the contraction period do not directly reflect on growth and are meaningless in the long run. It can be thought that the subsidies are not reflected in growth due to the fact that the subsidies given do not go to direct investments and are mostly used to protect the income-expenditure balance during the contraction period. In this item, it can be said that the area to increase investment and support growth is limited. There is also a negative outlook in the income tax item in the short run with a low probability, and its relationship with growth is meaningless in the long run. Second model also showing that even when looking at the expansionary fiscal policies with the data consisting of sub-fractions of fiscal expenditures and monetary variables, are not pro-growth both in the short and long run. When the monetary expansion policies are examined, it is seen that the growth stemming from the interest and M3 money supply disappears in the long term, while the inflationary effect is permanent. When the two policies are examined collectively, it has been revealed that the fiscal policy is not pro-growth. On the other hand, it is seen that the monetary policy supports the growth stemming from the expansionary interest rate policy. (Table 3)

The results of the models summarized in table 3. According to the models for all countries perspective it is evident that expansionary fiscal policies between the analysis period is not enough to pro-growth both in the short and long run. This result also shows that these expenditure items (employee expenditures, subsidies and social expenditures) do not create enough demand to increase growth. On the other hand, countries seem to act together to decrease interest rate which support growth more actively. Despite all the controversial views, it is observed that the negative effect of inflation on growth is limited compared to the contribution of expansionary policies to growth. (Table4)

Table 2: Model-1 Results											
Variables	Total Growth	L.Growth	L2.Growth	L3.Growth	I.Investment	L2.Investment	L3.Investment	L.Human Capital	L2.Human Capital	L3.Human Capital	
Short Term	0.39 (0.05)**	0.28*** (0.00)	0.0220 (0.724)	0.169*** (0.004)	0.0838 (0.409)	-0.114 (0.124)	-0.003 (0.95)	19.24 (0.582)	-0.695 (0.990)	-21.20 (0.380)	
Long Term		0.65 (0.0)			-			-			
Variables	L.Saving	L2.Saving	L3.Saving	I.Capital Stock	L2.Capital Stock	L3.Capital Stock	I.Inflation	L2.Inflation	L3.Inflation		
Short Term	-0.021 (0.748)	0.012 (0.747)	-0.030 (0.376)	-0.0058 (0.365)	0.0140* (0.016)	0.0019 (0.707)	- 0.127* (0.029)	0.0025 (0.967)	0.0952 (0.172)		
Long Term	-			0.02 (0.02)			-0.18 (0.03)				
Variables	L.Income Tax	L2.Income Tax	L3.Corporate Tax	L2.Corporate Tax	L.General Expenditure	L2.General Expenditure	L3.General Expenditure	Dum2009	Dum2010	Dum2011	
Short Term	-0.089 (0.58)	0.0795 (0.625)	-0.037 (0.8)	0.0575 (0.68)	0.052 (0.4)	-0.053 (0.881)	- 0.0534 (0.09)	-5.880 (0.06)	2.113 (0.23)	-2.244 (0.693)	
Long Term	-			-0.1 (0.06)							
Variables	Dum2012	Dum2013	Dum2014	Dum2015	Dum2016	-cons	Sargan	Hansen	N.of Ins/N	AR1	AR2
Result	1.769* (0.031)	0.243 (0.380)	-2.6 (0.2)	0.256 (0.3)	-0.04 (0.9)	5.39 (0.5)	0.604 (29.30)	0.218 (37.91)	65/770	0.0	0.47

Values in brackets are p values. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Table 3: Model-2 Results

Variables	Total Growth	L.Growth	L2.Growth	I.Investment	L2.Investment	L.Human Capital	L2.Human Capital	L.Saving	L2.Saving	I.Capital Stock	L2.Capital Stock
Short Term	-0.27 (0.08)	0.0949 (0.638)	-0.014 (0.958)	0.321* (0.029)	0.102 (0.523)	6.158 (0.871)	-4.047 (0.918)	0.0502 (0.556)	-0.061 (0.293)	0.0084 (0.657)	0.002 (0.81)
Long Term				0.34 (0.07)							
Variables	I.Inflation	L2.Inflation	L.Interest	L2.Interest	MI	L.MI	M3	L.M3	Social Expenditure	L.Social Expenditure	L2.Social Expenditure
Short Term	-0.23* (0.026)	-0.053 (0.517)	0.41*** (0.00)	0.463* (0.011)	-0.04 (0.137)	-0.023 (0.333)	-0.002 (0.875)	0.0188 (0.059)	-0.222 (0.152)	-1.630 (0.157)	1.585 (0.19)
Long Term	-0.2 (0.02)		0.59 (0.04)				0.02 (0.21)				
Variables	Employee Expenditures	L.Employee Expenditures	Subsidies	L.Subsidies	Income Tax	L.Income Tax	L2.Income Tax	Corporate Tax	L.Corporate Tax	Dum2009	Dum2010
Short Term	0.0052 (0.978)	-0.282 (0.215)	-0.169 (0.078)	-0.037 (0.652)	0.0496 (0.307)	0.588 (0.112)	-0.658 (0.082)	0.0885 (0.242)	0.0097 (0.920)	-4.101 (0.140)	-1.26 (0.59)
Long Term			-0.18 (0.21)		-0.7 (0.2)						
Variables	Dum2011	Dum2012	Dum2013	Dum2014	Dum2015	Dum2016	-cons	Sargan	Hansen	N.of Ins/N	AR1/AR2
Result	6.772 (0.525)	-3.213 (0.237)	-3.272 (0.217)	-3.569 (0.199)	-3.868 (0.172)	-4.302 (0.143)	-14.13 (0.209)	0.150 (16.99)	0.193 (15.96)	51/880	AR1 0.047 AR2 0.322

Values in brackets are p values. *p<0.05, **p<0.01, ***p<0.001

Table 4: Summary of Model Results

Time Period	Main Growth Dynamics					Monetary Policy			Fiscal Policy						
	Previous Growth	Investment	Saving	Capital Stock	Human Capital	Inflation	Interest	MI	M3	General Expenditure	Employee Expenditure	Subsidies	Social Expenditure	Income Tax	Corporate Tax
Short Term	√(+)	√(+)	•	√(+)	•	√(-)	√(+)	•	√(+)	√(-)	•	√(-)	•	•	•
Long Term	√(+)	√(+)	•	√(+)	•	√(-)	√(+)	•	•	√(-)	•	•	•	•	•

5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Within the scope of this study, the effect of expansionary fiscal policies on growth in the periods when economies contracted was not only analyzed, but also the main points were determined by examining the discussions in the literature. When the discussions in the literature are examined, it is argued that the effectiveness of expenditures and tax policies may be pro-growth under certain conditions. For this reason, policy recommendations have come to the fore in many perspectives. On the other hand, due to the inflationary effect that emerged after the expenditures and the budget deficit, there are also cautious views regarding growth.

When the comments in the literature are examined, it is possible to say that the effectiveness of fiscal policies is discussed in terms of tax expansion, growth in fiscal expenditures, and inflation-growth trade-off. For this reason, within the scope of this analysis, the main extender items and the inflation variable are especially included. On the other hand, the basic growth variables, namely the structural conditions of the economies, are as effective as the policies. In order to see the policy effectiveness, the contribution of the growth variables is also examined. In addition, it is a fact that expansionary fiscal policies act and interact with monetary policies. For this reason, the combined effect of monetary and fiscal policies was also examined in a different model in the analysis.

In the analysis, two models were studied to see the effect of expansionary fiscal policies on growth. In the first model, basic growth variables, fiscal policy variables and inflation were examined. In the second model, in addition to these, it was desired to look at the monetary policy and its collective effects. While the expansionary policies were determined by assigning dummy to the policies of the 2007-2009 period, the growth variables and the growth effect of the 2007-2016 period were examined in the short and long term.

From the results of the analysis, it has been revealed that the effects of fiscal policy are not pro-growth at a level that will increase aggregate demand and investments. It is seen that the expenditure items that consist of social expenditures, incentives and employee expenditures are insufficient in the aggregate analysis of all countries. A similar outlook emerged in income and corporate tax reductions. This situation reveals the importance of expenditure composition. It can be said that financial expenditures are insufficient to shift to direct investment and consumption. On the other hand, it is seen that monetary policy supports growth with common interest rate cuts. On the other hand, money supply increases did not have a growth effect in the long run. Here, it can be said that the more joint action of countries in monetary policy also supports growth. When the basic growth variables are examined, it is revealed that investments are insufficient and in the short term, and the capital stock supports growth. Looking at the inflation-growth trade-off in terms of variables, it was also reflected in the results that there was no inflation trade-off to such an extent that it would impair the effectiveness of policies.

In summary, the aggregated country analysis shows that countries can support their growth through interest rate cuts and investments, provided that their growth dynamics are also sound during periods of shrinkage. While the stable growth structure of the countries reflects positively on the growth in the next period; growth is also less affected by inflation trade-offs. For this reason, expansionary interest rate policies, supported by long-term and sustainable growth and investments, emerged as an effective policy tool. It is seen that the effectiveness of fiscal policies can only increase with common policies that will increase direct investment and support demand more. For this reason, it is considered that acting jointly in fiscal policy as well as monetary policy among all countries may be more pro-growth. In the processes where growth was supported, inflation was reflected in the results where the trade-off was more limited.

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Market Orientation as a Comparative Advantage Tool: Ankara Province Research Example¹

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Abstract

Within the scope of the study, the Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition, the Resource Advantage Theory, was explained and compared with the Neoclassical Perfect Competition Theory, which was criticized for not being applicable in today's economic conditions. The theory has been examined at the business level. The basis of the theory is that the solid and inimitable resources of the business give the business a competitive advantage in the market. To emphasize resource superiority, market orientation, a competitive tool, was used to support the theory statistically. Two hundred twenty-one businesses operating in Ankara with over twenty employees were selected as the research sample. The effect of market orientation on superior financial performance was analyzed by performing multiple linear regression analyses on the obtained data. As a result of the research, it was confirmed that market orientation is a source of comparative advantage, and the theory was statistically supported.

Keywords: The Comparative Theory of Competition, Market Orientation, Superior Financial Performance

1. INTRODUCTION

Businesses develop various strategies to gain an advantage against competitors in the increasingly competitive conditions in the digital world. To achieve a competitive advantage, it is essential to use their resources in the right way, at the right place, and at the right time. The competitiveness of businesses determines prices that are unique to them, cannot be imitated, and differentiate products from other performances.

The Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition, which is based on resources and efficiency thanks to the advanced competitive advantages that enable the business, is supported by Hunt and Morgan (1995). It is the fundamental proposition of the theoretical resource approach. The business stands out by creating a unique, valuable competitive advantage that cannot be imitated and generates more income than usual. The unique resources and availability of

¹ This study is derived from the doctoral thesis "Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition and Competitive Tools," published by Gazi University Institute of Social Sciences in 2016.

businesses differentiate them from their competitors in the market and explain the competitive advantage they achieve.

For businesses to emerge and differentiate themselves from their competitors, they must first know their businesses and their environment. They must first know their internal environment, analyze strong and weak information, and then get to know their external environment. They will attach great importance to knowing the market, the demands and needs of consumers, and their competitors for the strategies they will develop. Market orientation occurs when they produce information.

The study examined whether market orientation, which is a powerful resource for businesses, has an effect on superior financial performance. Market orientation can be one of the core competencies for businesses to differentiate from their competitors and gain a competitive advantage. Market orientation as a resource will create an advantage if it affects the superior financial performance of the business. As a result of the analysis of the study, the resource advantage approach, which the comparative advantage theory of competition emphasizes, will be revealed statistically.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

When the literature is examined (High, 2001; Guerrien, 1999), it can be seen that the concept of competition was discussed in all its dimensions and put forward with a theory in the Neoclassical period. Neoclassicals put forward the assumptions of competition with the Neoclassical Theory of Perfect Competition.

British political economist David Ricardo explained the Principle of Comparative Advantage in his 1817 book *Principles of Political Economy and Taxation*, why it is profitable for two countries to trade even if one has an absolute advantage in producing all products. Ricardo showed that what is essential is not the absolute cost of production but rather the relative efficiency with which two countries can produce their products (Cavusgil et al., 2012: 182).

2.1. The Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition

The Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition developed as a new competition concept in the strategy literature by Hunt and Morgan (1995), who have carried out essential studies on competitive advantage, is an alternative to the Neoclassical Perfect Competition Theory, whose applicability is impossible under today's conditions. The differences revealed by the Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition in resources and other business elements cause businesses to create superior value that will give them a competitive advantage.

Comparative advantage defines superior characteristics, usually arising from natural wealth or planned national policies, that provide unique benefits to a country in global competition. Comparative advantage, also known as a country-specific advantage, includes hereditary resources such as workforce, climate, arable land, and oil reserves extracted by gulf countries. Other comparative advantages are gained over time, such as entrepreneurial orientation, availability of venture capital, and innovative capacity (Cavusgil et al., 2012: 178-179). Hunt and Morgan (1995) discussed comparative advantage at the micro level regarding business. While their resources, natural wealth, and/or national policies make countries stand out in global

competition, the inimitable resources and competencies differentiate businesses in industrial markets and provide them with a competitive advantage.

Competition is the constant struggle between firms for comparative advantage in business resources. Competitors want to avoid or neutralize the rival business advantage by gaining existing resources, imitating them, and/or finding new essential resources. As a result, they gain a competitive advantage and superior financial performance, as seen in Figure 1. The comparative advantage theory of competition is, therefore, dynamic. Imbalance is a desired situation in this theory. Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition: It expands the diversity of resources to include intangible resources such as organizational culture, knowledge, and competence. The theory defines comparative advantages in resources as a strong motivation for the effective use of existing resources and a search to create new resources (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 3).

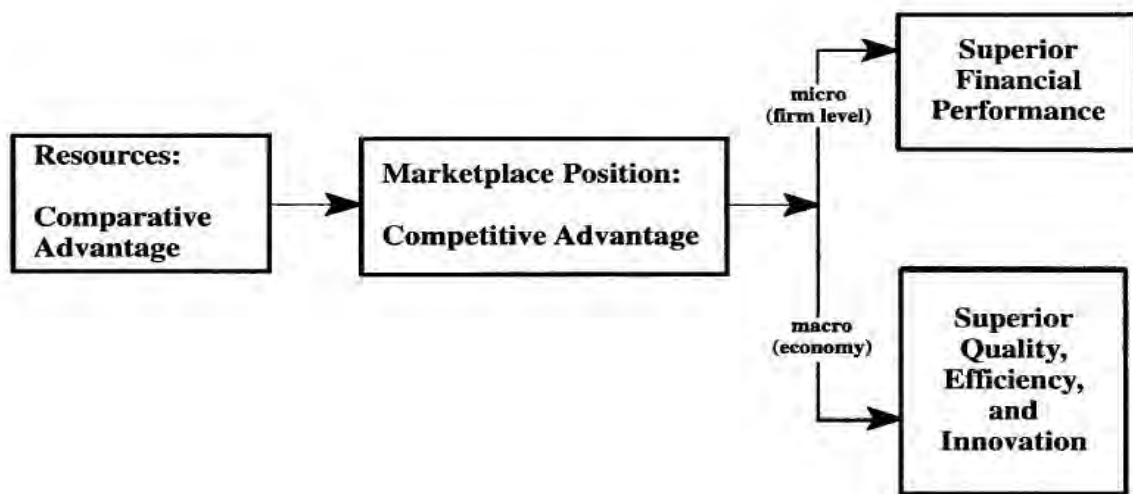


Figure 1. Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition

Source: Hunt and Morgan, 1995:9

The competitive advantage arises when the business creates value for consumers. Competitive advantage is the part that exceeds the cost incurred by the business in creating value. Value is what consumers are willing to pay. Conversely, superior value is to offer the same benefit to the consumer at a low price or to offer a unique benefit by balancing the high price (Porter, 1985: 3).

The best strategy for businesses to adopt is the "core innovation" strategy. The essence of strategy is to find a new source to produce value that can provide an advantage over competitors. The innovation strategy is essential because it is difficult to imitate or replace the resources that will create innovation. It provides superior returns compared to the competitors (Hunt and Morgan, 1997: 78-79). A new resource that is difficult to imitate will provide both a competitive advantage and superior returns.

Two main macro and micro events that will be used to explain the comparative advantage theory of competition have been identified. The macro event is the collapse of planned economies versus market economies.

While the macro event deals with the countries' economies generally, the micro event deals with the businesses operating in the economies. In product markets where competition is intense,

businesses either differentiate their products or maintain their low-cost positions to maintain their competitive advantage. A company that differentiates its product offers the consumer superior quality goods, superior service, or both to gain a competitive advantage (Walker et al., 1999: 274-275).

Differentiation is the process by which meaningful and value-adding differences are added to the goods and services, distinguishing the goods and services of the enterprise from the goods and services of competitors. Products vary according to their differentiation potential. Some products allow minor changes, while others are suitable for more extensive changes. Differentiation can take various forms. Changes can be made in the product form (size, shape, physical structure), and various features can be added in addition to the basic function of the product (Kotler, 2003: 315-318).

The micro event, on the other hand, covers more than one industry and enterprise that exists in market economies, as opposed to planned economies. The neoclassical theory of perfect competition cannot explain why market economies have higher-quality products than command economies. In perfect competition, no firm incurs extra costs in producing a higher quality product than the standard product¹. Businesses do not incur expenses because the assumption of homogeneous demand will not bring a higher price. Suppose a firm produces a higher quality product and charges a higher price for the higher quality product. This becomes a market imperfection that moves the market away from the ideal equilibrium state (Hunt and Morgan, 1996: 3-4).

Explaining the differences between businesses in market economies poses a problem for Neoclassical theory. Perfect competition involves many small firms in each industry, each producing a single product in specified quantities. In market economies, in many industries, more than one large enterprise produces many products. Businesses vary in size, scope, methods of operation, and financial performance between and within countries and between and within industries. These differences can be summarized as follows (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 2):

- Businesses vary in terms of sales volumes and sizes.
- Some businesses have a wide product range, while others produce a single product.
- Some businesses are in vertically integrated "hierarchies," while others specialize in a single activity.
- While some businesses profit, others may not be non-profit.
- While some businesses maintain high profits, others fail in this regard.

The rate of change of the supply functions of the firms varies between different aspects of the demand functions due to the change in the present and past learning capacities of the firms. Changes in businesses in different ways at different speeds bring diversity. If the changes are due to a technology or a demand, some perturbations in change (the effect of consumers' or suppliers' behavior on innovation) may result in less diversity. Business dependencies bring selection and protection processes. These processes affect industry structure and diversity (Dickson, 1996: 103).

2.2. Fundamentals of the Theory of Comparative Advantages of Competition

Competition is the ever-present struggle between businesses for comparative advantage in resources. The struggle between businesses provides a competitive advantage in the market. Thus, superior financial performance is achieved (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 5). Consumers' tastes, preferences, and behaviors constantly change with suppliers' market offerings. Comparative advantage itself has a dynamic structure due to changes in the market. A dynamic theory of competition should explain how markets change and what criteria create this change (Dickson, 1996: 102-104). Compared to the Neoclassical Theory of Perfect Competition, the Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition is a dynamic theory that is more sensitive to changes in the market and questions the reasons for the changes. Hunt and Morgan compared the criteria of the theory they developed with the theory of perfect competition and showed how the criteria affected the change in the market in Table 1.

Table 1. Foundations of the Neoclassical Theory of Competition and the Theory of Comparative Advantage

	Neoclassical Theory	Comparative Advantage Theory
a. Demand	Homogeneous within industries	Heterogeneous within industries
b. Consumer information	Perfect and cost less	Imperfect and costly
c. Human Motivation	Self-interest maximization	Constrained self-interest
d. Firm's Objective	Profit maximization	Superior financial performance
e. Firm's information	Perfect and cost less	Imperfect and costly
f. Resources	Capital, labor, and land	Financial, physical, legal, human, organizational, informational, and relational
g. Resource characteristics	Homogeneous, perfectly mobile	Heterogeneous, imperfectly mobile
h. Role of management	Determine quantity and implement production function	Recognize, understand, create, select, implement, and modify strategies
i. Role of environment	Totally determines conduct and performance	Influences conduct and performance
j. Competition	Quantity adjustment	Comparative advantage

Source: Hunt and Morgan, 1995:3

The ten critical concepts in Table 1 form the basis of the comparative advantage theory of competition. When the concepts are considered individually, they have been discussed in many places. The study includes concepts in the comparative advantage theory of competition, which

is a unifying theory. Ten basic concepts are explained, and the assumptions in both theories are discussed.

Request: Neoclassical perfect competition assumes that consumer preferences are the same. On the other hand, in the unbranded product class, consumers' tastes and preferences vary greatly depending on the desired product features and qualities and constantly change (Hunt & Morgan, 1995, p. 5). In market economies, industry demand within general product classes is significantly heterogeneous and dynamic, contrary to the homogeneous demand assumption, a cornerstone of Neoclassical perfect competition theory. The comparative advantage theory of competition assumes that industry demand is heterogeneous and dynamic.

Consumer information: It is getting harder and harder to please consumers today. Consumers are more intelligent, price-conscious, demanding, and less forgiving (Kotler, 2003: 72). In neoclassical perfect competition theory, consumer information is complete and costless; in constantly changing market economies, consumer information is incomplete and costly due to change.

Consumers and business managers are motivated to seek self-interest. Man has two critical sources of value: utility and ethics. People want to maintain pleasure and reduce pain and boredom. The human desire to obtain benefits explains many of his behaviors. While considering only his interests, he pays attention to the fact that these interests are correct, ethical, and moral. Therefore, self-interest is restricted (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 6). In market economies, business employees and consumers restrict themselves regarding what is right, socially appropriate, ethical, and moral while seeking their interests (P-benefit) (Hunt and Vasquez-Parraga, 1993: 78-90).

The main objective of the business is superior financial performance. It achieves its goal under costly and incomplete information about consumers and competitors. The superior financial performance brings some rewards to the business. Rewards not only include dividends, increases in capital asset value, salaries, wages, and bonuses. It also includes promotion, expanded career opportunities, prestige, and success (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 6).

According to Wernerfelt, resources are tangible assets temporarily attached to the business and determine its strengths and weaknesses (Wernerfelt, 1984: 172). Business resources allow a business to develop and implement strategies to improve its effectiveness and efficiency. Business resources include all assets, capabilities, organizational processes, business attributes, and knowledge under the control of the business (Barney, 1991: 101). Resources are tangible and intangible assets available to a business, have value for a market segment or segments, and enable it to produce a market supply effectively and efficiently (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 6).

The capacity of the enterprise to use its assets in coordination and to perform an activity suitable for its purpose shows its ability. Capabilities vary for each business. The capabilities of that business create the difference and create a competitive advantage in businesses with similar physical resources (Ulgen and Mirze, 2004: 118-119).

Organizational culture is the values, understandings, and standards shared with employees. This may relate to core values, ethical behavior, commitments to employees, efficiency, or consumer services. Their most important feature is keeping organizational members together (Daft, 1995: 19).

Generally, businesses own and control their resources. However, today, most businesses outsource their critical resources if they can provide lower cost and/or higher quality. Thus, businesses can focus on their core competencies (product design, development, and marketing) (Kotler and Keller, 2012: 57). Resource Qualifications: If market segments perceive a company's resources as having a superior value compared to the resources of its competitors and/or allow it to create a market supply that can be produced at lower costs, there is a comparative advantage in resources for the business (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 7).

2.3. Competitive Position Matrix

Many of the resources of firms within the same industry are significantly heterogeneous and partially fixed. The resource-based approach focuses on the effects of the comparative advantage of economic growth, production, and competitive resources at the enterprise level. In order to effectively and efficiently produce market offerings that will create value for particular market segments, some businesses may have a comparative advantage while others may have a disadvantage. Especially when businesses have a comparative advantage in resources, they fill the competitive advantage parts of their market positions, as seen in Table 2. If the business has a competitive advantage position, the result will be superior financial performance (Hunt, 1999: 149).

Table 2. Competitive Position Matrix

		Relative Resource-Produced Value		
		Lower	Parity	Superior
Relative Resource Costs	Lower	1 ?	2 Competitive Advantage	3 Competitive Advantage
	Parity	4 Competitive Disadvantage	5 Parity Position	6 Competitive Advantage
	Higher	7 Competitive Disadvantage	8 Competitive Disadvantage	9 ?

Source: Hunt and Morgan, 1995:7

Table 2 shows nine possible competitive positions, which are combinations of the values produced by relative resources and the relative resource costs to produce these values, compared to a company's competitors (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 7; Harris and Mongiello, 2006: 221-222):

- Businesses positioned in boxes 1 through 9 may or may not have superior financial returns despite having comparative advantages in value and cost.
- Boxes 2 and 6 show a competitive advantage and superior financial returns. Businesses often prefer box 3, but they provide a competitive advantage and good feedback in boxes 2 and 6.
- In general, a business will prefer the 3rd box, where resource value is high and costs are low, as its competitive position. More diverse resources than competitors lead businesses to market offerings that create superior value for market segments and are produced at lower cost.

- Businesses positioned in boxes 4, 7, and 8 will generally be at a competitive disadvantage. Businesses look for resources to create an advantage to escape competitive disadvantage and low returns.
- The 5th box shows that the firm has achieved an average return (parity position).

As seen in Figure 2, competition is an unbalanced and continuous process of constant struggle between businesses to have the resources to create a comparative advantage and provide a market position with a competitive advantage and the resulting superior financial performance. Businesses learn about competition in the market as a result of feedback between relative financial performance, relative market position, and relative resources (Hunt and Morgan, 1997: 78).

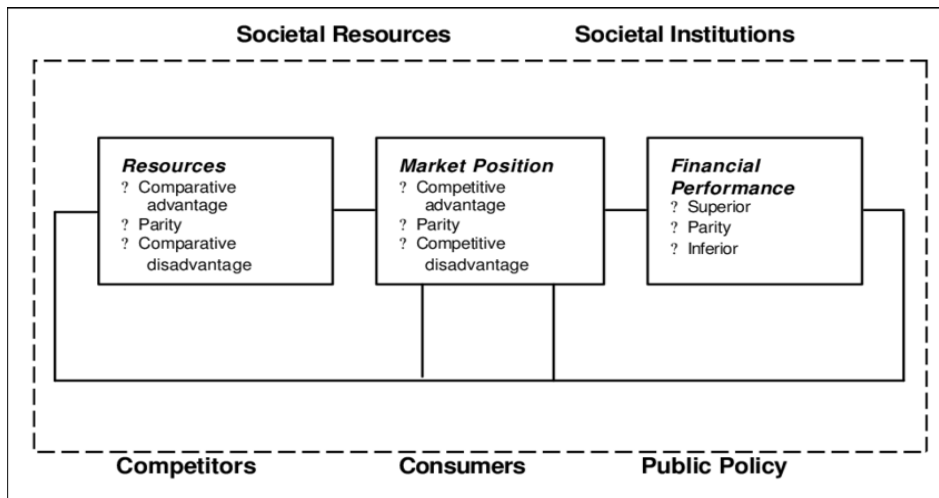


Figure 2. Competition's resource advantage

Source: Hunt and Morgan, 1997:78

2.4. Marketing and Comparative Advantages

Since the 1960s, marketing functions in organizations have been integrated with the marketing concept and the 4Ps. As a marketing concept, marketing focuses on selecting and analyzing target markets, brand and product development, promotion, and distribution channel decisions. Competencies related to the areas that the marketing concept focuses on form the resources. Comparative advantages emerge when the competencies that constitute resources contribute to the company's ability to produce valuable, effective, and efficient market propositions (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 10).

If the business can develop a continuous and robust learning process in the long run, it can gain a sustained competitive advantage. Market orientation can be defined as the organization of a series of internal processes that enable the business to learn and respond to information about consumers, the market, and the behavior of competitors (Dickson, 1996: 104). Because of its characteristics, the market orientation process can be a source of comparative advantage for the enterprise.

Investigating market orientation as a resource is essential for a better understanding of the comparative advantage theory of competition and highlighting the role of resource advantage in the theory (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 10). Our study will examine whether market orientation

as a resource creates a competitive advantage for the business. Market orientation will be explained in detail, and its impact on business performance will be examined.

2.5. Market Orientation

In order for the business to differentiate itself from its competitors and be one step ahead, it must first know itself, know its strengths and weaknesses, then know the market it is in, know the demands and needs of consumers, and the last stage, know its competitors and know the strengths and weaknesses of its competitors (Varinli and Cati, 2010: 77). Market orientation arises when the business needs to obtain information to gain a competitive advantage.

Every business organization competes with its competitors while serving its customers; therefore, market orientation plays a vital role in business. Market-oriented businesses try to achieve high performance by meeting customers' demands and needs better than their competitors (Jogarathnam, 2017; Dabrowski, 2019).

There are conditions that businesses must meet in order to have a market orientation. First of all, the top management of the business must be willing to be market-oriented and provide sufficient support. Then, departments need to be organized and organized in order to act market-oriented. Finally, the organizational system should be rearranged per market orientation (Varinli and Cati, 2010: 77). Market orientation, one of the conditions for a business to gain a competitive advantage in its market, is based on determining the organization within the business according to consumer demands and needs.

According to the neoclassical theory of perfect competition, businesses that implement unnecessary marketing activities are considered businesses that disrupt perfect competition. In contrast, in the Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition, marketing activities are practices in favor of competition and produce positive results (Hunt and Morgan, 1995: 4). When evaluated in terms of marketing strategy, tangible and intangible assets enable the company to effectively and efficiently create value from its competitors for a particular market segment or segment. As an intangible asset, market orientation is seen as a resource as it helps the business follow a market segment's demands and needs and obtain information that will create customer satisfaction (Yagci and Cabuk, 2014: 271).

Two main approaches stand out in market orientation research in the literature. The Kohli and Jaworski approach and the Narver and Slater approach. Although both approaches are similar regarding consumer and competitor focus and interdepartmental coordination concepts, they differ significantly. While one continues with the traditional operationalization of market orientation, covering only the reactive dimension, the other stream distinguishes between responsive and proactive market orientation (Kohli et al., 1993; Narver and Slater, 1990; Narver et al., 2004). Responsive market orientation (RMO) means discovering, understanding, and meeting expressed customer needs. In contrast, proactive market orientation (PMO) refers to discovering, understanding, and meeting latent and future customer needs (Narver et al., 2004).

One of the positive results of market orientation is its effect on employees. It provides market orientation and psychological and social benefits for employees. Team spirit, healthier communication, and job satisfaction positively affect employees (French and Bell, 1995).

Market orientation unites all departments and individuals in the organization to work towards the same goal in service to the consumer. Working towards the same goal creates team spirit and job satisfaction among business employees. Team spirit and greater job satisfaction increase employees' organizational commitment (Kohli and Jaworski, 1990: 13).

Market orientation affects consumer attitudes and behavior. Consumer behavior is how individuals, groups, and organizations select, buy, use, and dispose of goods, services, ideas, or experiences to meet their wants and needs. Consumer behavior is affected by cultural, social, and personal factors (Kotler and Keller, 2012: 173).

3. METHODOLOGY

Within the scope of the study, it was examined whether market orientation as a resource creates a comparative advantage for the business. Businesses achieve superior financial performance due to gaining superiority over their competitors. Superior financial performance does not just involve businesses increasing their profits. In addition to the profit margin, the consumer satisfaction provided by the business also affects the superior financial performance of the business.

In the research part of the study, the problem was whether market orientation could be considered a resource providing superior financial performance for businesses.

3.1. Research Method

The survey method was chosen as the data collection method in the implementation of the research. First, exploratory factor analysis was conducted on the data obtained, and a theoretical research model was put forward. Afterward, multiple linear regression analysis was performed, and regression equations were revealed. Statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS program.

3.2. Research Sample

Research data was obtained by accessing KOSGEB-affiliated enterprises over the internet in Ankara, which is one of the industrially developed provinces of Turkey, according to KOSGEB data. For businesses to be corporate and provide more accurate survey responses, businesses with 20 or more employees were included in the analysis.

A literature review was conducted to ensure the research's validity and reliability, and basic works in the literature were used to develop the survey form. The surveys obtained from foreign literature were first translated into Turkish and checked by two academicians, experts in their fields, to ensure that the questions were understood and answered correctly.

Simple random sampling was used within the scope of the research. Simple random sampling occurs due to selecting units one by one from a population of n units. The most important feature is that units are equally likely to be selected. The selection of one unit is independent of the selection of the other unit. Random samples are ideal samples for studies. The main thing is that the selected sample reflects the entire population (Newbold et al., 2013: 245).

In the quantitative part of our study, a survey was sent to 500 businesses operating in Ankara and included in the KOSGEB database. Two hundred twenty-one businesses responded. Taking

a sampling error of 0.05, it is seen that a sample size of 217 is sufficient for a population size of 500 (Yazicioglu & Erdogan, 2004: 50).

3.3. Research Model and Hypotheses

In the research part of the study, the MAKTOR (Kohli and Jaworski, 1993) scale was used to measure market orientation.

MAKTOR scale, developed by Kohli and Jaworski (1993), consists of twenty statements measured with a five-point Likert scale. The MAKTOR scale consists of three elements (obtaining information, distribution of information, and rapid response to information). The element of obtaining information from the market consists of six statements, the element of distribution of information within the enterprise consists of five statements and the element of rapid response to information obtained from the market consists of nine statements.

The hypotheses created within the framework of the research model are given below. Competitor orientation, consumer orientation, interdepartmental coordination, acquisition of information, distribution of information, and rapid response to information, which are the dimensions of market orientation, are the study's independent variables. Consumer satisfaction and profitability are the study's dependent variables, explaining its superior financial performance. Research hypotheses were established as follows, considering dependent and independent variables.

H_a= Market orientation has no effect on the superior financial performance of the business.

H_{a1}= Market orientation has no effect on consumer satisfaction.

H_{a2}= Market orientation has no effect on profitability.

3.4. Research Findings

First, the reliability of the research variables was examined. The evaluation criteria used in evaluating the Cronbach Alpha coefficient are as follows (Ozdamar, 2002: 673):

If $0.00 \leq \alpha < 0.40$, the scale is unreliable.

If $0.40 \leq \alpha < 0.60$, the scale has low reliability.

If $0.60 \leq \alpha < 0.80$, the scale is highly reliable.

If $0.80 \leq \alpha < 1.00$, the scale is highly reliable.

Reliability coefficients of three dimensions of market orientation: The variable of obtaining information was analyzed as 0.721, the distribution of information variable was analyzed as 0.710, and the variable of quick response to information was analyzed as 0.849. Reliability coefficients of dependent variables: The consumer satisfaction variable was analyzed as 0.914, and the profitability variable was analyzed as 0.883. The reliability of the research variables was found to be high.

Then, exploratory factor analysis was applied to the dimensions of the market orientation variable. As a result of the analysis, the dimensions of market orientation were reduced to two:

rapid response to information and acquisition of information. Two factors explain 70.9% of the total variance.

Multiple regression analysis was performed in line with the results of exploratory factor analysis. First, the effect of market orientation on consumer satisfaction was examined. As a result of the analysis, there was no multicollinearity problem, and the regression equation was significant.

Table 3. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.851 ^a	.724	.721	.451

a. Predictors: (Constant), responds quickly to information, obtains information

When Table 3 is examined, it is seen that the variables of obtaining information and responding quickly to information explain 72.1% of the change in the consumer satisfaction variable.

Table 4. Multiple Linear Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1(Constant)	.511	.150		3.415	.001	.216	.806					
responds quickly to information	.836	.040	.800	20.995	.000	.758	.915	.843	.818	.747	.871	1.147
obtains information	.076	.024	.120	3.153	.002	.028	.123	.407	.209	.112	.871	1.147

a. Dependent Variable: Consumer Satisfaction

As a result of multiple linear regression analysis, the regression equation was established using the coefficients given in Table 4. When the significance values of the independent variables are examined, it is seen that the values of both variables are less than 0.05. Both variables are included in the equation. In the equation, x_1 : responds quickly to information, and x_2 : obtains information.

Accordingly, the first regression equation is;

$$y = 0,511 + 0,836 x_1 + 0,076 x_2 + e \quad (1)$$

In line with equation (1), it was concluded that a 1-unit increase in the quick response to information variable increases consumer satisfaction by 83.6%, and a 1-unit increase in the information acquisition variable increases consumer satisfaction by 7.6%. The rapid response to

information obtained in the market affects consumer satisfaction more than acquiring market information.

Secondly, the effect of market orientation on profitability was examined. As a result of the analysis, there was no multicollinearity problem, and the regression equation was significant.

Table 5. Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.362 ^a	.131	.123	.745

a. Predictors: (Constant), obtains information, responds quickly to information

When Table 5 is examined, it is seen that the variables of obtaining information and responding quickly to information explain 12.3% of the change in the profitability variable.

Table 6. Multiple Linear Regression Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
1 (Constant)	2.375	.247		9.611	.000	1.888	2.862					
responds quickly to information	.375	.066	.386	5.707	.000	.246	.505	.348	.361	.360	.871	1.147
obtains information	-.062	.040	-.105	-1.557	.121	-.140	.016	.033	-.105	-.098	.871	1.147

a. Dependent Variable: Profitability

As a result of multiple linear regression analysis, the regression equation was established using the coefficients given in Table 6. When the significance values of the independent variables are examined, it is seen that the value of the variable of quick response to information is less than 0.05, and the value of the variable of obtaining information is greater than 0.05. In this case, only the variable of rapid response to information will enter the equation. In the equation, x_1 represents the variable of quick response to information.

Accordingly, the first regression equation is;

$$y = 2,375 + 0,375 x_1 + e \quad (2)$$

In line with equation (2), it was concluded that a 1-unit increase in the variable of quick response to information increases profitability by 37.5%.

4. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

The study aims to examine the Comparative Advantage Theory of Competition, which is the building block of the Resource-Based Approach developed by Hunt and Morgan (1995). The aim is to compare it with the Neoclassical Perfect Competition Theory, which is criticized for not being applicable in today's economic conditions. The theory examined qualitatively was statistically supported.

Vital resources that rival businesses in the sector cannot imitate provide businesses with a competitive advantage in the market in which they operate. The comparative advantage theory of competition adopts a resource-based approach at the micro level (business level). Businesses use the resource factor to gain superiority in their strategies to maintain their existence and gain superiority over their competitors. The theory is based on the resources and competencies of the business in order to explain competitive advantage. The business aims to realize market offerings by creating value for its consumers at a low cost and providing superior financial performance.

In the quantitative part of the study, market orientation was examined as a source, and the theory was statistically supported. Multiple linear regression analysis was applied to the data collected from businesses operating in Ankara. It was discussed that the hypotheses established due to the analysis were rejected. Statistically, market orientation has been shown to impact superior financial performance. According to the comparative advantage theory of competition, market orientation, as a resource, positively affects the superior financial performance of the company. Resources, especially inimitable and powerful, provide a competitive advantage for businesses and form the basis of resource-based approaches.

In the study, market orientation was chosen as a competitive tool, and its effect was examined. Future studies can investigate the effects of different resources on businesses as a means of competition. These studies will support the comparative advantage theory of competition.

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The Role of Official Websites in Destination Branding: A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract

In this study, it is aimed to examine the role of official destination websites in destination branding processes. In the research, a systematic literature review has been applied. There were 58 related studies in total, and after inclusion and exclusion process finally a total of 36 studies were included in the systematic literature review. The main research themes of the studies reviewed in the research are; destination brand image, website features, interaction and finally destination brand personality. Official destination websites are important in providing the information that potential tourists need from a reliable source. As a result, while these websites provide useful and reliable information for travelers, their interaction features are not at a satisfactory level. Therefore, it is suggested that these websites should also have interaction opportunities for users such as sharing experiences and communicating among each other and with destination representatives.

Keywords: Destination Branding, Destination Brand Image, Destination Brand Personality, Official Destination Websites.

1. INTRODUCTION

Although the internet is an invention that emerged in the modern age, it plays an important role to shapes the modern world. As of April 2023, there are 5.18 billion Internet users worldwide, equivalent to %64.6 of the world's population (statista.com). As in many other fields, internet usage is increasing in the tourism sector. Nowadays, most travelers use the internet to plan their vacations and travels, make reservations, purchase services and share their experiences. As the scope of Internet use expands, the inevitable relationship between tourism and the Internet is getting closer (Diaz-Luque, 2009: 153). This affects destinations as well as businesses. Today, the Internet is considered as the most effective tool for tourism destinations to reach larger audiences, which are in a global competition (Farias et al., 2013). The internet offers the ability to create destination images at low cost, which is another considerable advantage of Internet for tourism destinations (Luna-Nevarez & Hyman, 2012). Official websites are one of the important tools that used to build a destination image in the online environment, it also provides actual information about the destination for travelers. Considering the substantial role of the Internet in our daily lives in the 21st century, the importance of official tourism websites becomes even more evident (Vila, González, & Darcy, 2018). Official tourism websites are considered ideal tools for

destination branding (Wu, 2018) and creating brand personality (Vinyals-Mirabent, Kavartzis, & Fernández-Cavia, 2019), besides providing information and creating destination image.

The number of travelers is increasing day to day who is planning their own trips. Therefore, managers should ensure that people have access to more accurate and comprehensive information about destinations. Because the information about destination has an effective role on tourists' destination choice (Zhang, Cheung & Law, 2018). Official tourism websites, which are a vital promotional tool for destinations, are an information source that informs all potential tourists about the destination (Fernández-Cavia, Rovira, Diaz-Luque & Cavaller, 2014). These websites, which can provide detailed information on activities, accommodation, transportation and any other matters that tourists may need, have become one of the important sources of information about the destinations (Vila et al., 2018). Nowadays, as well as many tourist destinations have an official website, it is clear that the performance of these sites is proportional to the level of development of the destination. (Zhang et al., 2018).

It is well established from a variety of studies that official websites are utilized to create destination brand image and destination brand personality as well as destination branding (Vinyals-Mirabent et al., 2019; Wu, 2018; Zhang, Xu, Lu, & Lei, 2015). Brand personality has an effective role in creating strong brands by enriching people's understanding of the brand, differentiating the brand from its competitors, strengthening the communication between the brand and consumers, and creating brand equity (Aaker, 2009). Furthermore, brand image is an essential component of a successful destination brand for destinations, as much as brand personality (Qu, Kim, & Im, 2011).

The purpose of this study is to explore the role of destinations' official websites on destination branding processes. For this purpose, it is examined how destinations use websites to create their brand personalities and brand images. In this context, it aims to reveal the current state of knowledge by reviewing previous studies and providing insight into the answers to the research questions below.

RQ1: How is the role of official websites in destination branding addressed in the literature?

RQ2: What are the main research topics on the role of official websites in destination branding in the literature?

2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Destination Branding

Tourism destination branding allows tourists to identify the destination and distinguish it from its competitors (Vengesai, 2003). In other words, destination branding can be defined as a means of creating and communicating an identity that differentiates a destination from its competitors by highlighting the unique aspects of the destination (Qu et al., 2011). The importance of this definition is getting clearer when considering that today's tourism destinations even though have different attractions they still have many similar characteristics. Because tourist destinations are becoming increasingly interchangeable and difficult to distinguish (Pike, 2005). There is no doubt that as the destination choices available to consumers increase, an effective destination positioning strategy will become more important. An important component of this positioning process is the creation and management of a distinctive and attractive destination image (Ekinci, 2003). Therefore, a good destination branding strategy must be unique and distinctive, but its uniqueness and distinctiveness must be sustainable, credible and relevant (Morgan, Pritchard & Pride, 2004: 65).

The basis of destination branding is to create a positive destination image that identifies and differentiates the destination (Armenski, Stankov, & Choi, 2018). According to Cai (2002), destination branding is a coherent combination of brand elements to define and differentiate a destination through creating a positive image. According to the author, to build a brand for a destination, an image must be created by selecting the most appropriate brand elements and identifying the most relevant brand associations. A destination brand must be unique enough to differentiate itself from competitors, while also being broad enough to cover all elements of the destination's appeal (Vinyals-Mirabent et al., 2019). Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005: 337) drew attention to 4 basic elements while defining destination branding. Accordingly, destination branding;

1. supports the creation of a name, symbol, logo or other graphic that easily identifies and differentiates a destination,
2. constantly communicates the expectations of unforgettable travel experiences uniquely associated with the destination,
3. helps to enhance and strengthen the emotional connection between the tourist and the destination and,
4. is a set of marketing activities that reduce destination promotion costs and perceived risk.

Successful destination branding involves establishing a mutual relationship between destinations and tourists by providing emotional satisfaction to the tourists (Ekinci, 2003). Establishing and maintaining this relationship will be possible with the participation of all stakeholders. The destination branding process can only be successful if all destination stakeholders are involved and cooperate in a harmonious interaction. (Pereira, Correia & Schutz, 2012: 82). Destination image (Verissimo, Tiago, Tiago, & Jardim, 2017; Souiden, Ladhari, & Chiadmi, 2017) and destination personality (Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo 2007) are considered important aspects in creating a strong destination brand. Creating and managing an appropriate destination brand image and destination brand personality is essential for effective positioning and differentiation (Hosany, Ekinci, & Uysal, 2007).

2.2. Destination Brand Image

Brand image reflects current perceptions of the brand (Aaker, 2009) and is one of the most important elements of creating a strong brand (Hosany et al., 2007; Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Destination image can also be simply defined as the impressions or perceptions of a place (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). With respect to another definition, destination image is the sum of all the descriptive, inferential and informational beliefs that people have about a particular place (Martin and Eroglu, 1993). According to Baloglu and McCleary (1999: 870), destination image has two sub-dimensions: perceptual/cognitive and emotional image. While perceptual/cognitive evaluations express beliefs or knowledge about the qualities of a destination, emotional image expresses feelings or attachment to the destination. The overall image of a destination is formed as a result of both perceptual/cognitive and emotional evaluations of that place.

Destination image affects tourist behavior at each stage, including before, during and after the visit (Tasci & Gartner, 2007). Destination image is known to have a significant impact on tourists' destination choice (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Pan, Rasouli & Timmermans, 2021). Furthermore, destination image is an effective factor in creating destination loyalty (Artuğer, Çetinsöz & Kılıç, 2013; Song, Su & Li, 2013), positively affecting preferences for products related to the destination brand (Lim & Weaver, 2014) and increasing destination satisfaction (Veasna, Wu & Huang, 2013).

2.3. Destination Brand Personality

Brand personality can be defined as the set of human characteristics associated with the brand. Therefore, in addition to characteristics such as gender, age and socioeconomic class, classical human personality traits such as being friendly, interested and emotional can also be used for brands (Aaker, 2009). The concept of brand personality is based on the assumption that people tend to personify the objects around them. By defining brands in terms of human characteristics, it serves as an important tool in creating brand loyalty and brand awareness, in the same way that people connect each other according to personality traits (Voeth & Herbst, 2008: 77).

There is a linear relationship between destination brand personality and tourists' travel motivation (Murphy, Benckendorff, & Moscardo, 2007). From this perspective, it is clear that a strong destination brand personality can be effective in tourists' destination choices. Additionally, the fact that the destination perceived brand personality meets the needs of tourists will increase this effect. In today's competitive conditions, creating and managing a suitable destination personality is vital for effective differentiation than competitors (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Emphasis should be on developing effective communication methods so that destinations have a distinctive and attractive personality.

2.4. Destination Branding and the Web

Official destination websites are communication platforms that provide up-to-date and reliable information to tourists (Fernandez-Cavia & Castro, 2015: 169). In other words, these sites are considered as a distribution channel for information about destinations (Chung, Lee, Lee & Koo, 2015). As the web has become an increasingly popular source of information, official destination websites have begun to play a critical role in destination choice (Bastida & Huan, 2014). On the other hand, official destination websites that have become an important communication tool in destination branding (Miguez González & Fernández Cavia, 2015), have also become a very important branding channel (Lee, Cai & O'Leary, 2006). These platforms are also used as an important channel to create destination image perceived by tourists (Zhang et al., 2015).

Most tourism websites, especially government-funded official tourism websites, focus on providing basic information services and are a reliable tool used by travelers to obtain information about a destination (Cao & Yang, 2016). Because, according to the decision-making managers during the creation and execution of these sites, the purpose of using official tourism websites as a communication channel is, unsurprisingly, information and promotion. In addition, managers consider the usefulness of the official website as very important in the global communication strategy of the destination brand (Fernandez-Cavia et al., 2017). Administrators emphasize the adequacy of the information provided, reliability, accessibility, controllability of the content and low cost of the medium as the main advantages of official websites. According to the researchers the disadvantages are on the other hand, not each potential visitor uses the web, the information presented is often unattractive, and the lack of dynamism and personalization due to the fact that formal nature of the content is restrictive. In this context, the goals of official tourism websites can be listed as:

- To provide information about the destination,
- To gain visibility,
- To attract target groups,
- To convey brand image,
- To convey the brand's personality,
- To encourage user to participating,
- To capture the attention of the target audience and ensure their repeat visits,

- To interact with target audience,
- To learn the preferences of the target audience.

When branding is associated with image, it refers to the feelings, ideas and attitudes that consumers have towards the brand. On the other hand, when the brand is associated with personality, it expresses the human characteristics that distinguish a brand from its competitors (Pereira et al., 2012: 82). In the study on how brand image is involved in branding processes, Barreda et al. (2020), argued that brand image is among the branding elements and has a significant effect on emotional commitment. On the other hand, Tran et al. (2019) revealed in their study that destination image positively affects overall destination value through perceived destination quality and loyalty, thus it has an important role in destination branding strategies. Likewise, brand personality is one of the fundamental components of an effective brand (Ekinci, 2003; Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2007: 6).

3. METHODOLOGY

For all research disciplines and all types of research, it is essential to consider the relevant literature. Literature reviews, which is used for many scientific purposes and generally to evaluate the state of knowledge on a particular subject, can also be used to provide an overview of a particular subject or a research problem (Snyder, 2019). The literature review can be random or it can be done by following some certain predetermined rules and methods (Yavuz, 2022). Organized studies in this manner are described as systematic literature review. According to Çınar's (2021) definition, systematic literature review is: "determining which studies will be included in the review in a comprehensive way by using various acceptance and rejection criteria and to synthesize the information contained in these studies". In this context, language of the studies, indexes of the scanned journals, databases and keyword combinations has determined in advance.

In this section it is described in detail the screening methodology employed. At first, we decided the indexes that scan the studies. The literature review in this study was conducted on journals scanned in SSCI (Social Science Citation Index), ESCI (Emerging Sources Citation Index) and SCIE (Science Citation Index Expanded) indexes. The reason why the research covers the journals scanned in these indexes is because they are internationally accepted. And Web of Science and Scopus databases, which are frequently used by researchers in different disciplines, were used to access the studies.

Other criteria to be used in deciding which studies to be included was about the language. The research was conducted on studies written in English. In order to broad the potential list of studies that might be related to our research questions, destination image and destination personality are also used as keywords besides destination branding. Because destination branding is directly related to the concepts of destination image (Qu et al., 2011) and destination personality (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). Therefore, all these concepts were determined as the keywords of this search. The keyword combinations were applied for this research is; "destination branding" OR "destination image" OR "destination personality" AND "official website". The total number of studies we reached in the reviewing and the final studies reached according to the inclusion and elimination criteria are presented in the results section.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The systematic literature review process is presented in Figure 1. As a result of the review performed in the databases during the identification process, which is the first stage, it has seen that there were 58 related studies. During the screening process, which is the second stage, it was determined that 10 studies were repetitive studies and after these studies were removed, a total

of 48 studies were included in the review. After considering the exclusion criteria, a total of 14 studies were excluded from the literature review at this stage. When we look at the details it turned out that, 2 of these studies were book chapters, 7 of them did not offer a guidance on literature review, 1 of them was not written in English, 3 of them have a methodology irrelevant to planning, and 1 of them was conducted on a specific topic. In the eligibility stage, which is the third stage, 34 studies were re-examined in detail and a total of 6 studies were excluded. It was understood that 2 of the studies did not offer a guidance on literature review, 2 of them were conducted on a specific topic, and the full text of 2 studies could not be reached. In the fourth and final stage of inclusion, 28 studies were determined to be suitable for the review. As a result of retrospective searches, 8 more studies were identified to be appropriate, and finally a total of 36 studies were included in the literature review in this research. An overview of the reviewed papers is presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Overview of the reviewed papers

Year	Authors	Title	Source	Purpose	Type of Research	Sample	Themes	
1	2006	Lee, Cai & O'Leary	www.Branding.States US: An analysis of brand-building elements in the US state tourism websites	Tourism Management	To conceptualize electronic branding, especially in the context of destination marketing, through the analysis of official tourism websites.	Qualitative	Official websites of the 50 US states	Destination brand image
2	2007	Singh & Formica	Level of Congruency in Photographic Representations of Destination Marketing Organizations' Websites and Brochures	Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing	To assess the level of congruency in the photographic representations of two promotional materials (official brochures and official websites) offered by Destination Marketing Organizations (DMOs) located in the U.S. northeastern corridor.	Qualitative	171 DMOs websites from the US North Eastern states	Website features
3	2008	Kim & Fesenmaier	Persuasive Design of Destination Web Sites: An Analysis of First Impression	Journal of Travel Research	To examine the persuasiveness of destination websites by investigating users' first impressions.	Quantitative	65 undergraduate students	Website features

4	2010	Yayli & Bayram	Web-based destination marketing: Do official city culture and tourism websites in Turkey consider international guidelines?	Preliminary Communication	To evaluate the official websites of the Provincial Directorates of Culture and Tourism in Turkey according to the opportunities and services offered by these websites.	Qualitative	79 Official Websites	Interaction
5	2010	Daye	Challenges and prospects of differentiating destination brands: the case of the Dutch Caribbean islands	Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing	To contribute to the understanding of country brand image management and provide insight into strategies for developing effective communication for destination branding.	Qualitative	6 Official Websites	Destination brand personality
6	2013	Kim & Lehto	Projected and Perceived Destination Brand Personalities: The Case of South Korea	Journal of Travel Research	To understand the relationship between perceived and anticipated destination brand personalities.	Qualitative & Quantitative	1 official website and 480 participants	Destination brand personality
7	2014	Gupta & Utkarsh	Assessing the website effectiveness of top ten tourist attracting nations	Inf Technol Tourism	To examine the effectiveness of destination websites.	Qualitative	10 Official Websites	Interaction
8	2015	Del Vasto-Terrientes, et al.	Official tourist destination websites: Hierarchical analysis and assessment with ELECTRE-III-H	Tourism Management Perspectives	To show that the ELECTRE-III-H method can be used together with the Web Quality Index as a powerful tool for analyzing official destination websites.	Qualitative	10 Official Websites	Destination brand image
9	2015	Fernandez-Cavia & Castro	Communication and branding on national tourism websites	Cuadernos Info	To present the quality assessment of official destination websites of five countries (Spain, Brazil,	Qualitative	10 Official Websites	Interaction

				Argentina, Chile and China), obtained by applying the Web Quality Index.				
10	2015	Miguez-González & Fernández-Cavia	Tourism and online communication: interactivity and social web in official destination websites	Communication & Society	To analyze the relational nature of official destination websites according to two parameters: interactivity and the presence of social web elements.	Qualitative	87 Official Websites	Interaction
11	2015	Zhang, et al.	Cultural Capital and Destination Image of Metropolitans: A Comparative Study of New York and Tokyo Official Tourism Websites in Chinese	Journal of China Tourism Research	To define metropolitan cultural capital as a cultural resource that can attract tourists and produce marketing value in metropolises.	Qualitative	2 Official Websites	Destination brand image
12	2016	Cao & Yang	A study of e-commerce adoption by tourism websites in China	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	To explain the adoption of e-commerce among different types of tourism websites.	Qualitative	Total 258 Websites, 31 of which are official	Interaction
13	2016	Zins & Lin	From intended to projected destination image elements: the case of prefectures in China	International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research	To examine the initial stages of the destination image process and how these plans are reflected on official destination websites.	Qualitative	Websites of 122 prefectures in China, which were randomly selected out of 365.	Destination brand image
14	2017	Fernandez-Cavia, et al.	Online communication in Spanish destination marketing organizations: The view of practitioners	Journal of Vacation Marketing	To analyze destination brand communication strategies, especially applied to online communications as official websites, social media and	Quantitative	56 Participants	Destination brand image

				mobile applications.				
15	2017	Molinillo, Liébana-Cabanillas & Anaya-Sánchez	Destination image on the DMO's platforms: official website and social media	Tourism & Management Studies	To propose a model and validate the proposed model to contribute to the knowledge of the destination image formation process in the online context.	Quantitative	265 Participants	Destination brand image
16	2017	Rojas-Mendez & Hine	Countries' positioning on personality traits: Analysis of 10 South American national tourism websites	Journal of Vacation Marketing	To analyze the use of personality metaphor in official tourism websites of South American countries.	Qualitative	10 Official Websites	Destination brand personality
17	2017	Yang	Industrial heritage tourism development and city image reconstruction in Chinese traditional industrial cities: a web content analysis	Journal of Heritage Tourism	To explore whether former industrial cities promote industrial heritage tourism and rebuild post-industrial images.	Qualitative	20 Official Websites	Destination brand image
18	2017	Avraham & Ketter	Destination image repair while combatting crises: tourism marketing in Africa	Tourism Geographies	To analyze the media strategies used by Sub Saharan African (SSA) countries to repair their destination image during and after crisis, and attract international tourism.	Qualitative	Official websites and social media pages of SSA countries	Destination brand image
19	2018	Jiménez-Barreto & Campo-Martinez	Destination website quality, willingness to participate in users' attitudes and the online co-creation experiences	European Journal of Management and Business Economics	To propose and evaluate a model that posits destination website quality as a determining factor for predicting users' attitudes towards the	Mixed	2 official websites and 135 participants	Interaction

					website and their willingness to engage in co-creation experiences.			
20	2018	Malenkina & Ivanova	A linguistic analysis of the official tourism websites of the seventeen Spanish Autonomous Communities	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	To describe and analyze the language strategies and features used by official tourism websites for promotion and branding.	Qualitative	17 Official Websites	Website features
21	2018	Vinyals-Mirabent & Mohammadi	City brand projected personality: A new measure to assess the consistency of projected personality across messages	Communication & Society	To evaluate the destination brand personality reflected through the official website.	Qualitative	2 Official Websites	Destination brand personality
22	2018	Wu	Official websites as a tourism marketing medium: A contrastive analysis from the perspective of appraisal theory	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	To presents a discourse analysis of the online tourism marketing of two tourism destinations (Hangzhou and London) with the aim of examining how destinations from different cultural contexts promote their local attractions internationally.	Qualitative	2 Official Websites	Destination brand image
23	2019	Cesiri	The Construction of the Territorial Image in Tourism Websites: The Case of the Veneto Provinces	Altre Modernita	To examine the language strategies used by local institutions in the Veneto region of Italy to promote their region in English and Italian on their official websites.	Qualitative	7 Official Websites	Destination brand image
24	2019	Barreto, Rubio & Martinez	The online destination brand experience: Development of a sensorial-cognitive-conative model	International Journal of Tourism Research	To analyze online destination brand experiences resulting from user	Quantitative	257 participants	Interaction

							interactions with official websites at two competing destinations.	
25	2019	Vinyals-Mirabent, Kavartzis & Fernández-Cavia	The role of functional associations in building destination brand personality: When official websites do the talking	Tourism Management	Qualitative	12 Official Websites	To contribute to the understanding of projected image and brand personality inference by analyzing the official websites of Europe's twelve most popular urban destinations.	Destination brand personality
26	2019	De Rosa, Bocci & Dryjanska	Social representations of the European capitals and destination e-branding via multi-channel web communication	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	Qualitative	10 Official Websites	To explore the questions related to destination e-branding expressed through web marketing of city brand identity and city brand image of ten European capitals.	Website features
27	2019	Vinyals-Mirabent	European urban destinations' attractors at the frontier between competitiveness and a unique destination image. A benchmark study of communication practices	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	Qualitative	12 official websites	To identify similarities and differences in the official websites of the 12 most popular unique destinations in Europe.	Website features
28	2019	Iordanova & Stainton	Cognition, emotion and trust: A comparative analysis of Cambodia's perceived and projected online image	Tourist Studies	Qualitative	A total of 22 amateur blog posts	To highlight the differences between perceived and projected destination images by analyzing the use of cognitive and affective image components.	Website features
29	2019	Jiménez-Barreto, et al.	Exploring the dimensions of online destination brand experience: Spanish and North American	Tourism Management Perspectives	Qualitative	50 participants	To identify the central elements of a positive online destination	Website features

			tourists' perspectives		brand experience via four official destination platforms as the brand's website, Instagram, Facebook, and Twitter.			
30	2020	Jiménez-Barreto, et al.	Linking the online destination brand experience and brand credibility with tourists' behavioral intentions toward a destination	Tourism Management	To examine the causal relationship between online destination brand experience and perceived online destination brand credibility and to determine the effects of these components on users' behavioral intentions towards the destination.	Qualitative	15 Platforms and 27 Participants	Interaction
31	2020	Martinez-Sala, Monserrat-Gauchi & Alemany-Martinez	User Usable Experience: A three-dimensional approach on usability in tourism websites and a model for its evaluation	Tourism Management Perspectives	To develop a model for analysis of destination web quality that includes a three-dimensional approach covering usability, graphic design and navigability.	Qualitative	13 Official Destination Websites	Website features
32	2020	Jimenez-Barreto, Rubio & Campo	Destination brand authenticity: What an experiential simulacrum! A multigroup analysis of its antecedents and outcomes through official online platforms	Tourism Management	To obtain an initial reduction of the theoretical items discussed previously in the literature, which constitute the dimensions of the destination brand authenticity construct (temporal consistency, credibility, and originality)	Quantitative	508 participants	Website features
33	2020	Duan, et al.	Measuring the Gaps in the Projected Image and Perceived Image of Rural Tourism Destinations in China's Yangtze River Delta	Sustainability	To evaluate the projected image and perceived image of rural destinations in China to see whether there is any discrepancy between and within the two categories.	Qualitative	3 official destination websites and 5 OTAs websites	Website features

34	2021	Kanazawa, et al.	Destination website management: A social constructionist approach	Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	To develop and implement a social constructionist model for destination websites.	Qualitative	11 researches and 13 participants	Destination brand image
35	2021	Syafganti, Ramadanty & Walrave	The consistency of projected online destination images: comparing the official websites and Instagram accounts of main destinations in Southeast Asia	Journal of Place Management and Development	To examine the consistency of online destination images projected through official tourism websites and Instagram accounts of five major destinations in Southeast Asia.	Qualitative & Quantitative	5 Official tourism websites and Instagram accounts	Destination brand image
36	2021	Grebosz-Krawczyk	Place branding (r)evolution: the management of the smart city's brand	Place Branding and Public Diplomacy	To present the Smart City's Brand Management model and to formulate the recommendations regarding the implementation of the strategy of the smart city's brand.	Qualitative & Quantitative	Official websites of 90 smart cities and 35 participants	Destination brand image

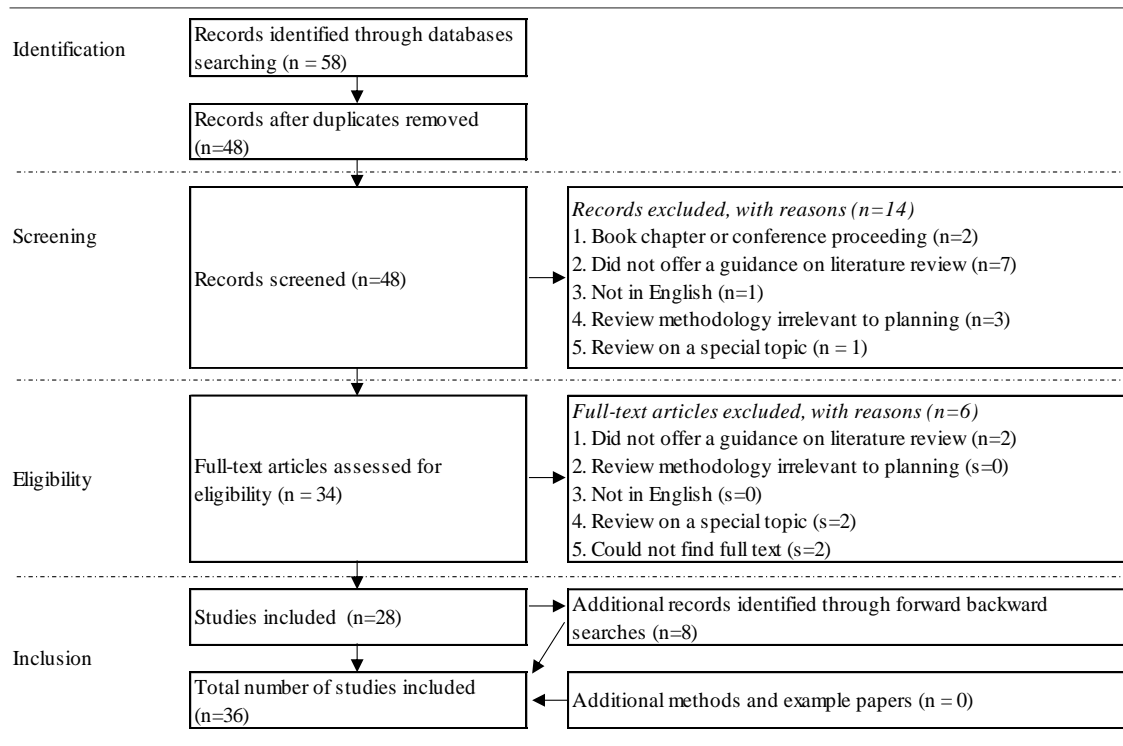


Fig. 1. Systematic literature review process.

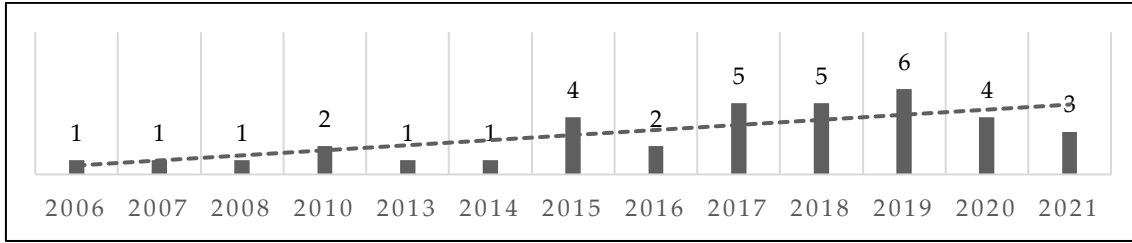


Fig. 2. Distribution of the reviewed studies according to publication year.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of studies included in the review over the period 2006-2021. It would not be wrong to say that studies conducted on the use of official websites in destination branding have shown an increasing trend over the years and from this point of view, this issue is increasingly attracting more and more researchers' attention.

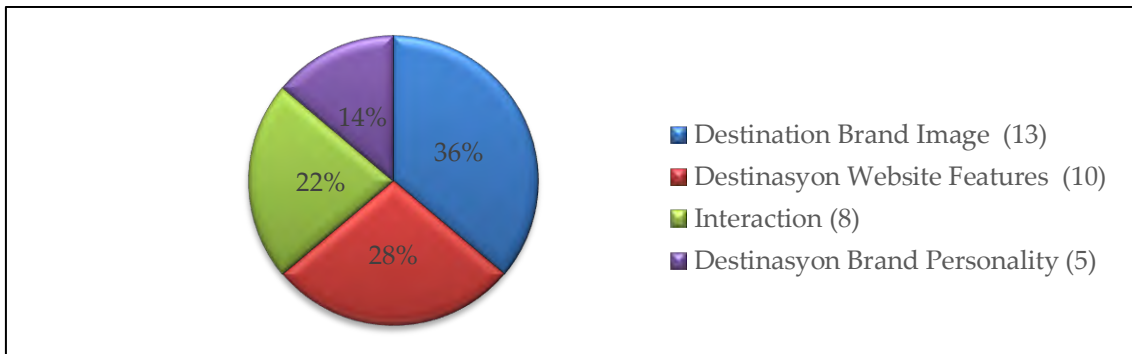


Fig. 3. Distribution of the main research themes in reviewed studies.

Figure 3 presents the main research themes of the studies included in the systematic literature review. Accordingly, 13 of the studies included in the review were focused on destination brand image (36%), 10 on website feature (28%), 8 on interaction (22%), and finally 5 on brand personality (14%).

Table 2 presents the journals which the studies included in the systematic literature review were published in.

Table 2. Distribution of the journals which the reviewed studies published in.

Journals' Name	Number of Studies	Percentage (%)
Journal of Destination Marketing & Management	6	16,7
Tourism Management	4	11,1
Tourism Management Perspectives	3	8,3
Communication & Society	2	5,6
Journal of Vacation Marketing	2	5,6
Journal of Travel Research	2	5,6
Others	17	47,2
Total	36	100,0

Table 2 shows the journals which has been published the reviewed studies on the usage of official websites in destination branding. According to this; 6 of studies are in Journal of Destination Marketing & Management in the journal (16.7%), 4 of them are in Tourism Management magazine (11.1%) and 3 of them are in Tourism Management Perspectives (8.3%). When we look

at the first three journals with the most studies, it is noteworthy that these journals are in the field of management.

4.1. Official Destination Websites and Destination Brand Image

Managers mostly consider that official destination websites were the main source of information offered to potential tourists. Cognitive information items such as infrastructure, order, safety and comfort provided at these websites have a significant effect on the cognitive image of the destination, and this information can positively affect the cognitive image of the destination in the perceptions of potential tourists (Molinillo, Liébana-Cabanillas, & Anaya-Sánchez, 2017). The cognitive image desired to be created through the information presented on destination websites is both an important part of the destination brand image and an important element that affects other dimensions of the image (Zhang et al., 2015). On the other hand, cognitive image strengthens the overall destination image by positively affecting the emotional image. Emotional factors such as fun, excitement and adventure are other factors that influence the overall image of the destination (Molinillo et al., 2017).

Official destination websites are known to be important sources of information for tourists (Fernández-Cavia et al., 2014; Vila et al., 2018). Therefore, destination managers and researchers consider official tourism websites an important tool that can be used for destination branding (Fernández-Cavia, Marchiori, Haven-Tang, & Cantoni, 2017; Kanazawa, Lourenção, de Oliveira & Giraldi, 2021). From this perspective, it can be said that one of the main reasons for using official tourism destination websites for destination branding is that the cognitive and emotional factors about the destination, which have the power to directly affect tourist behavior. In this context, official destination websites are important because they present the information that potential tourists need from a trusted source.

According to Wu (2018), it is important to design attractive websites that can help visitors to learn about destinations and form strong attitudes about them. In addition, the author suggests that a more personal language should be used in destination websites, more attention should be paid to the emotional dimensions of the image, a virtual experience should be ensured, and information diversity should be provided in order to serve different visitors. Similarly, Cesiri (2019) emphasizes the language used in the websites and suggested using a simpler language, and drew attention to the fact that the promotional messages presented on the destination websites should be consistent in terms of both content and language used.

Yang (2017) points out that a destination brand image can be created by promoting industrial heritage and industrial tourism on the official websites of cities, and also argues that these websites can be an important tool to reflect and protect city's past throughout the urban development process. Zhang et al. (2015) examine the official websites of New York and Tokyo by using the content analysis method, and the results showed that, on both websites natural resources were mentioned to some extent, the majority of the information was about cultural resources. Based on this result, the authors argued that cultural capital also plays an important role in creating an urban destination image. Another factor that affects the image wanted to be created on destination websites is slogans. The more clearly a tourism slogan shared on destination websites reflects the unique characteristics of the brand, the more effectively it is able to convey the message (Lee, Cai & O'Leary, 2006). Additionally, rather than an intangible or general statement about the products, slogans that create a tangible image supported by graphic/verbal image matching can reflect a clearer brand image. According to Del Vasto-Terrientes et al., (2015), it is essential for destinations to use suitable and strong slogans in their branding processes and to share these slogans on their official websites. Because a destination

brand image designed with an attractive slogan and logo is very important in attracting the attention of tourists.

It is important to note that with the spread of social media, destination administrators have lost the control over the information presented to tourists to a certain extent, because people often prefer social media to share their experiences (Míguez González & Fernández Cavia, 2015). Therefore, to create an overall destination image, destination managers must not only effectively manage and maintain official websites but also publish information on social networks (Molinillo et al., 2017). In general, destination managers find official websites and social media useful in creating a brand image, among online communication tools (Fernández-Cavia, Marchiori, Haven-Tang & Cantoni, 2017). On the other hand, it is important that channels such as the official destination website and social media are in harmony with each other. Syafganti, Ramadanty and Walrave (2022) mentioned in their study that there are obvious inconsistencies between the images presented on the official destination websites and their Instagram accounts. This result shows that the promotion made through digital platforms is not conveyed in an integrated and coordinated manner. According to the authors, consistency of destinations across all online platforms and sharing focused on their specificities will yield better results for their image.

4.2. Official Destination Websites and Destination Brand Personality

Besides destination brand image, official destination websites help to create destination brand personality. Positioning a unique image and personality proposition for destinations is a strategic decision that will significantly contribute to building a strong destination brand (Vinyals-Mirabent & Mohammadi, 2018). In their study on the relationship between perceived and predicted destination brand personalities through official websites Kim and Lehto (2013) identified seven destination personality dimensions: excitement, competence, sincerity, sophistication, ruggedness, uniqueness and family orientation. The various elements offered by a destination can reflect different personality traits. This makes it difficult to deliver consistent messages that reflect a solid and stable destination brand personality. This variability in personality reflected across information about different attractors can prevent communication messages from reflecting a strong and consistent destination brand personality. Therefore, finding a balance between the information provided about the attractions will ensure that the reflected personality is more stable and thus the desired personality will be better positioned (Vinyals-Mirabent et al., 2019). On the other hand, consistency between the personality models presented by different official sources of destinations is important for positioning an effective destination personality.

Another issue in positioning the brand personality is ensuring a good harmony between the personality we want to portray and the image of the intended destination. Therefore, it is necessary to reflect desired personality traits by using selected words strategically (Daye, 2010). Official destination websites play a functional role in conveying the destination brand personality with symbolic elements such as destination logos on their home pages. However, Rojas-Mendez and Hine (2017) suggested that personality traits have not yet been significantly used to create a clear personality positioning on official destination websites. According to the authors, it is important that an official destination website displays a relatively consistent personality position and that this position is consistent with the tourism experience the country actually offers. In order to achieve this, it is clear that all stakeholders, especially destination management and academician should cooperate (Rojas-Mendez & Hine, 2017).

4.3. Official Destination Websites and Interaction

Official websites, which contain local information about destinations such as history, transportation and climate, and are generally used for informational purposes, are often inadequate in terms of interaction opportunities and cannot use the Internet to its full potential (Yayli & Bayram, 2010). Whereas it is known that there is a direct and significant relationship between attitudes towards these websites and the desire to participate in online co-creation experiences (Jiménez-Barreto and Campo-Martinez, 2018). This is because destination websites collect narratives from tourists who have previously experienced the destination, and then leverage this data to provide value as a source of information for potential tourists at the point of travel decision-making and travel planning. To ensure that users actively participate in the production of value for the destination brand, it is important to develop co-creation processes that can motivate tourists and ensure their participation (Jiménez-Barreto and Campo-Martinez, 2018).

Interaction on official destination websites remains very low, although this is not a completely neglected feature. People often prefer to interact on social networks (Miguez González & Fernández Cavia, 2015). Another reason why social media is popular is because it allows content created with wide user participation. According to Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio, Campo and Molinillo (2020), users consider that only the positive and good aspects of the destination will be presented on official destination websites due to the high level of institutional control. On the other hand, they consider social media more authentic and convincing because they allow open communication between users.

Although interactivity can be considered less important in the perceived quality of official tourism websites, it is one of the key components such as design, information quality and ease of use. One of the reasons for the lower importance of interaction on official websites is that users who are expecting a highly interactive experience prefer official social media applications instead of official websites (Jimenez Barreto, Rubio, & Campo Martinez, 2019). Destination websites need to provide current and relevant information, enable users and other stakeholders to interact with each other, and provide social representation through destination review websites such as Tripadvisor. The official destination website needs to be considered as a constant and dynamic process with the interaction of its all stakeholders (Kanazawa et al., 2021). Fernández Cavia and Castro (2015), in their study aiming to evaluate the quality of official destination websites, similarly emphasize that destination managers should overcome the conceptualization of official destination websites as an information distributor and pay more attention to creating connections and interactions with users, visitors and potential tourists. According to the authors, in the coming years the web will gradually increase its impact in tourism sector and destination websites will continue to play a fundamental role in tourism communication. Therefore, it would not be wrong to say that more emphasis should be given to interaction on official destination websites (Gupta, 2014). However, these sites need to be fully adopted to e-commerce and become international websites for global markets, with features such as multiple language options, visa information, currency converter, online booking and availability search (Cao & Yang, 2016).

4.4. Features of Official Destination Websites

In destination branding processes, it is important which components are included on the official destination website and how these sites appear. Forasmuch, according to users of official destination website, it is known that online destination brand experience has an effect on behavioral intentions (Jiménez-Barreto, Rubio and Campo, 2020). Using keywords unique to the destination, such as proper names, on these websites can contribute to strong destination branding by highlighting uniqueness (Malenkina & Ivanov, 2018). Another way that destinations

can highlight their distinctive features to increase their competitiveness is to present a unique destination image by including their social, cultural and geographic attractions on their official websites (Vinyals-Mirabent, 2019). When deciding which attractions to put forward on these websites, it is helpful to consider the preferences of past and potential visitors. Both positive and negative evaluations about the destination shared by visitors on platforms such as TripAdvisor should be taken into account (De Rosa, Bocci, & Dryjanska, 2019). In addition to promoting attractions on official destination websites, it is also important to provide information about geographic history, local beliefs and local culture (Duan, Marafa, Chan, Xu, & Cheung, 2020).

Contents such as text, images and video presented on official destination websites may be better organized than on social media platforms, but social media platforms are also better at issues such as content engagement and social interactions (Jimenez-Barreto, Sthapit, Rubio, & Campo, 2019). Besides, people consider user-generated content more trustworthy compared to content produced by destination marketers (Iordanova & Stainton, 2019). Reliability is one of the important factors in creating positive user attitudes towards official destination websites. Therefore, official destination websites should clearly demonstrate the quality of the information source (Kim & Fesenmaier, 2008). On the other hand, for official destination websites to contain visually appealing stimuli that attract the attention of visitors, ensure that they stay on the website longer. Other quality dimensions of official destination websites are usability, graphic design and ease of use (Martinez-Sala, Monserrat-Gauchi & Alemany-Martinez, 2020). The harmony of the components that are intended to be conveyed, such as information, visuals, slogans and messages on these websites, with the elements presented in both other electronic and traditional marketing channels will support the destination branding process (Singh & Formica, 2007).

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study aims to reveal the importance and purpose of using official destination websites in destination branding process. As a result of the systematic literature review, it was found that these sites are of great importance in creating a strong destination brand. The main research themes of the studies reviewed in the research are; destination brand image, website feature, interaction and finally brand personality. Researchers largely advocate that destination websites can be an effective tool in creating a strong destination brand image and positioning a unique destination brand personality. Official destination websites are important in providing the information potential tourists need from a reliable source. As a result, while these websites provide useful and reliable information for travelers, they should also have interaction opportunities such as sharing experiences and communicating among themselves and with destination representatives.

Another issue that stands out in studies on official destination websites is interaction. The interaction ability of destination websites can positively affect users' attitudes towards these sites. However, the studies in the literature demonstrate that official destination websites are often inadequate in terms of interaction opportunities and do not use the Internet to its full potential. Based on this, destination managers are recommended to pay more attention to the interaction elements on official destination websites and to integrate applications and infrastructure that will increase interaction into these websites.

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