



MASTERARBEIT | MASTER'S THESIS

Titel | Title

Empowering Democracy. The Role of Information Rights and
Media Education Programs in Turkey.

verfasst von | submitted by

Elif Imran Kartal

angestrebter akademischer Grad | in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Science (MSc)

Wien | Vienna, 2024

Studienkennzahl lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme code as it appears on the
student record sheet:

UA 066 550

Studienrichtung lt. Studienblatt | Degree
programme as it appears on the student
record sheet:

Masterstudium Communication Science

Betreut von | Supervisor:

Univ.-Prof. Dr. Katharine Sarikakis

1. Democracy, Media, and Informational Rights

1.1. Understanding Democracy

In the contemporary global landscape, the resonance of a democratic era permeates political discourse and societal aspirations (Munck, 2016). The concept of democracy, however, proves elusive to a singular definition, as academics navigate a multifaceted terrain of interpretations (Mazo, 2005). Dahl (1982), a prominent political theorist, offers a comprehensive framework comprising elected officials, free and fair elections, inclusive suffrage, and fundamental freedoms such as expression and association as the bedrock requirements for modern political democracy. Democracies are universally regarded as the bastions of civil freedoms and human rights (Liu, 2017). At the core of this perception lies the understanding that all citizens are entitled to access fundamental information. This recognition is not just a product of democratic systems but an integral aspect that promotes a thriving civil society (Gerring, Thacker & Alfaro, 2012; Stiglitz, 1999). Democracy, as a concept, is not only challenging to define but also complex to analyze. Disagreements persist on the best methodologies and frameworks to assess democratic quality (Coppedge et al., 2019). Recognizing these challenges, scholars have proposed evaluating democracies along eight dimensions: freedom, the rule of law, responsiveness, equality, participation, competition, horizontal accountability, and the potential for progress or deterioration (Diamond & Morlino, 2004). In constructing a framework for democracy, scholars have rigorously compared institutions and practices against accepted principles. This framework encompasses transitional democracies and begins with a focus on citizens' rights, including access to justice, citizenship, and the rule of law. The evaluation extends to representational and accountable governance, examining fair elections, political parties, executive branch

efficiency, civilian control of armed forces and police, and anti-corruption initiatives. Media's function, political engagement, government responsiveness, decentralization, civil society, and public participation also feature prominently in this comprehensive framework (Beetham, 2004). Furthermore, the concept of citizenship, fundamental to democratic governance, assumes a dual role. Initially, it conveys a general sense of individuals possessing rights and duties under state laws, irrespective of the state's character. However, when examined through the lens of democratic governments, citizenship takes on a richer tapestry. In this context, residents exercise political rights, encompassing free speech, participation in public officer elections, and the right to assemble for structural changes or resistance to undesirable alterations (Crick, 2007). Moreover, the construction of representations by political representatives adds layers of complexity to citizens' identities, influencing not only how they are perceived but also shaping expectations and societal locales (Saward, 2006).

1.2. Intersection of Human Rights and Democracy

Every individual is entitled to a social and global order enabling the full exercise of rights as per the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights by the United Nations (UDHR). This underscores an awareness of how local and global contexts impact the realization of these rights (Curtis & Darcy, 2012). However, the process of acquiring knowledge about the law and individual rights remains obscure, posing challenges in understanding the role of social policy interventions in addressing knowledge deficiencies (Saunders, 1975). Citizens may hold diverse opinions on the voting process, political structure, or citizen rights; however, a well-informed foundation is crucial for all viewpoints. In elementary education, teachers play a pivotal role in delivering civics education, making instructional decisions that balance time constraints and competing subjects. Emphasizing concepts over facts provides a structured framework, with civics principles intertwined with literacy skills instruction (Lord & Noel,

2022). For rights to be actualized, individuals must not only understand them but also advocate for them. This perspective, emphasizing the universality of human rights, relies on individual activism to ensure practical implementation. The absence of concrete implementation acts as a constraining factor, hindering a proactive approach to human rights, as individual actions fundamentally shape awareness (Velez, 2019).

Theories like ideology, hegemony, and discourse aim to explain why those without economic clout support social power structures. Understanding social inequalities and privileges, along with defining how culture and knowledge are produced and transmitted, are central goals of these theoretical frameworks (Stoddart, 2007). In the present day, expectations for fresh research to enhance comprehension and reshape conceptual structures apply across all fields of knowledge (Vickers, 1992). Power, in various forms, plays a creative role in shaping social structures and knowledge, closely intertwined with the legal system. Assessing power dynamics requires strategies that address conflicts arising from challenging societal conventions, revising overarching narratives, and developing localized, widely accepted, and underrepresented forms of knowledge (Torres-Cuello & Pinzon-Salcedo, 2022). While every part of society has a discursive component shaping its goals, episteme places a major emphasis on determining the meaning of life via knowledge and truth. The autonomy of epistemic institutions to produce essential knowledge becomes weaker when reduced, especially when compared to other fields like politics and economics (Paternotte & Verloo, 2021). Concealing information limits public engagement in civic activities, serving as a shield against accusations of errors and contributing to pervasive corruption based on the practice of secrecy (Stiglitz, 1999). Rights consciousness, shaped by legal principles, extends beyond formal laws, while legal consciousness involves ongoing interactions with the law. Adopting a rights consciousness perspective innovatively shifts the focus away from the

state, revealing active reshaping of rights below and beyond the state's jurisdiction (Şerban, 2018). There is ongoing debate on measuring and enhancing public legal competence, emphasizing the need to foster individual legal capability, particularly among those lacking access to qualified legal assistance (Denvir, Balmer, & Pleasence, 2013). Reactions to and involvement with human rights are shaped by personal encounters and outlooks, mirroring underlying beliefs about knowledge, authority, and the process of change (Coysh, 2017). The democratic system's effectiveness relies on the ability of individuals to hold elected leaders responsible, necessitating institutional arrangements such as free and frequent elections, powerful political parties, and a media system disseminating relevant news. (Curran et al., 2009).

1.3. Impact of Information Technologies on Democracy

The democratic ethos implies that for meaningful democratic engagement, information must be accessible, fostering a society where an informed citizenry actively participates in the democratic processes that shape their collective destiny. The ongoing communication revolution, fueled by relentless technological advancement, has significantly increased society's capacity to process, store, and transmit information (Plattner, 2012). This transformation is particularly evident in the realm of information technologies (IT), where the advent of Web 2.0 has ushered in new possibilities for democratic processes. Information technologies, with their potential for mass communication, not only enhance the exchange of information but also redefine the dynamics of citizen-government interaction (Sachs & Parycek, 2010). It is essential to recognize that the essence of information democracy transcends the mere technicalities of information flow. More crucially, it lies in the strategic management of information (Clark, 1998). Effective information management becomes a

linchpin in fostering transparency, accountability, and robust citizen-government interaction—components essential for the sustained health of a democracy. The transformative impact of information technologies on democracy cannot be overstated. From altering the dynamics of political and media structures to reshaping individual citizens' traits, the intricate interconnections of these causal elements contribute to a complex influence of the media on politics (Graber, 2003). In this era of constant connectivity, the potential and practice of democracy find themselves profoundly altered by the new information technologies that permeate every facet of society (Snider, 1994).

1.4. Democracy and Political Structures: European Union Initiatives in Turkey

The practice of democracy in Turkey represents a unique amalgamation of political structures and occasional interruptions. Despite operating within a multi-party system with a tradition of representation, the evolution of democracy in Turkey has not followed a natural or spontaneous trajectory (Kalaycıoğlu, 2008). For civil society to thrive within the democratic framework, several conditions, including free markets, an unrestricted state structure, autonomous individuals, and a culture of conflict resolution, must coexist. However, the current manifestation of the civic society in Turkey does not neatly align with these conditions, raising concerns about the sustainability of Turkish democracy (Uluç, 2013). Maintaining relations with the European Union has been a crucial yet challenging aspect of Turkey's democratic journey (Uysal, 2001). The dialogue between Turkey and the European Union, particularly concerning the delicate topic of 'freedom of thought,' has been intricate, with this aspect proving to be the most challenging during the harmonization process (Asker, 2010). The European Union, recognizing its potential role in promoting Turkey's democratization, has initiated several programs emphasizing the importance of civil society

in the Turkish accession process. The EU aims to empower non-governmental organizations to play a self-responsible role in Turkey's democratic journey by providing support and sponsorship (Mühlenhoff, 2014). Furthermore, the right to information in Turkey is governed by Law No. 4982, which was enacted in 2003 as part of the EU Harmonization Process. Government actions can only be scrutinized through information, and a proper, informed discussion about them can only occur through information. Having access to information is a requirement of a democratic state, but it doesn't seem the Turkish government will recognize this right easily (Aras & Altınok, 2009).

1.5. The Right to Information

Turkey's position in the digital realm, particularly concerning internet usage, shows a dynamic picture. Statistics indicate that Turkey surpasses the world average in terms of internet usage (Saka, 2019). However, this increased connectivity comes with its own set of challenges, particularly regarding freedom of expression. The Turkish press, while exhibiting signs of conventional censorship and self-censorship (Arsan, 2011), operates within a legal framework that has become a focal point of discussion. The regulatory structure for the internet, enshrined in Law No. 5651 since 2007, has faced criticism, especially concerning its potential conflict with the right to free speech. Recent changes have heightened concerns about the ease with which access restrictions can be implemented, raising questions about the delicate balance between regulation and free expression (Eroğlu & Yılmaz, 2015). Constructing a legal framework for the internet emerges as one of the most fundamental issues in national and international law (Kaya, 2020). Turkey has tried to amend its legislation that guarantees the concepts of unity, and a single language in line with the EU Commission's Progress Reports. As a result, the EU took notice of the changes made,

including the introduction of other articles aimed at protecting these values. The Union has a particular focus on compliance with the decisions of the European Court of Human Rights and the provisions of the European Convention on Human Rights in practice. Despite these, it is possible to say that the Turkish Penal Code has become more democratic. This is especially relevant to the Press Law, which is the basic law in terms of freedom of thought. Thus, as long as the EU process is not disrupted, the democratic concept that has been pushed into Turkey's communication policy will be effective. (Asker, 2010).

According to the Centre For Media Pluralism and Media Freedom (2020) report, Turkey shows high risk in terms of protection of freedom of expression, protection of the right to information, journalistic profession standards and protection, independence, and effectiveness of the media authority, and lastly, the universal reach of traditional media and access to the internet. Moreover, Reporters Without Borders Index assesses the freedom of journalists and media outlets, considering factors like media independence, legal environment, and abuses against journalists. The 2023 index for Turkey reveals a ranking of 165 out of 180 with a score of 33.97. Authoritarianism is on the rise, challenging media pluralism, as 90% of the national media falls under government control. Critical or independent media outlets have become crucial for information on the economic and political crisis. However, discriminatory practices, censorship, and economic pressures pose challenges, making it difficult for journalists to report independently. Safety concerns have escalated, with violence targeting journalists critical of the ruling alliance intensifying, especially in the lead-up to the 2023 elections. CIVICUS Monitor, operated by CIVICUS, a global civil society alliance, actively monitors civic space and freedom of expression worldwide. The platform offers ratings and comprehensive reports assessing the state of civil society and freedom of expression in different countries. For Turkey, the current score stands at 29 out of 100, categorizing it as

"repressed." Freedom House's Freedom in the World Report assesses political rights and civil liberties globally, including freedom of expression and media freedom. For Turkey, the score is 32 out of 100, categorizing it as "not free." The media landscape in Turkey is highly controlled, with over 90% of networks relying on public tenders and owned by businesses closely tied to the government. Mainstream media often mirror government positions, while independent outlets face intense political pressure and persecution. Journalists are regularly detained, prosecuted, or attacked, with Turkey ranking as the world's sixth-largest jailer of journalists in 2021, according to the Committee to Protect Journalists (CPJ). Therefore, in terms of media pluralism, journalists are unprotected against the government and media owners. For economic reasons, the pre-selected media bosses serve the government through their news content. Dissident media and critical journalists have faced overwhelming attacks and sanctions. The minorities in Turkey still do not have proper access to the media, not even to PSM channels (İnceoğlu & Sözeri & Erbaysal Filibeli, 2016).

2. Gender Equality, Social Inequality, and Youth Participation in Turkey within the European Context

2.1. Promoting Gender Equality

Gender equality policies were of minimal concern at the inception of the European project in 1957. Historically, the European Union (EU) primarily focused its legislation on employment and social security. Only recent developments extend into the "private sphere," addressing topics such as sexual harassment, violence against women, and family matters (Hristova, 2006). Gender equality, defined as equal rights, responsibilities, and opportunities for women and men, remains elusive in many parts of the world. International organizations and NGOs decry gender imbalances in education, employment access, job types, and wage disparities. While Europe fares better than some regions, gender equality still falls short, especially in

women's representation at the highest economic and political levels. The EU plays a role in addressing these issues through deliberate anti-discrimination policies, both domestically and in its foreign policy. Additionally, it fosters legislation and debates with gender dimensions, shaping societal perceptions of femininity and masculinity. Simultaneously, gender-related legislation and discourses at various levels—subnational, national, and transnational—significantly influence EU gender policies. This complex interplay of national cultures, EU institutional developments, and international actors creates a dynamic and intricate policy landscape in the EU (Lucarelli, 2014). Gender sensitivity, which addresses sexualized hierarchies cutting across class, race, and geography, helps us analyze citizen participation while distinguishing diversity from domination. This is a key issue in multiculturalism discussions, echoing long standing points in feminist legal theory. When differences lead to conflict and legal issues, it's crucial to approach them through the lens of dominance and its underlying mechanisms. In the context of citizenship, this emphasis on dominance revolves around questions of inclusion and exclusion, determining who belongs and who does not (Baer, 2004).

2.2. Addressing Social and Economic Disparities in Democratic Settings

Furthermore, The European Union (EU), established in 1992 by the Maastricht Treaty, aimed to promote peace, cohesion, economic and political integration, and a shared identity among member states' citizens. However, recent events raise concerns. The UK's decision to leave the EU in 2016, discussions by right-wing parties in the Netherlands, Italy, and France about leaving the EU, and debates about GREXIT in Greece suggest significant challenges to European identity today (Petkanopoulou, Sánchez-Rodríguez, Willis, Chryssochoou, & Rodríguez-Bailón, 2018). The economic crisis and recent austerity measures strain EU social cohesion. Macroeconomic instability, public spending cuts, and ongoing social and labor

market reforms are expected to worsen inequality and poverty. Combining high social transfers and robust economic growth can reduce poverty and promote income equality. To combat high inequality and poverty, effective social protection systems are essential, featuring universal social transfers and progressive taxation for all individuals. Recent macroeconomic turbulence, coupled with pressure for less generous and universal social benefits, threatens EU social cohesion. Without policies promoting economic activity and more effective social protection, poverty and inequality are less likely to improve after the crisis (Dafermos & Papatheodorou, 2013). Moreover, social inequality is rising across most OECD countries, reversing the longstanding trend towards greater equality, particularly strong in the post-war era. This unequal distribution of resources for political participation has significant implications for democracy. There is a strong correlation between social inequality and citizens' perceptions of democracy, with greater income inequality leading to increased dissatisfaction with democracy's functioning and reduced trust in political institutions (Schäfer, 2012).

2.3. Interplay of Democracy, Youth, and Media Dynamics

The intersection of democracy and the participation of young people introduces a nuanced dimension to the discourse. Notably, the issue of participation and citizenship assumes heightened importance for this demographic, a segment often excluded from many political processes and deprived of rights most adults take for granted (Bessant, 2003). Efforts to enhance the democratic participation of young people, representing a significant shift in their citizenship status, are critical. However, paradigms that undermine young people's political engagement by offering insufficient knowledge and failing to provide a viable policy response can act as barriers. These paradigms often overlook the evolving nature of young people's political empowerment and their fundamentally different worldviews (Farthing,

2010). The global movement towards participatory governance, seeking to engage multiple stakeholders for more democratic processes, mirrors efforts to increase young people's participation. However, this process is not without its challenges, as evidenced by young people's dissatisfaction with the existing culture of power and structure present in international organizations like the United Nations (Kwon, 2019). Future democratic legitimacy is intricately tied to the political socialization that young people receive. Thus, it becomes imperative to question whether the existing approaches to nurturing young people as active citizens are adequate. Are they sufficient to ensure a comprehensive understanding and support for democratic institutions, as well as active and meaningful involvement in them (Forbrig, 2005)?

2.4. Turkey: Through Statistical Trends

The World Economic Forum's Global Gender Gap Report evaluates global gender disparities across economic participation, education, political empowerment, and health. In the 2022 Global Gender Gap Index, Turkey ranks 124th, with a score of 0.639 and a minimal change of +0.001 since 2021. In Central Asia, gender gap progress is stagnant at 69.1%, projecting 151 years to close. In 2022, Central Asia is fourth among regions, following North America, Europe, and Latin America. Moldova (78.8%), Belarus (75%), and Georgia (73.1%) lead, while Azerbaijan (68.7%), Tajikistan (66.3%), and Turkey (63.9%) rank lowest. For the Economic Participation and Opportunity subindex, Central Asia achieves 68.2% parity, ranking as the fourth-most advanced region. Disparities are evident, with Belarus (81.8%), Moldova (76.6%), and Kazakhstan (75.6%) leading, and Armenia (66.9%), Tajikistan (60.9%), and Turkey (49.3%) at the bottom. In Political Empowerment, Central Asia has closed only 11.8% of its gender gap, showing minimal progress. Moldova (41.2%), Georgia (24.8%), and Belarus (21.6%) exhibit higher gender parity, while Kyrgyzstan (12.4%), Turkey (12.3%), and Azerbaijan (6.9%) fall below the regional average. The World

Inequality Database, developed by economists, is a valuable resource providing data on income and wealth inequality globally, enabling the study of economic disparities. For Turkey, Per adult GDP in 2022 stands at €49,190. Per adult national income is reported at €40,871. The net national wealth to net national income ratio in 2021 is 134.45% of national income. Income inequality in Turkey is indicated at 51.7% in 2021. Regarding the female labor income share, the figure for 2019 is 23.3%. In the context of Turkey, the per-adult GDP for 2022 stands at €49,190, while the reported per-adult national income is €40,871. The net national wealth to net national income ratio in 2021 is 134.45% of national income, reflecting the economic landscape. Income inequality in Turkey is indicated to be 51.7% in 2021, shedding light on disparities within the nation. Additionally, the female labor income share for the year 2019 is reported at 23.3%, providing insights into gender-specific economic participation. The Human Development Index (HDI) 2022, produced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), serves as a measure of global socio-economic disparities, considering factors like income, education, and life expectancy. In 2021, Turkey's HDI value was 0.838, reflecting a positive change of +0.005 from 2020. Key indicators for Turkey include a life expectancy at birth of 76.0 years, expected years of schooling at 18.3 years, mean years of schooling at 8.6 years, and a Gross National Income per capita of \$31,033 (constant 2017 PPP\$). Globally, the HDI value for the same year was 0.732, indicating a decrease of -0.003 from 2020. Global indicators for 2021 include a life expectancy at birth of 71.4 years, expected years of schooling at 12.8 years, mean years of schooling at 8.6 years, and a Gross National Income per capita of \$16,752 (constant 2017 PPP\$). In terms of gender, in Turkey, the 2022 labor force participation rate is 34.2% for females and 71.1% for males. Female participation has remained stable since 1990, with a higher gender gap compared to the upper-middle income group. Vulnerable employment for Turkish females has improved since 1991, with rates at 28.3%, compared to 23.4% for males in 2021. Both genders have

higher vulnerability compared to Europe & Central Asia averages. Turkish women spend 5.2 times more time on unpaid domestic work than men, with women dedicating 19.2% of their day in 2015. In 2018, more men than women-owned businesses in Turkey. The share of women experiencing intimate partner violence in Turkey is 27%, surpassing the global average. In 2022, 17.4% of national parliament seats in Turkey were held by women, showing an increase since 2010 but lower than the upper-middle income average. In 2021, more Turkish men than women used mobile phones or the internet to pay bills, with a larger internet usage gap which is 28.3 than the Europe & Central Asia aggregate which is 5.2 (World Bank Gender Data Portal, 2022). The Gender Inequality Index (GII), also published by the UNDP, assesses gender-based disparities in reproductive health, empowerment, and economic activity, offering insights into gender inequality within countries. The 2020 Gender Gap Index of the World Economic Forum reveals persistent challenges in Turkey. Despite ongoing efforts by governments, institutions, and women's movements, women and girls continue to face violence, abuse, trafficking, and human rights violations. Turkey ranks 133rd out of 156 countries in the Gender Gap Index, reflecting the grim reality. In terms of political representation, only 17% of parliament members in Turkey are women. Gender inequality extends to the labor market, with a 32% labor force participation rate for women and a 68% rate for men. Unemployment rates are 14.5% for women and 13% for men, according to TurkStat Labor Statistics 2020. Violence against women remains a pervasive issue, with 4 out of 10 women experiencing physical and sexual violence in their lifetime, as reported in the 2014 Domestic Violence Research in Turkey. In 2020 alone, 266 women lost their lives due to gender-based violence. The UNFPA is actively addressing these challenges through collaborative programs with government institutions, NGOs, universities, and the private sector. The 7th Country Programme (2021-2025) aims to strengthen institutional capacities

for gender equality, combat gender-based violence, and engage men and boys in advocacy, policy dialogue, and technical assistance initiatives.

The percentage of young people employed in Turkey is 16.7%, while the share of youth unemployment is 18.7%. The percentage of young women in the labor force is very low. The rate of poverty among young people is 26%. Two-thirds of young people live in urban areas. International mobility is deficient. Young people in Turkey spend a significant amount of time together with their families. The parents' influence on the young people's lives is very high. Based on their socioeconomic status, people enjoy themselves in different ways. Young people do not read much. Only 36.1% of them read newspapers daily, and 27.4% read books. Young women read more than young men. Watching TV is a favorite leisure activity (81%). Young people use the Internet at home or at Internet cafes (Göksel, 2010). According to TUIK (2020) , the total population of Turkey was 83 million 614 thousand 362 people as of the end of 2020. The number of young people aged 15-24 was 12 million 893 thousand 750. The young population made up 15.4% of the total population. 51.3% of the young population was male and 48.7% was female. Internet usage for children aged 6-15 increased from 50.8% in 2013 to 82.7%. Moreover, according to Information Technologies Use in Children Research (2021), when Internet usage is analyzed by gender; it is observed that the rate of Internet use among boys, which was 53.7% in 2013, increased to 83.9% in 2021, and the rate of Internet use among girls, which was 47.8% in 2013, increased to 81.5%. Also, 31.3% of children who use the Internet regularly stated that they use it for social media. Social media is used almost every day by 77.7% of children in the 6-15 age group, at least once a week by 16.5%, and less than once a week by 5.8%. 94.2% of children said they used social media and the Internet regularly. The rate for children aged 6-10 years was 84.6%, while the rate for children aged 11–15 years was 95.9%. Turkey's share of households with Internet access increased by 2.2 percentage points between 2021 and 2022. The share of households with

Internet usage reached its highest value in the observed period with 94.15 percent. Notably, the share of households with Internet access has continuously increased over the last few years (Statista Research Department, 2023). The dominant reasons for children using the Internet were mostly education-related in Turkey in 2021. After schools switched to online education during the Coronavirus (COVID-19) pandemic, the majority of children accessed the Internet to attend distance learning classes and do research for their homework. In addition, thirdly, 66 percent of kids used the Internet to play or download online games (Dierks, 2022). Children's data processing companies must follow the KVKK's (Turkish Personal Data Protection Law) guidance and comply with the Data Protection Law. Steps that may be taken include complying with the data minimization principle, preparing privacy notices that are appropriate for children, and implementing high-level data protection measures. Parental consent and minimum age requirements are still developing areas in Turkey (Data Guidance, 2021).

2.5. Creating Child-Friendly Media

The concept of child-friendly media was discussed at the Measles Vaccine Campaign media planning meeting with UNICEF, the Ministry of Health, Istanbul University's Faculty of Communication, the Parliamentary Correspondents Association, as well as journalists, on 4-6 December 2003. As part of a partnership with Bianet, media training was conducted in 2005 and 2006. In Turkey, for the first time, a Child Rights Strategy Document covering the period 2012-2016 has been prepared by the General Directorate of Child Services. Regarding the 2013-2017 targets of the Ministry of Family and Social Policies, the National Child Rights Strategy Document and Action Plan sets out what needs to be done for child-centered media. Finally, the Oslo Challenge (1999) gives ideas to governments, people, and institutions that

are interacting with children, teachers, families, researchers, and people working at various levels in the media sector about what they should do about "children's rights and the media" (Akdağ, 2016). In terms of national and international legislation, media organizations must convey what is most helpful for the kids in all aspects surrounding the notion of child safety. The idea of "best interests of the child" is one of the fundamental principles of the Convention on the Rights of the Child concerning child protection (Albayrak, 2021). In line with global changes and trends, the media literacy course has begun to be taught as part of the elementary school curriculum in Turkey. With the advancement of communication technologies, in today's world where messages are filtered in different forms and from different communication environments are an integral part of our lives, a media literacy course can serve as an important tool for understanding communication forms, products, communication production processes, and transforming them through criticism (Hasdemir & Demirel, 2012). However, it would be naive to anticipate a mental shift in the media before society's image of children shifts. Aside from media criticism of individuals and society, media transformation is impossible unless all of these efforts are associated with the organization, as well as raising awareness and awareness in the context of technology literacy, digital literacy, and media literacy, primarily visual literacy and basic literacy. The assumption that attempts to confront media reality may be fulfilled if a national and global media revolution began has yet to be realized (Şirin, 2018).

3. Role of Media Education Programs

3.1. The Role of Educational System in Specialized Media

The most significant of all specialized media systems is the educational system. The foundation of it is the educational system, a vast conduit for the dissemination of specialized knowledge. The educational system is likewise in favor of using specialized media. A layer

of people who consume specialized communication in both their professional and personal lives is another crucial outcome of the educational system, particularly of higher education (Maisel, 1973). Every individual should have the chance to attain media literacy, which enables them to decipher, assess, scrutinize, and create content in both printed and digital media formats. The primary goal of media literacy is to foster critical independence concerning all forms of media. Media literacy training can emphasize various aspects, such as informed citizenship, artistic appreciation and expression, advocacy for societal issues, self-confidence, and consumer competence (Aufderheide, 2018) and with the proliferation of digital technologies and increased participation from the public, media literacy must find its place in primary, secondary, and higher education. It may be taught as an independent subject or, more likely, integrated into a broader framework of various literacies (Koltay, 2011). There are four common themes of agreement that emerge within the discourse on media literacy: mass media possess the potential for both positive and negative effects on individuals; media literacy aims to empower individuals to protect themselves from negative media influences; media literacy is a learned skill that necessitates individual effort and expert guidance and media literacy encompass multiple dimensions of influence, requiring development across various aspects (Potter, 2010).

3.2. The Importance, Challenges, and Global Perspectives of Media Literacy Education

Media is undergoing democratization, thanks to the widespread availability of low-cost digital tools. This has led to a surge in content creation, particularly among grassroots contributors, in contrast to traditional one-way media. The networks enabling this change offer access to global audiences for creators. Norms, now essential for both consumers and creators, redefine what we once termed 'media literacy' for the 21st century. This updated concept encompasses the emerging modes of participation in digital media (Gillmor, 2009).

Aligned with a framework that assesses the evolution of new media literacy along two dimensions, moving from basic consumption to deeper comprehension and from practical usage to advanced critical analysis, new media literacy encompasses four key elements: practical consumption, practical production, critical consumption, and critical production-consumption (Chen; Wu; & Wang, 2011). As information and technology advance swiftly, raising awareness among children and teenagers becomes crucial. This awareness is vital for them to navigate the deluge of mass media and attain a deep understanding of media content while fostering critical thinking skills (Zhang; Zhang; & Wang, 2020). In this sense, effective media literacy education demands ongoing administrative support and a shared vision for goals, principles, and teaching methods. Educators, administrators, and sometimes parents should evaluate various approaches in media education and select the most suitable theoretical foundations, concepts, and strategies for their specific context and purposes. Collaborative efforts are then needed to implement the chosen approach (Brown, 1998).

Hence, the purpose of media literacy education is to reveal concealed structures, aiming to cultivate discerning consumers, critical observers, and knowledgeable citizens. Recent research has shown favorable results from media literacy programs in various aspects, including enabling adaptable responses to current events for both educators and students, integrating critical thinking with behavior change among young individuals, and providing a basis for effectively comprehending partisan content (Bulger, & Davison, 2018). Individual literacy in the realm of social media is a significant challenge that requires coordinated efforts and dedication from policymakers and public institutions. It calls for the development of robust public information systems, accessible infrastructure for reliable information, and investments in social media literacy programs. Adaptability is essential to keep up with evolving social media features and user behavior. Additionally, there is a need for progress in

regulatory policies to define the rights and obligations of individuals, groups, and platforms in the social media sphere (Cho; Cannon; Lopez; & Li, 2022). Information literacy centers on library science and technology, while media literacy covers a broader spectrum, including communication, health, leisure, culture, and effects. Despite their disparities, both share a common objective of fostering informed individuals capable of discerning in the digital age, emphasizing multimedia platforms and knowledge creation. Collaborative learning between experts in these fields is vital. In our information-saturated world, merging these two domains is critical to equip individuals for effective navigation of media messages and information platforms, facilitating their engagement in evolving knowledge societies (Lee, So, 2014). A robust concept of Information Literacy aligns effectively with other requisites, particularly when considering the significance of the right to information, for instance, a right to information necessitates specific accesses, such as those outlined in Freedom of Information laws. However, these laws can be too complex for the average person to navigate effectively, and an information-literate individual is better equipped to do so. It's not solely about professionals informing the public; there is a clear implication in Workshop programs that professionals should aim to empower individuals by enhancing their ability to comprehend and interpret information (Gastinger & Sturges, 2010). Although media literacy is the primary focus of Member States, media education is not adequately developed in specific countries like France, Lithuania, Latvia, and Portugal, both formally and informally. Many EU nations emphasize a single form of literacy or practical skills over genuine media education. This highlights the ongoing need for greater attention to media education and awareness of media-related risks in EU member states, despite existing initiatives (Petranová, Hossová, & Velický; 2017). Media literacy education initiatives should be designed to suit the requirements of individuals across different age groups, considering their roles and objectives at various stages of life. Diverse teaching strategies are essential to

adequately address the media literacy competencies of youngsters, adolescents, grown-ups, caregivers, and senior citizens (Rasi, P., Vuojärvi, H., & Ruokamo, 2019). Hence, media literacy has become as important as traditional literacy based on alphabets in a society defined by digital media and a visually-oriented culture. As a result, it becomes essential for every member of society to learn how to use, create, and analyze media. This is necessary for both keeping competitive in the modern labor market and participating fully in a democratic society (Schmidt, 2012). Many of the implications have yet to be researched. It should be emphasized that similar to any other academic discipline, media literacy curricula represent the cornerstone of effective teaching and learning, and they ought to mirror a refined comprehension of the subject matter, instructional methods, assessment practices, and common processes for developing media literacy curricula are utilized by modern media educators, and it is believed that even greater curricular consistency should be attained on a global scale (Fedorov, & Camarero Calandria, 2016). Therefore, academic discourse delves into the intricate relationship among textuality, competence, and power in shaping perspectives on literacy. Some view literacy as a democratizing force, while others see it as potentially divisive. Contemporary concerns about the digital divide reflect an ongoing debate between critical and enlightenment viewpoints, determining who wields influence over information and communication technologies in the modern era (Livingstone, 2004).

3.3. Exploring Children's Informational Rights and Policies: The Role of Media Literacy in Turkey

Media literacy education significantly contributes to children's social participation, aligning with the goals set by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. The focus lies on developing essential skills, such as information access, critical thinking, and media production. This education aims to equip children with an understanding of the production processes across various media, from traditional sources like newspapers and radio to modern

digital platforms. The goal is to foster awareness of how meaning is constructed and which techniques are employed for specific purposes. Armed with this knowledge, children are expected to approach media content with a discerning and questioning mindset. Media literacy education empowers students to safeguard themselves from potential abuses in the pervasive media landscape, facilitating efficient retrieval of valid information and responsible expression of opinions. Ultimately, this education enables students to exercise their right to social participation within ethical boundaries, underscoring its crucial role in upholding children's rights (Çakmak, 2013). The discourse on media literacy emerged in the 1990s following the initiation of private radio and television broadcasting in Turkey, breaking the longstanding monopoly held by the single-channel TRT. The collaborative media literacy project, formed through the partnership of the Ministry of National Education, the Radio and Television Supreme Council (RTÜK), non-governmental organizations, media entities, and universities, aims to empower students to comprehend media language and interpret media content actively, rather than being passive recipients. This initiative seeks to engage students in communication as active participants, emphasizing that children, being the most sensitive and impressionable demographic, need to develop the ability to discern between "reality" and "fiction" in what they view on screens. Furthermore, it is crucial to impart to children an understanding of how and why the media presents events and facts from particular perspectives. This approach aims to cultivate critical media consumers from an early age, starting in primary school (Avşar, 2013).

Media literacy entered the public discourse in 2003 as part of the European Union harmonization process led by the Ministry of European Union Affairs. It was also highlighted during the Communication Council, organized by the General Directorate of Press-Broadcasting and Information and TRT, under the coordination of RTÜK. Furthermore, a media and violence working group was established within the Violence Prevention

Platform, initiated in 2004 by the Ministry of Family and Social Policies, involving MPs, relevant public institutions, non-governmental organizations, and expert representatives from various universities. Additionally, during the International Media Literacy Conference organized by Marmara University Faculty of Communication in 2005, the Radio and Television Supreme Council issued an official statement elucidating the necessity of media literacy. Building on these discussions and policy endeavors, RTÜK and the Ministry of National Education jointly launched the Primary Education Elective Media Literacy Course Teaching Program. They provided training to 30 social studies teachers, and during the 2006 academic year, the course was introduced in five pilot cities: Ankara, Istanbul, Izmir, Adana, Erzurum (Sarı, 2015). Subsequently, starting from the 2007-2008 academic year, an elective media literacy course has been introduced for grades 6, 7, and 8 in primary education (Altun, 2008). Furthermore, since the 2000s, courses, programs, and projects addressing media literacy have been initiated in departments within higher education institutions that pertain to media, communication, education, information, and document management (Önal, 2007). Education in media literacy and adherence to ethical standards in the media are related. The Radio and Television Supreme Council (RTÜK) led the adoption of 12 Broadcasting Ethics Principles by national media organizations in 2007. These guidelines emphasize: preserving essential freedoms and rights, defending fairness, truthful information distribution, and freedom of expression, preventing the unfair use of media, rejecting bias based on a variety of reasons, recognizing the freedom to comment and correct, preserving the privacy of journalistic sources, avoiding the encouragement of violence, avoiding material that promotes violence or undermines moral principles, preserving the privacy, protecting children and young people from offensive content (Elma, Kesten, Dicle & Uzun, 2010).

Media literacy has become a significant aspect for both students and teachers, particularly highlighted for its effective utilization of diverse technologies and content within the context

of education. In Turkey, a noteworthy initiative in line with these developments is the "Draft Curriculum and Teacher Guide for Media Literacy Course at Primary Education Level," collaboratively signed by the Ministry of National Education (MEB) and the Radio and Television Supreme Council (RTÜK). This program is aimed at preparing teachers to help students make the most of various media, mitigate any adverse effects of media, and instill essential skills and values in students. However, the effectiveness of the program depends on the media literacy levels and awareness of teachers tasked with its implementation. Therefore, it is advisable for teacher candidates, who will actively contribute to imparting media literacy skills to students, to undergo media literacy training and attain a certain level of media literacy skills and awareness before entering the profession (Karaman & Karataş, 2009). Following a research initiative by RTÜK that revealed inefficiencies in the implementation of the media literacy course, a comprehensive study was launched in 2013 to overhaul both the curriculum and the accompanying textbook. As a result of this endeavor, the curriculum underwent a thorough revision and received approval from the Board of Education, being officially recognized as the "Middle School and Imam Hatip Secondary School Media Literacy Course Teaching Program" on 11.12.2013. A pivotal decision was made to forego the use of textbooks in favor of utilizing teaching materials for the curriculum, effective from the 2014-2015 academic year. Ongoing efforts are in place to develop these teaching materials and facilitate teacher training within the online environment (Altun, 2014). Between the 2007-2008 and 2013-2014 academic years, the Media Literacy course transitioned from being an elective for 6th, 7th, and 8th graders to being elective only for 7th and 8th graders, per the Board of Education Decision No. 22 dated 28.05.2013. It is proposed to extend the course to 5th and 6th graders, as stated in Board Decision No. 70 dated 24.07.2013. While face-to-face Branch Courses like "Media History" and "Media Follow-up" exist for 11th and 12th graders in certain high schools, mainstream high schools

lack media literacy courses, a significant gap given students' constant exposure to media. (Yavuz & Arhan, 2016). The curriculum, which is set to be implemented beginning with the 2018–2019 school year, will cover the following media literacy competencies: awareness, access, inquiry, online safety (personal and public), analysis, evaluation, creation, sharing (personal and professional media planning), and effectiveness (activism). The safe and critical use of information and communication technology for work, daily living, and communication is also described as digital competence in the program (Karaduman, 2019).

The Elective Media Literacy Course Curriculum designed for 7th-grade primary education is discussed, encompassing a total of 36 hours with one class per week. The program aims to achieve various objectives concerning content and education. Content-related objectives include questioning opinions in the media, fostering students' ability to assess and choose media offerings, understanding the outcomes of media production efforts, raising awareness about messages transmitted consciously or unconsciously to the target audience, acknowledging the commercial nature of the media and economic concerns, cultivating skills to discuss and evaluate media messages, creating awareness regarding the unconscious consumption prompted by advertisements, enhancing understanding of media manipulations and techniques, fostering knowledge about analyzing television, radio programs, and newspaper pages, and lastly, enabling students to visit local media organizations and participate in their events. Educational objectives involve guiding teachers to conduct observations and research on distribution processes, integrating the program with Social Studies courses, emphasizing the acquisition of eight common core skills, deriving values from practices related to media literacy issues, urging teachers to accept and integrate multimedia tools as an integral part of the curriculum, and emphasizing that evaluation should be seen as an assessment of the learning process (Turkish Ministry of National Education, Board of Education and Discipline, 2006, pp. 13-14).

In Turkey, media literacy education is provided through various training programs in collaboration with both public and private sectors, as highlighted in Sayar's (2022) study. Particularly noteworthy initiatives include media literacy education organized by the Ministry of Family and Social Services, public service announcements by RTÜK, media literacy courses, activities, and the Media Literacy cartoon series (Ministry of Family and Social Services, 2022; Media Literacy, 2022). Findings indicate that the media literacy course, especially in 7th and 8th grades, is gaining increasing importance each day. It is believed that widespread dissemination of this course to a broader student population would contribute to more effective use of 21st-century digital environments by society. As a result, it has been observed that the Ministry of National Education offers media literacy courses for 7th and 8th grades, and universities provide media literacy courses in the Communication and Education Faculties. Additionally, it has been identified that many private institutions organize media literacy education and certificate programs. The media literacy course is offered as an elective in secondary schools, typically instructed by Social Studies Teachers in Turkey.. However, these educators, entrusted with teaching media literacy, often lack formal training in the subject during their university education. Global trends in media literacy education suggest that this course should be integrated from the outset of the educational process. Given the evolving landscape of communication and media tools, teacher education programs in Turkey must adapt by implementing new strategies to cultivate media-literate teacher candidates. Urgent incorporation of media literacy concepts into education faculty programs is crucial, creating competencies in this domain within the curriculum (Karataş & Sözer, 2018). It is recommended to integrate media literacy into the curriculum for all grades and connect it with other subjects. The absence of media literacy in Weekly Course Schedules for various high schools highlights a crucial deficiency. To address this, media literacy should be included in the Turkish Course (Grades 1-8) Curriculum, emphasizing its importance.

Additionally, the "Media Literacy Distance In-Service Training Program" should be expanded to include all teachers and provide face-to-face training for effective implementation. Discrepancies in student enrollment in the Media Literacy course suggest potential errors, necessitating communication with the Ministry of Education for resolution. Lastly, to ensure continuous collaboration, a sustainable partnership between the Ministry of Education and RTÜK is recommended (Yavuz & Arhan, 2016). Moreover, following a comprehensive content analysis, numerous studies advocate for integrating media literacy training into education faculties and emphasize the necessity of providing in-service training for teachers. An ongoing challenge identified in these studies is the elective nature of the media literacy course, contributing to negative perceptions about its importance. Hence, key decisions must be made concerning the course's level, its optional/compulsory status, and the appropriate instructors (Aydemir & Erdamar, 2018). The establishment of interdisciplinary collaboration between the Faculties of Education and Communication represents a pivotal initiative in advancing professional digital media education. This collaborative endeavor, involving students from both faculties, holds the potential to significantly enhance the overall quality of the educational experience. Furthermore, it stands as a promising avenue for the joint development of certificate programs aimed at fostering the professional growth and development of educators within these academic domains. This strategic alliance not only augments the effectiveness of the digital media education course but also presents a synergistic opportunity for the faculties to contribute jointly to the broader landscape of teacher professional development (Bozkurt & Çoşkun, 2018).

Examining media literacy practices in Turkey, successful approaches like conscious media perception and accurate media reading have raised awareness among students. Despite teacher affirmation of the course's impact, socio-economic factors play a significant role in determining the level of this awareness. Constraints in course materials and equipment have

led to the creation of student newspapers, though only one has endured. The course, promoted by RTÜK and MEB, lacks expert input, resulting in deficiencies in materials. Standardization issues persist in choosing the course grade, and limited hours hinder active student participation. In the evolving field of communication, the media literacy course offers valuable insights for understanding, criticizing, and transforming this domain. Integrating media and literacy equips students to grasp the broader world and communication intricacies, fostering critical perspectives. Despite positive steps, current structures in Turkey make it challenging for students to develop a sufficiently critical perspective through media literacy education (Hasdemir & Demirel, 2012). The neoliberal global economy and new communication technologies provide cultural dangers, which are addressed by culture and education policy that influences media literacy education. However, it cannot be stated that Turkey has demonstrated any sensitivity or content about hate speech and crimes, which have emerged as some of the most urgent social and cultural challenges in recent years (Sarı, 2015).

4. Conclusion

Democracies represent the governance by a recognized sovereign populace, wherein popular sovereignty entails the ultimate authority in determining public affairs. In democratic republics, where individuals govern through elected representatives, various influences, including the people's input, contribute to shaping the issues under public authority (Carpenter, 2023). The variations in mass media across countries partly mirror the activities and preferences of their populations, as well as the experiences that guide citizens' reading interests. However, a more significant distinction lies in the fact that the media invariably mirrors the structure and dynamics of the social and political environment in which it operates. It particularly serves as a reflection of the system of social control that shapes the

interactions between individuals and institutions. Ultimately, the nature of a country's social structure, political system, and prevailing circumstances significantly influences the evolution of media freedom (Stojanovska-Stefanova, Atanasoski & Chachorovski, 2017). The significance of citizenship in the education of media literacy cannot be overstated. It is crucial for students to actively discuss and grapple with contentious contemporary issues, fostering resilience against manipulation, coercion, and conspiracy theories. They must hone the ability to differentiate between facts and opinions in mass media, unravel biases, challenge stereotypes, and cultivate an awareness of societal issues for constructive and democratic civic engagement. Failing to address these aspects could have severe consequences for citizens and pose a threat to the future of democracy. In the present context, a politically literate citizen must also be proficient in media literacy more than ever before (Moorse, 2022). The concept of media literacy gained public attention in Turkey, particularly in the 2000s, as concerns arose about the adverse effects of media messages on children and young individuals. In response, the Ministry of National Education initiated the introduction of an elective media literacy course, initially in pilot provinces and subsequently nationwide, aiming to address and mitigate these concerns (Özcan, 2017). However, as media literacy is a relatively new and developing field in Turkey, the existing research primarily focuses on introducing media literacy education or underscoring its significance (Tanrıverdi & Apak, 2010).

Therefore, considering the relative novelty of the concept of the right to information, it can provide an understanding based on the right to access, produce and consume information in terms of the importance of what citizens know and do not know about their right to information in Turkey. Research on this subject can shed light on the processes of access to information, production and consumption. In other words, what does the right to information

mean to citizens in Turkey? And how important is this right? In addition, there are many studies on the emergence, development and content of media literacy courses. However, it may be meaningful to examine the importance given to this course, especially in the light of democratic understanding. In other words, it may be meaningful to investigate the relationship between critical thinking and access to healthy information, which form the basis of the course, and democratic understanding. Thirdly, there are studies on the adequacy and inadequacy of policies. If follow-up studies are carried out on the status and effectiveness of the improvements made after the deficiencies are identified, a more meaningful policy map can be created and plans for new ones can be made. In addition, studies conducted through in-depth interviews with experts and authorized people on media literacy can reveal the current situation in more detail. It can also enable the creation of much clearer goals and paths in line with the steps that need to be taken. Another suggestion for future research could be to determine the needs of children during the media literacy education process and question whether each child's needs are the same. Finally, there are comparative studies on media literacy in different countries, but more of these studies would be useful both for comparison and for adapting positive examples.

Abstract:

Demokratien werden als die stärksten Verfechter bürgerlicher Freiheiten und Menschenrechte angesehen. Macht spielt eine bedeutende Rolle bei der Gestaltung sozialer Strukturen und des Wissens. Die Bewertung von Machtverhältnissen erfordert Strategien, die gesellschaftliche Normen hinterfragen und Konflikte ansprechen. Es ist auch entscheidend, lokalisierte, weitgehend akzeptierte Formen des Wissens zu entwickeln, die Minderheiten repräsentieren. Die demokratische Kultur betont den Zugang zu Informationen für eine sinnvolle Beteiligung und fördert eine Gesellschaft, in der Bürger aktiv an demokratischen Prozessen teilnehmen. Die raschen Fortschritte in der Kommunikationstechnologie haben die Verarbeitungs- und Kommunikationskapazitäten von Informationen erhöht. Die weltweite Bewegung hin zu partizipatorischer Regierungsführung zielt darauf ab, die Beteiligung junger Menschen zu stärken. Es ist jedoch wichtig, die Herausforderungen anzuerkennen, denen dieser Ansatz gegenüberstehen kann, wie beispielsweise die Zurückhaltung junger Menschen, bestehende Machtstrukturen und Kulturen zu hinterfragen. Der Zugang zu Informationen, die Rolle von Jugendlichen und Kindern bei der Wissensproduktion sowie ihr Platz in demokratischen Prozessen sind entscheidend. Das Bildungssystem spielt dabei eine wichtige Rolle, indem es als breiter Kanal für die Verbreitung spezialisierten Wissens dient. Das Ziel der Medienkompetenzerziehung besteht darin, verborgene Strukturen aufzudecken und kritische Verbraucher, aufmerksame Personen und gut informierte Bürger zu fördern. Aktuelle Forschungen deuten auf positive Ergebnisse von Medienkompetenzprogrammen hin, darunter flexible Reaktionen auf aktuelle Ereignisse und die Integration von kritischem Denken mit Verhaltensänderungen bei jungen Menschen.

Democracies are regarded as the strongest advocates of civil liberties and human rights. Power plays a significant role in shaping social structures and knowledge. Assessing power dynamics requires strategies that question societal norms and address conflicts. It's also crucial to develop localized, widely accepted forms of knowledge that represent minorities. Democratic culture emphasizes access to information for meaningful participation, fostering a society where citizens actively engage in democratic processes. Rapid advancements in communication technologies have increased information processing and communication capacities. The global movement towards participatory governance aims to enhance youth participation. However, it's essential to acknowledge the challenges this effort may face, such as young people's reluctance to question existing power structures and cultures. Access to information, the role of youth and children in knowledge production, and their place in democratic processes are crucial. The education system, in particular, plays a significant role in this regard, serving as a broad channel for the dissemination of specialized knowledge. The goal of media literacy education is to uncover hidden structures and cultivate critical consumers, observant individuals, and knowledgeable citizens. Recent research indicates positive outcomes from media literacy programs, including flexible responses to current events and integrating critical thinking with behavior change among young individuals.

References:

Akdağ, Ç. (2016). Yeni Medyada Çocuk Haberciliği: “Milliyet Çocuk”, “Hürriyet Çocuk” ve “Cicicee Çocuk Deyince” Sayfalarının İncelenmesi. [Children's Journalism in New Media: Examination of the Pages "Milliyet Çocuk," "Hürriyet Çocuk," and "Cicicee Çocuk Deyince."] Galatasaray Üniversitesi İletişim Dergisi, 155-155. 10.16878/gsuilet.283070

Albayrak, A. (2021). Çocuğa Saygılı Medya Anlayışı (Psiko-Teolojik Eleştirel Yaklaşım). [Understanding Media with Respect to the Child (Psycho-Theological Critical Approach).] Çocuk ve Medeniyet, 6(12), 173-181. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/cm/issue/67605/1051450>

Altun, A. (2008). Türkiye’de medya okuryazarlığı. [Media Literacy in Turkey.] İlköğretmen Eğitimci Dergisi, 16, 30-34.

Altun, A. (2014). MEDYA OKUR YAZARLIĞI EĞİTİMİNE YÖNELİK TÜRKÇE YAYINLAR: BİR BİBLİYOGRAFYA DENEMESİ . [MEDIA LITERACY EDUCATION IN TURKISH PUBLICATIONS: A BIBLIOGRAPHICAL ESSAY] Ordu Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Sosyal Bilimler Araştırmaları Dergisi , 4 (9) , 5-15 . Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/odusobiad/issue/27573/290150>

Aras, Z. Altınok, E. (2009). Türkiye'de bilgi edinme hakkı ve uygulama sorunları. [The Right to Information in Turkey and Implementation Problems.] Ankara Barosu Dergisi, 0(1), 107 - 111.

Arsan, E. (2011). A Research in the Context of Civic Disobedience: Censorship and Auto-censorship From the Lens of Journalists. *Cogito*, 67, 1-29.

Asker, A. (2010). Avrupa Birliği'ne Uyum Sürecinde (1999-2005) Türkiye'nin Değişen İletişim Politikaları. [IN THE PROCESS OF ADAPTATION TO THE EUROPEAN UNION (1999-2005) CHANGING COMMUNICATION POLICIES.] *Global Media Journal*, 1(1), 1-17.

Aufderheide, P. (2018). Media literacy: From a report of the national leadership conference on media literacy. In *Media Literacy Around the World* (pp. 79-86). Routledge.

Avşar, Z. (2013). MEDYA OKURYAZARLIĞI. [MEDIA LITERACY.] *İletişim ve Diplomasi*, (2), 5-17.

Aydemir, S. & Erdamar, G. (2018). Medya Okuryazarlığı Eğitimi Alanında Yapılan Çalışmaların Tematik, Metodolojik ve İstatistiksel Yönelimleri . [Thematic, Methodological, and Statistical Orientations of Studies Conducted in the Field of Media Literacy Education] *Kastamonu Eğitim Dergisi* , 26 (4) , 1155-1166 . DOI: 10.24106/kefdergi.409585

Baer, S. (2004). Citizenship in Europe and the Construction of Gender by Law in the European Charter of Fundamental Rights. In K. Knop (Ed.), *Gender and Human Rights. Collected Courses of the Academy of European Law* (pp. 1-20). Oxford Academic.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780199260911.003.0004>

Beetham, D. (2004). Towards a universal framework for democracy assessment. *Democratization*, 11(2), 1-17. DOI: 10.1080/13510340412331294182

Bessant, J. (2003). Youth participation: a new mode of government. *Policy Studies*, 24(2-3), 87-100. DOI: 10.1080/0144287032000170984

Bozkurt, F. & ořkun, D. (2018). 21. YY Okuryazarlıęı: Öğretmen Adaylarının Medya Algılarına Genel Bir Bakış . [Literacy in the 21st Century: A General Overview of Prospective Teachers' Media Perceptions.] *Erciyes İletişim Dergisi* , 5 (4) , 493-511 . DOI: 10.17680/erciyesiletisim.381046

Brown, J. (1998). Media literacy perspectives. *Journal of Communication*, 48, 44-57. DOI: 10.1111/j.1460-2466.1998.tb02736.x

Bulger, M., & Davison, P. (2018). The Promises, Challenges, and Futures of Media Literacy. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 10(1), 1-21. DOI: 10.23860/JMLE-2018-10-1-1

Çakmak, E. (2013). Çocuk Hakları ve Medya Okuryazarlığı Eğitimi [Children's Rights and Media Literacy .] *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi* , 10 (22) , 209-224 . Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/mkusbed/issue/19548/208233>

Carpenter, D. (2023). Agenda Democracy. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 26(1), 193–212. doi: 10.1146/annurev-polisci-051921-102533

Centre For Media Pluralism and Media Freedom. (2020).

Retrieved June 10, 2023, from

<https://cmpf.eui.eu/mpm-2020-interactive/>

Chen, D.-T., Wu, J., & Wang, Y.-M. (2011). Unpacking new media literacy. *Journal of Systemics, Cybernetics and Informatics*, 9(2), 84-88.

Cho, H., Cannon, J., Lopez, R., & Li, W. (2022). Social media literacy: A conceptual framework. *New Media & Society*, 0(0). DOI: 10.1177/14614448211068530

CIVICUS Monitor. (n.d.). Turkey.

Retrieved June 15, 2023, from

<https://monitor.civicus.org/country/turkey/>

Clark, M. J. (1998). GIS—democracy or delusion? *Environment and Planning A*, 30(2), 303-316.

Coppedge, M., Gerring, J., Knutsen, C. H., Krusell, J., Medzihorsky, J., Pernes, J., ... Lindberg, S. I. (2019). The Methodology of “Varieties of Democracy” (V-Dem). *Bulletin de Méthodologie Sociologique*, 143(143), 107–133. doi: 10.1177/0759106319854989

Coysh, J. (2017). *Human rights education and the politics of knowledge*. Routledge. Chapter 1, 3.

Crick, B. (2007). CITIZENSHIP: THE POLITICAL AND THE DEMOCRATIC. *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 55(3), 235-248. DOI: 10.1111/j.1467-8527.2007.00377.x

Curran, J., Iyengar, S., Brink Lund, A., & Salovaara-Moring, I. (2009). Media System, Public Knowledge and Democracy: A Comparative Study. *European Journal of Communication*, 24(1), 5–26. DOI: 10.1177/0267323108098943

Curtis, J., & Darcy, S. (2012). The right to a social and international order for the realization of human rights: Article 28 of the universal declaration and international cooperation.

Dafermos, Y. & Papatheodorou, C. (2013). What drives inequality and poverty in the EU? Exploring the impact of macroeconomic and institutional factors. *International Review of Applied Economics*, 27(1), 1-22. DOI: 10.1080/02692171.2012.696590

Data Guidance. (2021). Turkey: Provisions for the protection of children's data.

Retrieved June 10, 2023, from

<https://www.dataguidance.com/opinion/turkey-provisions-protection-childrens-data>

Dahl, R. (1982). *Dilemmas of Pluralist Democracy*. New Haven: Yale University Press, 11.

Diamond, L., & Morlino, L. (2004). The Quality of Democracy: An Overview. *Journal of Democracy*, 15(4), 20-31. DOI: 10.1353/jod.2004.0060

Denvir, C., Balmer, N. J. & Pleasence, P. (2013). When legal rights are not a reality: do individuals know their rights and how can we tell? *Journal of Social Welfare and Family Law*, 35(1), 139-160. DOI: 10.1080/09649069.2013.774764

Dierks, Z. (2022). Purposes of internet usage by children in Turkey 2021.

Retrieved June 15, 2023, from

<https://www.statista.com/statistics/1310242/turkey-children-s-reasons-to-use-the-internet/>

Elma, C., Kesten, A., Dicle, A. N., & Uzun, E. M. (2010). Türkiye’de medya okuryazarlığı eğitimi: Medyanın işleyişi ve etik ilkeler açısından bir değerlendirme. [Media Literacy Education in Turkey: An Assessment from the Perspective of Media Operations and Ethical Principles.] *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 10(3), 1409-1458.

Eroğlu, Ş., & Yılmaz, B. (2015). Perceptions of Scholars on the Internet Censorship in Turkey: A Case of the Hacettepe University Faculty of Letters. *Bilgi Dünyası*, 16(1), 75-104. DOI: 10.15612/BD.2015.478

Farthing, R. (2010). The politics of youthful antipolitics: representing the 'issue' of youth participation in politics. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 13(2), 181-195. DOI: 10.1080/13676260903233696

Fedorov, A., & Camarero Calandria, E. (2016). Curricula for media literacy education according to international experts. *European Journal of Contemporary Education*, 3(1), 324-334.

Forbrig, J. (2005). Introduction: Democratic politics, legitimacy, and youth participation. In *Revisiting youth political participation*, 7.

Frau-Meigs, Divina & Velez, Irma & Flores Michel, Julieta. (2017). Mapping media and information literacy policies. 10.4324/9781315628851-2.

Freedom House. (2022). Freedom in the World 2022 - Turkey.

Retrieved June 19, 2023, from

<https://freedomhouse.org/country/turkey/freedom-world/2022>

Gastinger, Almuth & Sturges, Paul. (2010). Information Literacy as a Human Right. *Libri*, 60, 195-202. DOI: 10.1515/libr.2010.017

Gerring, J., Thacker, S. C., & Alfaro, R. (2012). Democracy and Human Development. *The Journal of Politics*, 74(1), 1-17. DOI: 10.1017/s0022381611001113

Gillmor, D. (2009). Principles for a new media literacy. Available at SSRN 1323889.

Göksel, A. (2010). Studies on youth policies in the Mediterranean partner countries: Turkey
https://www.academia.edu/36976485/Studies_on_Youth_Policies_in_the_Mediterranean_Partner_Countries_Turkey

Graber, D. (2003). The Media and Democracy: Beyond Myths and Stereotypes. *Annual Review of Political Science*, 6, 139-160. DOI: 10.1146/annurev.polisci.6.121901.085707

Hasdemir, T. A. & Demirel, F. G. (2012). İletişim Eğitimi ve Medya Okuryazarlığı: Türkiye'deki Uygulamadan Bir Kesit. [Communication Education and Media Literacy: A Segment from Practices in Turkey.] *Akdeniz Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesi Dergisi* , (17), 176-191. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/akil/issue/48078/607883>

Hristova, I. (2006). Promoting Women's Rights: The Politics of Gender in the European Union. *Journal of International Relations and Development*, 9(2), 220–223. doi: 10.1057/palgrave.jird.1800083

İnceoğlu, Y., Sözeri, C., Erbaysal Filibeli, T. (2016). The Media Pluralism Monitor (MPM):Turkey. <https://cmpf.eui.eu/media-pluralism-monitor/mpm-2016-results/turkey/>

Information Technologies Use in Children Research. Çocuklarda Bilişim Teknolojileri Kullanım Araştırması. (2021).

Retrieved June 11, 2023, from

<https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=Cocuklarda-Bilisim-Teknolojileri-Kullanım-Arastırması-2021-41132>

İstatistiklerle Çocuk, *Child with Statistics*. TÜİK, (2020).

Retrieved June 11, 2023, from

<https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=İstatistiklerle-Cocuk-2020-37228#:~:text=T%C3%BCrkiye%20n%C3%BCfusunun%20%27%2C%27,7%27sini%20k%C4%B1z%20%C3%A7ocuklar%20olu%C5%9Fturdu.>

Kalaycıoğlu, E. (2008). Democratic Consolidation in Turkey: A Problem of Political Culture. *Türkiye'de demokrasi'nin pekişmesi: bir siyasal kültür sorunu*.

Karaduman, S. (2019). Yeni Medya Okuryazarlığı: Yeni Beceriler/Olanaklar/Riskler. [New Media Literacy: New Skills/Opportunities/Risks.] *Erciyes İletişim Dergisi*, 6(1), 683-700. DOI: 10.17680/erciyesiletisim.484193

Karaman, M. K. & Karataş, A. (2009). Öğretmen Adaylarının Medya Okuryazarlık Düzeyleri. [The Media Literacy Levels of Prospective Teachers.] *İlköğretim Online*, 8 (3), 798-808. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/ilkonline/issue/8597/106997>

Karataş, A. & Sözer, M. A. (2018). EĞİTİM FAKÜLTELERİ İÇİN “MEDYA OKURYAZARLIĞI” EĞİTİM PROGRAMI . [MEDIA LITERACY EDUCATION PROGRAM FOR FACULTIES OF EDUCATION.] *Kırıkkale Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi* , 8 (2) , 593-606 . Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/kusbd/issue/38953/441340>

Kaya, M. B. (2020). The Control of the Internet and Legal Liability Rules in the Context of Human Rights. *İNSAN HAKLARI EKSENİNDE İNTERNETİN KONTROLÜ VE HUKUKİ SORUMLULUK REJİMİ. Anayasa Yargısı* , 37(2), 159-203. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/anayasayargisi/issue/59080/850345>

Koltay, T. (2011). The Media and the Literacies: Media Literacy, Information Literacy, Digital Literacy. *Media, Culture & Society*, 33, 211-221. DOI: 10.1177/0163443710393382

Kwon, S. A. (2019). The politics of global youth participation. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 22(7), 926-940. DOI: 10.1080/13676261.2018.1559282

Lee, A., & So, C. (2014). Media literacy and information literacy: Similarities and differences. *Comunicar*, 42, 137-146. DOI: 10.3916/C42-2014-13

Liu, A. H. (2017). Democracy and minority language recognition: tyranny of the majority and the conditional effects of group size. *Democratization*, 24(3), 544-565. DOI: 10.1080/13510347.2016.1245292

Livingstone, S. (2004). Media literacy and the challenge of new information and communication technologies. *The Communication Review*, 7(1), 3-14.

Lord, K. M. & Noel, M. A. (2022). Informed Citizens: Instilling Basic Concepts in Elementary Grades. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 58(3), 100-105. DOI: 10.1080/00228958.2022.2076517

Lucarelli, S. (2014). *Gender and the European Union*. Firenze University Press., 7-8.

Maisel, R. (1973). The Decline of Mass Media. *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 37(2), 159–170. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2747488>

Mazo, E. D. (2005). What Causes Democracy. Social Science Research Network

Moorse, L. (2022). Teaching Media Literacy through Citizenship-an Urgent Priority for Schools: Chief Executive of the Association for Citizenship Teaching , Liz Moorse, outlines the key role citizenship can play in teaching media literacy skills to today's secondary school pupils. *School Librarian*, 70(1), 12.

Munck, G. L. (2016). What is democracy? A reconceptualization of the quality of democracy. *Democratization*, 23(1), 1-26. DOI: 10.1080/13510347.2014.918104

Mühlenhoff, H. (2014). Funding Democracy, Funding Social Services? The European Instrument for Democracy and Human Rights in the Context of Competing Narratives in Turkey. *Journal of Balkan and Near Eastern Studies*, 16(1), 102-118. DOI: 10.1080/19448953.2013.864186

Önal, H. İ. (2007). Medya okuryazarlığı: Kütüphanelerde yeni çalışma alanı. [Media Literacy: A New Area of Study in Libraries.] *Türk Kütüphaneciliği*, 21(3), 335-359

Özcan, A. (2017). Dijital Medya Okuryazarlığı: Sorunlar, Uygulamalar ve Beklentiler. [Digital Media Literacy: Issues, Practices, and Expectations.] *AJIT-E: Academic Journal of Information Technology*, 8(28), 55-66. <https://doi.org/10.5824/1309-1581.2017.3.004.x>

Paternotte, D. & Verloo, M. (2021). De-democratization and the Politics of Knowledge: Unpacking the Cultural Marxism Narrative. *Social Politics: International Studies in Gender, State & Society*, 28, 556-578. DOI: 10.1093/sp/jxab025

Petkanopoulou, K., Sánchez-Rodríguez, Á., Willis, G. B., Chryssochoou, X., & Rodríguez-Bailón, R. (2018). Two Countries in Crisis: Economic Inequality in the EU and Disidentification With Europe in Spain and Greece. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 49(6), 888–906. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022117751201>

Petranová, D., Hossová, M., & Velický, P. (2017). Current Development Trends of Media Literacy in European Union Countries. *Communication Today*, 8.

Plattner, M. (2012). Media and Democracy: The Long View. *Journal of Democracy*, 23(4), 62-73.

Potter, W. J. (2010). The State of Media Literacy. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 54(4), 675-696. DOI: 10.1080/08838151.2011.521462

Rasi, P., Vuojärvi, H., & Ruokamo, H. (2019). Media Literacy Education for All Ages. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 11(2), 1-19. doi: 10.23860/JMLE-2019-11-2-1

Reporters Without Borders. (2023). Türkiye. **Reporters Without Borders Index.**

Retrieved June 15, 2023, from

<https://rsf.org/en/country-t%C3%BCrkiye>

Sachs, M., & Parycek, P. (2010). Open government-information flow in Web 2.0. *Euro. J. ePractice*, 9, 1-70.

Saka, E. (2019). *Internet History in Turkey. Türkiye'de internet. Türkiye Internet Tarihi.* Istanbul: Alternatif Bilisim Dernegi, 4-71.

Sarı, E. (2015). Türkiye’de medya okuryazarlığı eğitimi ve nefret söylemi. [Media Literacy Education and Hate Speech in Turkey.]

Saunders, L. E. (1975). Collective ignorance: Public knowledge of family law. *The Family Coordinator*, 24(1), 69–74. doi: 10.2307/583053

Sayar, B. (2022). Türkiye’de Medya Okuryazarlığı Eğitimi Üzerine Bir İnceleme [A Review on Media Literacy Education in Türkiye]. *Medya Okuryazarlığı Araştırmaları Dergisi Journal of Media Literacy Studies*, 1(1), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.5281/zenodo.7300423>

Saward, M. (2006). Democracy and Citizenship: Expanding Domains. DOI: 10.1093/oxfordhb/9780199548439.003.0022

Schäfer, A. (2012). Consequences of social inequality for democracy in Western Europe. *Z Vgl Polit Wiss*, 6 (Suppl 2), 23–45. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12286-010-0086-6>

Schmidt, H.C. (2012). Media Literacy Education at the University Level. *The Journal of Effective Teaching*, 12, 64-77.

Şerban, M. (2018). Regime Change and Property Rights Consciousness in Postcommunist Romania. *Law & Social Inquiry*, 43(3), 732-763. doi: 10.1111/lsi.12286

Şirin, M. R. (2018). Çocuk Hakları ve Medya Üzerine. [On Children's Rights and Media.] *Çocuk ve Medeniyet*, 3 (5), 5-10. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/pub/cm/issue/57211/807875>

Snider, J. H. (1994). Democracy on-line. *The Futurist*, 28(5), 15.

Statista Research Department. (2023). Share of households with internet access in Turkey from 2012 to 2022.

Retrieved June 20, 2023,

[https://www.statista.com/statistics/702247/household-internet-access-in-turkey/#:~:text=In%202020%2C%2091%20percent%20of,EU%2D27\)%20in%202020%20in%202020](https://www.statista.com/statistics/702247/household-internet-access-in-turkey/#:~:text=In%202020%2C%2091%20percent%20of,EU%2D27)%20in%202020%20in%202020)

Stiglitz, J. (1999). On liberty, the right to know, and public discourse: The role of transparency in public life. *Oxford Amnesty Lecture*.

Stoddart, M. C. J. (2007). Ideology, hegemony, discourse: A critical review of theories of knowledge and power. *Social Thought & Research*, 28, 191–225.

Stojanovska-Stefanova, A., Atanasoski, D. & Chachorovski, Z. (2017). DEMOCRACY AND MEDIA TYPES OF THEORIES FOR MEANS OF MASS COMMUNICATION. *Mei Zhong Fa Lü Ping Lun*, 14(6), 363–376. doi: 10.17265/1548-6605/2017.06.003

Tanrıverdi, B., & Apak, Ö. (2010). Türkiye, Finlandiya ve İrlanda ilköğretim programlarının medya okur-yazarlığı eğitimi açısından karşılaştırılması. [A Comparison of Media Literacy Education in Primary School Programs in Turkey, Finland, and Ireland.] *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Bilimleri*, 10 (2), 1153-1213.

Torres-Cuello, M. A., & Pinzon-Salcedo, L. A. (2022). A Look at Power Issues in Collaborative Program Evaluations Under Michel Foucault's Conception of Power-Knowledge. *American Journal of Evaluation*, 0(0). DOI: 10.1177/10982140211060311

Turkish Ministry of National Education, Board of Education and Discipline. (2006). Elementary School Media Literacy Course Curriculum and Guide. Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Millî

Eğitim Bakanlığı Talim ve Terbiye Kurulu. (2006). İlköğretim Medya Okuryazarlığı Dersi Öğretim Programı ve Kılavuzu. (pp. 13-14). Ankara.

Retrieved February 8, 2024, from

<https://www.medyakuryazarligi.gov.tr/userfiles/files/program.pdf>

Uluç, A. V. (2013). Relationship Between Civil Society and Democracy in Turkey. *Türkiye'de sivil toplum ve demokrasi ilişkisi. CÜ İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Dergisi*, 14(1), 399-418.

UNDP Human Development Index (2022).

Retrieved June 29, 2023, from

<https://hdr.undp.org/data-center/human-development-index#/indicies/HDI>

United Nations Population Fund. (n.d.). Türkiye - Gender Equality. World Economic Forum Global Gender Gap Report 2020.

Retrieved July 2, 2023, from

<https://turkiye.unfpa.org/en/gender-equality>

UNDP. (n.d.). Gender Inequality Index (GII). (2020)

Retrieved July 2, 2023, from

<https://www.undp.org/sites/g/files/zskgke326/files/migration/tr/UNDP-TR-BRIEFING-NOTE-TURKEY-EN.pdf>

Uysal, C. (2001). HISTORICAL EVOLUTION of TURKEY–EUROPEAN UNION RELATIONS and RECENT DEVELOPMENTS. *TÜRKİYE – AVRUPA BİRLİĞİ İLİŞKİLERİNİN TARİHSEL SÜRECİ ve SON GELİŞMELER*. *Akdeniz İİBF Dergisi*, 1(1), 140-153. Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/auibfd/issue/54587/744090>

Velez, G. M. (2019). Building Human Rights Consciousness in Postconflict Societies: Peruvian Adolescents' Understandings of Human Rights. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 34(4), 438–463. doi: 10.1177/0743558417722519

Vickers, B. (1992). Francis Bacon and the Progress of Knowledge. *Journal of the History of Ideas*, 53(3), 495–518. DOI: 10.2307/2709891

Warren, M. E. (2009). Citizen Participation and Democratic Deficits: Considerations from the Perspective of Democratic Theory. In *Activating the Citizen*. Palgrave Macmillan, London. DOI: 10.1057/9780230240902_2

Webster, F. (1999). Knowledgeability and democracy in an information age. *Library Review*, 48(8), 373-383. DOI: 10.1108/00242539910288764

Wheatley, S. (2003). Deliberative Democracy and Minorities. *European Journal of International Law*, 14(3), 507–527. DOI: 10.1093/ejil/14.3.507

World Economic Forum. (2022). Global Gender Gap Report.

Retrieved July 3, 2023, from

https://www3.weforum.org/docs/WEF_GGGR_2022.pdf

World Bank Gender Data Portal. (2022). Turkey.

Retrieved July 3, 2023, from

<https://genderdata.worldbank.org/countries/turkiye/>

World Inequality Database. (n.d.).

Retrieved July 5, 2023, from

<https://wid.world/country/turkey/>

Yavuz, İ. & Arhan, S. (2016). Medya Okuryazarlığı Dersine Yönelik Millî Eğitim Bakanlığı Politikaları . [Ministry of National Education Policies Regarding Media Literacy Courses.] Çocuk ve Medeniyet , 1 (2) , 95-110 . Retrieved from <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/pub/cm/issue/57207/807852>

Zhang, Lei & Zhang, Hui & Wang, Kai. (2020). Media Literacy Education and Curriculum Integration: A Literature Review. *International Journal of Contemporary Education*, 3, 55. DOI: 10.11114/ijce.v3i1.4769