M. A. Akşit Koleksiyonundan

1

Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü ve Göçler

Hight Technology Culture and migration*

*M Arif AKŞİT***

***Globalleşen Evrendeki zorunlu göç boyutu**
**** Prof. Dr. Çocuk Sağlığı ve Hastalıkları, Neonatoloji Bilim Dalı, Pediatri Genetik**

Göçlerde çeken ve iten taraflar irdelenir. Neden göçmek istenir, neden kaçınırız? Eğitim kanımca, yaşam, varlığın devamlılığından sonra gelmektedir. Bu Makalede eğitim boyutu ile göçün anlamı irdelenecektir.

Yazar olarak Yüksek Teknoloji Kültüründe doktorluk varken, Yurtdışı imkanları eğitim sırasında oluşmuş iken, niye Ülkemizde hekim olarak çalıştığım boyutu da gündeme gelmektedir.

Kültürel yapılarda eğitim bir öğe olarak önemli yer tutar. Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü[1] ise eğitim ile yüksek, akademik düzeyini sağlaması ile öne çıkmaktadır.

Sevgi olmayan bir yerde işimiz olmaz. Eğitimde de bilgi ve becerinin bütünleşmesi gereklidir. Bir ülkede tıbbi gelişim tamamlanmış ama hasta yok ise, uğraşı olanınız olmayacaktır. Hekimlik yapmak isteyen kişi uygulama yapabilmek için, hastanın olduğu yere, faydalı olma oranı yüksek, yararlı olacağı yere gider.

Özet

Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü ve Göçler

Amaç: Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü, sahip olduğu teknolojik ve sosyal avantaj ile, tüm Evrenin kendisinden faydalanması, eğitim alması ile aynı yapıda, aynı şeyleri benimsemesini ister. Olmazsa kendi uyduları ile hâkimiyeti kurmak ister. Sağlık gereksinimleri diğer bölgelerde yüksektir, ama globalleşenler, göç almayı ve vermeyi bir doğal beklenti içinde olurlar.

Dayanaklar/Kaynaklar: Kaynaklardan beyin göçü, öğrenci değişim programı ve göçü, kültürel etkileşimler ile ikinci dil bir farklı kişi ve varlık olması boyutu ile Teknolojik Kültürün etkileşimi irdelenmektedir.

Giriş: Bir insanın ana dili ötesinde, gerek eğitim için öğrendiği lisan, onu farklı bir kişi yapmaktadır. Tercüme değil, ikinci dili benimsemesi ve kullanması ile etkin olabilmektedir.

Genel Yaklaşım; Her insan, ayrı bir kişiliği, ayrı bir durumu ve gittiği yerde de kendisini belirlemesi ile bir bakıma göç etmekte, etkileşim kurmaktadır. Ancak, Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü, bireyleri kendi yapısı altında olmasını istemektedir.
Başlıca boyutlar: Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü temelinde bakınca, tüm teknolojide kullanılan, kendi toplumu içinde etkin olan kişilerin bir zamanlar göçmen olarak %40 üstünde bulunması ile gücünü sürdürebilmektedir. Bu açıdan eğitim göçü alması, varlığın devamlılığı için önemlidir.
Yaklaşım: Globalleşen Evrende, teknolojinin sürdürülmesi için devamlı insan kaynağına gereksinim vardır, bunlarda eğitim ile göç yolu ile elde ederek, sağlandığı görülmektedir.
Sonuç ve Yorum: Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü, eğitim ile tüm Dünya halkını kendine bağlama ve göçün kendisine olmasını sağlamaktadır.
Anahtar Kelimeler: Yüksek teknoloji Kültürü ve Eğitim göçü

Outline
Hight Technology Culture and Migration

AIM: Hight Technology Culture, for their own social, economic and other superiority, having for advantages, attracts people. The Universe, being taken advanced education form them. Even, if not by making satellites, as being on same direction. Therefore, educational migration is very important for his Cultural structure.
Grounding Aspects: The references, on Brain Drain, student exchange programs, and even migration of them, cultural influences, and the second foreign language facilities, all considered the High Technology Culture influences.
General Considerations: Second language con confirm them a second person, not translation, using and acting as their native country member. Hight Technology Culture demanding to follow their aspects.
Proceeding: The emigrant of professional person in Hight Technology Culture is about 40%, so their forceful act be going on for future. Educational migration therefore important and essential for them.
Notions and Conclusion: At Globalization, Technology must be in advanced, so, new source's s required, by educational reasoning migration is beneficial factor. By such method, combination and guiding he educated person to them.
Key Words: The High Technology Culture and education migration

Giriş

Zamanımızda Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü içinde, bu yöntemle, alet kullanmak zorunluluktur. Bu açıdan onu kullanmasını bilmek gerekir. Kullanım kılavuzları buna göre yazılmaktadır.

Burada kullanmasını bilmek derken, ekonomik ve yararlı boyutta olması kastedilmektedir.

Ucuz malı alacak kadar zengin değilim sözü İngiliz Atasözü denir, ama Sakıp Sabancı'nın sık söylediği de bilinir. Aynı sözü ben de sık kullanırım, kaliteli mal alabilmek için gerekçemdir. En iyi ürün işimize yarayan ötesi olmalı, mutlu etmeli ve kullanıcı olarak bana gurur vermelidir. Ona sahip olmak önemlidir. Etkin, verimli, bulunabilir ve işe yararlı olmalıdır.

Örnek olarak eskiden üretilen örneğin Şahin, ucuz denilirdi. Kullanım hesabını siz yapın. 90Km hızla sürüşte 100 kilometrede 20-25 litre yakıyor, şimdiki 4,8 litre yakıyor. Eskisi 54 Beygir Gücüne, şimdiki ise 160 Beygir. 124 Yokuşlarda tıkanırken, yeni modellere sorun yaşamıyor, doğrudan aynı hızla çıkıyor. Ayrıca artık hızlar 90 değil, 110 Km/saat oldu, otoban hariç. Bitmedi; bakım harcamaları eklenmeli: her 2,500 Km'de yağ, filtre ve diğer şeyler değişiyor, bijon da 5,000km değişmeli idi. Şimdi 10-30 bin Km ancak gerekiyor. Kısaca kullanım masrafı ile 5 kat fazla para ödeniyordu.

Sorun bu değil, gaza basınca gidiyor, eskisi gidemiyordu. Otomatik olduğu için 9 vitesi kendisi atıyor, fark edilmiyor. İşte burada Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü deveye giriyor. Motor devri ve diğer indikatörlere bakınca, kısaca teknolojinin anlamına bakınca, aynı arabanın, 100km'de 3 litre daha az yaktığımı fark ettim. Kendi kurulan hızda devamlı gidebiliyor, motor zorlanmıyor. Bunların yanında lastik yıpranması ve balatalarda frene gerek olmadığı için 3-5 kat daha az aşınıyor.

Honda firmasına gidip, emekli maaşı ile bir araba alacaktım. Satıcı elinde olanı gösterdi, Hocam siz zaten incelemişsinizdir, biz size fikir ötesi, sizden fikir alalım ve karşılıklı değerlendirme yapalım dedi. Bir saat civarında karşılıklı konuştuk. Son olarak bazı verileri kullandıktan sonra doğrulayabilirim dedim. Yokuşta gerçekten yakışı fazla artmıyor mu diye sordum, gerçekten olduğunu gördüm, onlara da bildirdim.

Bunlar özel hızlı sürüş teknikleri ve ekonomik kullanma kurslarında öğrenilebilir ama gerçekte önemli olan uygulamaktır. İsteyerek, bilerek, bilinçli olarak, severek yapmaktır. "*Dikkat polis arabası var*." Fark etmez, ben zaten dikkatli, özenli ve uyumlu kullanıyorum. Durdurması genel yoklama içindir ve selamlaşma bahanesi olur derim.

Kültürel Bakış

Klasik Kültürel yaklaşım, sonuna kadar savunacak, kültürünü devam ettireceksin olur. Ama Türk uygulaması, yok olmamak için, kaçıp, tekrar gelip, çevirip yok etmektir.
Alparslan 250 bin kişilik Bizans ordusuna karşın, 135 bin civarında asker ile karşı çıkacak, daha ziyade oyalayacakmış. Anadolu'ya gönderdiği komutanlar gelmiş, Anadolu'da Denizli Honaz kalesini almışlar ve Anadolu Romalı etkinliği yok, boş demişler. Eğer burada bu gücü yenersek, Anadolu bize açılır demişler. Bunun üzerine ordu hızlı olması için, yaşlıları yedek bırakmış, gençler ile taarruz edip, sonra çevirme harekâtı ile, geri çevirip, yok etmiş.

Tek tür değil farklı yapılar olduğu kaçırılmamalıdır. Orta Asya yapısında üç farklı kültürel yapıdadırlar.
1)-Şehirlerde oturanlar, eğitim ve hizmet üretenle.
2)-Dağda ve ormanlarda izole yaşayan Türk Kavimleri
3)-Steplerde kabile olarak dolaşan, geri çekilen, hücum eden Türkler.

Askerlikte bize öğretilen, düşman, geride makineli koyar, kaçanları vurur. Bizde de komutan ileri çıkar, daha ileri gitmesin, top mermilerine hedef olmasın denilir.
Burada söylenilmesinin nedeni, eğer geri çekilirseniz, telim olmak istemeyen asker ile taktik olan farklı düşünür, geri çekilince birçok ordu dağılır, mağlup olduk diyerek, silah bırakır, teslim olur veya kaçar.
Terör olaylarında da Yedek Subaylar teslim olmamış, gerekçesi, teslim olunursa, toplum dışlar, ölürsem tazminat verilir, aile bakarlar demektedirler. Bizim ordu yaklaşımında mutlaka konur ve geri çekilme taktik olarak vardır, bozgun gözlenmez. Kültürel imajdır.

Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü Öğelerine Bakış[1]

B. Güvenç'ten alınan Sosyal Antropoloji dersleri ve eserleri ile Kültürlere başlıca gruplandırılmaları, bazı öğelerin bir arada olmasından kaynaklanmaktadır. Öğeler birbirleri iç, içe geçmiş olacağı için, temel alınan Teknolojik Boyut olmaktadır. Bu açıdan saf değil, her bireye göre değişim gösteren kültürel boyut olacağı algılanmalıdır.

Kültürel Gruplandırma:

Göçebe Kültürü: Temel olarak avcılık üzerine olan, Orta Asya'da kabileler olarak irdelenmektedir. Aile/Klana/Kabile temelinde oluşan gruba liderler karar verir. Birey buna uymalı, kahraman olarak yetişmelidir. Kaynakları, kendi kabileyi yücelticidir, eğitim de buna dayalı, görevi yeterince etkin yapabilmeyi öğrenmelidir. Sağlıklı olmayan elenir ve çevre kirlenirse de yer değiştirilir.

Tarım Kültürü: Temel belirli doğa ve yaratılış prensiplerine göre olan tarım gibi, her toplumda da belirli işi, belirli şekilde yapma kuralı içinde yetişmek önemlidir. Kural, kalıp içinde, eğitimde bunları öğrenmek üzeredir. Emir eri gibi yetiştirilmelidir. Zaman geri gelmez, kaçırılmamalıdır. Lider kurallardır.

Endüstri Kültürü: Temel etkili olan sermayedar ve buna göre görevi yapanlar uymalıdır. Kural, örf, adet ve gelenek değil, düzenlemeler, çalışma ve diğer usullerdir. Evren sadece o fabrika bünyesinde kalmaktadır.

Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü: Temel olan globalleşmek, sanayinin küçük değil, tüm Evreni kaplayandır. Burada kimlik ulus değil, ekonomik sistem olmaktadır. Bütünlük gereklidir.

Birey Hakkı Kültürü: Temel birey hakkı esastır, bu hak tüm kamu, kurum ve kuruluşlardan korunmalı ve gözetilmelidir. Düzenlemelere uymamak bir suç kapsamında olamaz.

Karma Kültür: Temel bakış, kültürler farklı olunca, özellikle birey hakkı yapılanması, 2006 yılı Avrupa Konseyinde karar olması ile, düzen, sanki Birey Hakkı yapısı gibi diğerleri içine konulmuştur. Etik Kurullarda, Komisyonlarda, Meclislerde karar alıyorlar ama onların hukukta, mahkemelerde geçerliliği olmamaktadır.

Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü Öğeleri

Aile: Temel aile kavramı bireye dönmüş, kurumun ferdi geçerlidir. Yakasına taktığı amblem ile artık ben bunun görüşündeyim demektedir. Politika, takımlar bu şekilde fanatik boyuta çıkmıştır. Onlar ne yaparsa doğrusunu yapar denilmektedir. Kişi kendi kişiliğini kaybedip, bir gurubun eri olması en tehlikeli boyuttur. Rozet ben o gruptayım, kaçının demek olmuştur.

Kaynaklar: Temel kaynak, belirli kesimi desteklemek için, basın ve yayın fonlanır, doğrudan desteklenir ve konu farklı açıdan ele alınır. Enflasyon konusu abartılır, yapılan önlemler belirtilmez. Zengin mahalle pazarı ücretleri ile enflasyon oranı belirtilir. Önemli olan inanılması değil, yayın ile literatüre girmektir. Kendi görüşleri fonlanır, servis edilir.

Çevre: Temel olarak etkinlik halkası kurulur ve bu halka korunmalıdır. Çevreler kendi aralarında destek ve korunma, savunma yaparlar. Bunlar sıklıkla politik güç olarak oluşurlar.

Yönetim; Devlet, Din, Hukuk: Temel yönetime gelmektir, ama dikta ve halk boyutuna yanaşamadıkları için temelde sabit %20 oy ve yayılması ile %40 oy ile yönetimde olmaz ama etkinlik muhalefette olur. Yaptıkları her seferinde hukuk olarak bozulacaktır. Din parametreleri de bazı yorumlar ile kendi tarafına çeker, çekemez ise karşı çıkar. Hukuk der ama esas birey hakkını gözetmeyen, bozan kendileri olur.

İnsan: Temel insan üzere olacağı belirgindir. Bu açıdan beyin yıkamak ile insanlar fikir ve düşünce ile bir kalıbın elemanı, savunucusu olmalıdır. Celal Bayar *İnönü benim en yakın arkadaşımdır* demiştir. *Dedikleri doğrudur ama bakış açısı devletçilik, benimki ise halk, vakıf boyutudur* olarak ifade edilmiştir. Bunu bozar, bizden ve sizden kavgası yaratıp, adeta düşman yaratırlar.

Sağlık: Temel olan işi yapacak olanların etkinliğidir, onların sağlığı önemlidir. Diğerlerine bakılmaz, hastalık, salgınlar bir bakıma onların ortadan kaldırılma yoludur. Para ödemelidirler, ücretsiz olsun diye Amerika'da çıkan kanun iptal edilmiştir.

Teknoloji: Temel olan güç, sermaye, insan, toplum, sosyal yapı denilir. Buna karşı çıkan birey hakkı der ve mücadelenin temel konusu da budur. İşimize yarayan, yaramayan birey ile, zarar ve zulüm yapmıyorsa, bırakın kendi kimliği kişilikte olsun diyen yapıdır. Yüksek Teknoloji kendi görüşünün hâkim olması ve bireylerin bu yolda olmasını ister, kendileri için doğru olan, tüm diğerleri içinde kabul edilmelidir.

Politik Görüşler: Toplumda 5 farklı görüş olduğu ve her birinin oranının da %20 olduğu söylenebilir. 1) İktidar, 2) İktidar yanlısı, 3) Muhalefet, 4) Muhalefet yanlısı ve 5) Kararsız, bir grupta olmayanlar.
Taraftarlar bu oranlarda %3-5 oynama yapabilirler. Ancak iktidar olmak için, tarafsız olanlardan oy alınmaz ise iktidar %50 oy ile alamazlar. Bunun için katılım %70 altında olursa, kararsızlar katılmayacağı için, %40 bile ekseriyet alamaya yeterli olur. Azınlık iktidar olmak için bu yöntemi kullanır, zaten bürokrasi vardır, kimse karar veremeyecek, hukuk ve mahkemeler olaya etki edeceği için, katılmayabilirsiniz denilebilir. Bu şekilde nisbi oran yükselebilir.

Referans İncelemesi

Kaynaklardan İngilizce olarak doğrudan verilecektir. Bu şekilde bilgi kırpması olmadan isteyen okuyabilir.
Eğitim amaçlı göçler aşağıda irdelenmektedir.

Beyin Göçü

Human capital flight (Brain Drain), Wikipedia[2]

Human capital flight is the emigration or immigration of individuals who have received advanced training at home. The net benefits of human capital flight for the receiving country are sometimes referred to as a "**brain gain**" whereas the net costs for the sending country are sometimes referred to as a "**brain drain**".[1] A current example of brain drain is professors and students leaving states like Florida and Texas for less conservative states. In occupations with a surplus of graduates, immigration of foreign-trained professionals can aggravate the underemployment of domestic graduates,[2] whereas emigration from an area with a surplus of trained people leads to better opportunities for those remaining. But emigration may cause problems for the home country if the trained people are in short supply there.
Research shows that there are significant economic benefits of human capital flight for the migrants themselves and for the receiving country.[3][4][5][6][7] The impact on the country of origin is less straightforward, with research suggesting the impact can be positive,[8][9][10][11][12][13][14][15] negative[16][17][18][19][20] or mixed.[21][22][23] Research also suggests that emigration, remittances and return migration can have a positive impact on democratization and on the quality of political institutions in the country of origin.[24][25][26][27][28][29][30][31][32][*excessive citations*]
Types
There are several types of human capital flight:

- **Organizational:** The flight of talented, creative and highly qualified employees from large corporations that occurs when employees perceive the direction and leadership of the company to be regressive, unstable or stagnant, and thus unable to satisfy their personal and professional ambitions.
- **Geographical:** The flight of highly trained individuals and college graduates from their area of residence.
- **Industrial:** The movement of traditionally skilled workers from one sector of an industry to another.

As with other human migration, the social environment is often considered to be a key reason for this population shift. In *source* countries, lack of opportunities, political instability or oppression, economic depression, health risks and more (*push* factors)[33] contribute to human capital flight, whereas *host* countries usually offer rich opportunities, political stability and freedom, a developed economy and better living conditions (*pull* factors)[33] that attract talent. At the individual level, family influences (relatives living overseas, for example), as well as personal preferences, career ambitions and other motivating factors, can be considered.

Origins and uses

The term "brain drain" was coined by the Royal Society to describe the emigration of "scientists and technologists" to North America from post-war Europe.[34] Another source indicates that this term was first used in the United Kingdom to describe the influx of Indian scientists and engineers.[35] Although the term originally referred to technology workers leaving a nation, the meaning has broadened into "the departure of educated or professional people from one country, economic sector, or field for another, usually for better pay or living conditions".[36]

Brain drain is a phenomenon where, relative to the remaining population, a substantial number of more educated (numerate, literate) persons emigrate.[37]

Given that the term "brain drain", as frequently used, implies that skilled emigration is bad for the country of origin, some scholars recommend against using the term in favor of more neutral and scientific alternative terms.[38][39]

Yorum

Başlıca 3 değişik tipte beyin göçü olduğu belirtilmektedir.

Organize olarak: Türkiye muasır medeniyet ötesinde eğitilmeleri ifadesi ile her türlü Ülke dışındaki bir yerde eğitime gidebilecekleri imkânı desteklemiştir. Halk tam tersi yaklaşımında olsa bile Devlet yönetimi ancak kısa dönemde engelleyici olmuştur ama gitmeyi yasaklamamış, kısaca kaldırmamıştır.

Yerleşim yeri olarak: Eğitim temel olarak yaşanılan yere yakın olması planlanır. Ama Üniversite eğitiminin bilgi yanında görgü ve beceri açısından da ileri olması için başka yerler öneri olmalıdır.

Hiçbir zaman zorlama olamaz, yapamayan veya sevmeyen zorla eğitim yapılamaz.

İş ve çalışma imkânı olarak: Hekimlik mesleğinde, temel eğitim boyutu hastaların olduğu yer olmalıdır. Bu açıdan kaynağa gidip bakılmalıdır.

İngiltere'de, Guy's Üniversite Hastanesinde haftada bir gün Genel Cerrahi Polikliniği yapılmakta idi. Günde 8 adet civarında hasta geliyordu. Sorunlar ileri derecede olmadığını fark ettim. Bazı sorunlu hastaları intörnler almak istemiyordu, ben alıyordum. Safra taşı olan, rektal kanseri olan gibi vakaları çekinme, daha ziyade ne yapacaklarını korktukları için adeta kaçıyorlardı. Ameliyata girmem ve onların hekimi olmam gibi birçok boyut içinde oldum. Hatta bir Türk Milletvekili tiroit ameliyatı olmuştu, Otelde, sanki ben yapmışım gibi söylenince itiraz ettim.

Bu açıdan olgu, işlem ve birçok açıdan Hacettepe olduğu için Tıp Diploması ötesinde, uzmanlık için burada asistan oldum. Pediatride uzman ve akademik yükselme sağladım. Babam cerrah olmamı istedi, kendisi Dahiliyeci idi, aynı hastalar ile uğraşıyorsun diye eklerdi, ben de cerrahide saatlerce ameliyatta oluyor ama hasta ile iletişimin olmuyor, sınırlı kalıyor dedim. Ayrıca, sizi tanrı gibi görmeleri de kabul edilebilir olmamalı demiştim. Çocukta ise stajyerken bile yardım ediyor, seviyor ve etkin olmuyordu. Bu nedenle sevdiğimi seçtim.

Bebekleri besliyor, seviyor, altını değiştiriyorsunuz, tıkanıklık açılıyor, bebek rahatlaması beni çekmiştir.

Impact

The positive effects of human capital flight are sometimes referred to as "brain gain" whereas the negative effects are sometimes referred to as "brain drain". According to economist Michael Clemens, it has not been shown that restrictions on high-skill emigration reduce shortages in the countries of origin.[40] According to development economist Justin Sandefur, "there is no study out there... showing any empirical evidence that migration restrictions have contributed to development."[41] Hein de Haas, Professor of Sociology at the University of Amsterdam, describes the brain drain as a "myth",[42][43] whilst political philosopher Adam James Tebble argues that more open borders aid both the economic and institutional development of poorer migrant sending countries, contrary to proponents of "brain-drain" critiques of migration.[44][45] However, according to University of Louvain (UCLouvain) economist Frederic Docquier, human capital flight has an adverse impact on most developing countries, even if it can be beneficial for some developing countries.[46] Whether a country experiences a "brain gain" or "brain drain" depends on factors such as composition of migration, level of development, and demographic aspects including its population size, language and geographic location.[46]

Economic effects

Some research suggests that migration (both low- and high-skilled) is beneficial both to the receiving and exporting countries,[3][4][6][47] while other research suggests detrimental impact on the country of origin.[11][17] According to one study, welfare increases in both types of countries: "welfare impact of observed levels of migration is substantial, at about 5% to 10% for the main receiving countries and about 10% in countries with large incoming remittances".[3] According to economists Michael Clemens and Lant Pratchett, "permitting people to move from low-productivity places to high-productivity places appears to be by far the most efficient generalized policy tool, at the margin, for poverty reduction".[48] A successful two-year in situ anti-poverty program, for instance, helps poor people make in a year what is the equivalent of working one day in the developed world.[48] Research on a migration lottery that allowed Tongans to move to New Zealand found that the lottery winners saw a 263% increase in income from migrating (after only one year in New Zealand) relative to the unsuccessful lottery entrants.[49] A 2017 study of Mexican immigrant households in the United States found that by virtue of moving to the United States, the households increase their incomes more than fivefold immediately.[50] The study also found that the "average gains accruing to migrants surpass those of even the most successful current programs of economic development."[50]

Remittances increase living standards in the country of origin. Remittances are a large share of GDP in many developing countries,[51][52] and have been shown to increase the wellbeing of receiving families.[53] In the case of Haiti, the 670,000 adult Haitians living in the OECD sent home about $1,700 per migrant per year, well over double Haiti's $670 per capita GDP.[41] A study on remittances to Mexico found that remittances lead to a substantial increase in the availability of public services in Mexico, surpassing government spending in some localities.[54] A 2017 study found that remittances can significantly alleviate poverty after natural disasters.[55] Research shows that more educated and higher earning emigrants remit more.[56] Some research shows that the remittance effect is not strong enough to make the remaining natives in countries with high emigration flows better off.[3] A 2016 NBER paper suggests that emigration from Italy in the wake of the 2008 global financial crisis reduced political change in Italy.[57]

Return migration can also be a boost to the economy of developing states, as the migrants bring back newly acquired skills, savings and assets.[58] A study of Yugoslav refugees during the Yugoslav Wars of the early 1990s found that citizens of former Yugoslavia who were allowed temporary stays in Germany brought back skills, knowledge and technologies to their home countries when they returned home in 1995 (after the Dayton accords), leading to greater productivity and export performance.[59]

Studies show that the elimination of barriers to migration would have profound effects on world GDP, with estimates of gains ranging between 67 and 147.3%.[60][61][62] Research also finds that migration leads to greater trade in goods and services between the sending and receiving countries.[63][64][65] Using 130 years of data on historical migrations to the United States, one study finds "that a doubling of the number of residents with ancestry from a given foreign country relative to the mean increases by 4.2 percentage points the probability that at least one local firm invests in that country, and increases by 31% the number of employees at domestic recipients of

FDI from that country. The size of these effects increases with the ethnic diversity of the local population, the geographic distance to the origin country, and the ethno-linguistic fractionalization of the origin country."[66] Emigrants have been found to significantly boost Foreign direct investment (FDI) back to their country of origin.[67][68][69] According to one review study, the overall evidence shows that emigration helps developing countries integrate into the global economy.[70]

A 2016 study reviewing the literature on migration and economic growth shows that "migrants contribute to the integration of their country into the world market, which can be particularly important for economic growth in developing countries."[71] Some research suggests that emigration causes an increase in the wages of those who remain in the country of origin. A 2014 survey of the existing literature on emigration finds that a 10 percent emigrant supply shock would increase wages in the sending country by 2–5.5%.[72] A study of emigration from Poland shows that it led to a slight increase in wages for high- and medium-skilled workers for remaining Poles.[73] A 2013 study finds that emigration from Eastern Europe after the 2004 EU enlargement increased the wages of remaining young workers in the country of origin by 6%, while it had no effect on the wages of old workers.[74] The wages of Lithuanian men increased as a result of post-EU enlargement emigration.[75] Return migration is associated with greater household firm revenues.[76] A study from the IMF concluded that emigration of high skilled labour from Eastern Europe has adversely affected economic and productivity growth in Eastern Europe and slowed down convergence in per capita income between high and low income EU countries.[77]

A 2019 study in the *Journal of Political Economy* found that Swedish emigration to the United States during the late 19th and early 20th century strengthened the labour movement and increased left-wing politics and voting trends.[78] The authors argue that the ability to emigrate strengthened the bargaining position of labour, as well as provided exit options for political dissidents who might have been oppressed.[78]

Yorum

Bir uygulamanın ekonomik açıdan öne alınır ifadesi kanımca eksiktir. Sevgi temelinde insanlık, bağımsızlık ve ifade edebilme öncelikli olmalıdır.

Yaşam için elbet gelir önemlidir ama her şey olmadığı gibi bireyselliğe katkı ile anlaşılır olur. Amerika'da uzmanların %40 üzeri yabancı olması, eğitim için gelip kalması, onların ülkeleri ile iletişim kesilmesi değil, oraya da katkıda bulunmaları ve kendi ülkelerine fazla ilerleme sağlamayacakları içindir.

Göçler toplumda çatışma değil, birlikteliğin, kardeşliğin derinleşmesine de neden olabilmektedir.

Bir başka açı olarak, Amerika'da %30 işsiz, %10 sokakta yatan ve yarısı sağlık koruması altında değilse, o zaman dışardan eğitilmiş eleman almaları veya kendileri eğitip, orada kalmalarını sağlaması medeniyetin devamlılığı ve arzı açısından önemlidir.

Çin'de Kültür Devrimi sırasında gelenleri, ülkeleri orada kalın, daha çok öğrenci alın ve bize bilgi transferi sağlayın diyerek, bir bakıma kabul etmemiştir.

Education and innovation

Research finds that emigration and low migration barriers has net positive effects on human capital formation and innovation in the sending countries.[10][11][12][13][14][79] This means that there is a "brain gain" instead of a "brain drain" to emigration. One study finds that sending countries benefit indirectly in the long-run on the emigration of skilled workers because those skilled workers are able to innovate more in developed countries, which the sending countries are able to benefit on as a positive externality.[80] Greater emigration of skilled workers consequently leads to greater economic growth and welfare improvements in the long-run.[80] According to economist Michael Clemens, it has not been shown that restrictions on high-skill emigration reduce shortages in the countries of origin.[40]

A 2021 study found that migration opportunities for Filipino nurses led to a net increase in human capital in the Philippines, thus contradicting the "brain drain" thesis.[9] A 2017 paper found that the emigration opportunities to the United States for high-skilled Indians provided by the H-1B visa program surprisingly contributed to the growth of the Indian IT sector.[6][81] A greater number of Indians were induced to enroll in computer science programs in order to move to the United States; however, a large number of these Indians never moved to the

United States (due to caps in the H-1B program) or returned to India after the completion of their visas.[6][81] One 2011 study finds that emigration has mixed effects on innovation in the sending country, boosting the number of important innovations but reducing the number of average inventions.[82] A 2019 paper found that emigration from Fiji led to a net increase in skill stocks in Fiji, as citizens increased their education attainment.[83] A 2019 analysis found that emigration of youths from Italy led to a reduction in innovation.[84]

Yorum

Tarihsel boyut olarak her ülkenin eğitim ve buluşlara katılması konusunda farklı yapıları olmuştur.
Türkler için sadece hekim olmak değil, uzmanlık ve üst uzmanlık beklentisi hakimdir.
Avrupa'da Türkler işçi gibi algılanırken, Amerika'da üst uzmanlıkta oldukları varsayılmaktadır.

Democracy, human rights and liberal values

Research also suggests that emigration, remittances and return migration can have a positive impact on political institutions and democratization in the country of origin.[24][26][32][78][85][86][87][88][89] Research shows that exposure to emigrants boosts turnout.[90][91] Research also shows that remittances can lower the risk of civil war in the country of origin.[92] Migration leads to lower levels of terrorism.[93] Return migration from countries with liberal gender norms has been associated with the transfer of liberal gender norms to the home country.[94][95][96] A 2009 study finds that foreigners educated in democracies foster democracy in their home countries.[97] Studies find that leaders who were educated in the West are significantly more likely to improve their country's prospects of implementing democracy.[98][99] A 2016 study found that Chinese immigrants exposed to Western media censored in China became more critical of their home government's performance on the issues covered in the media and less trusting in official discourse.[100] A 2014 study found that remittances decreased corruption in democratic states.[101]

A 2015 study finds that the emigration of women in rural China reduces son preference.[102]

Yorum

Birçok yerde bana hürriyet hakkı tanımıyor denilmesi ona ayrıcalık verilmediğindendir, Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü ayrıcalık ister, halkla bir arada olmayı istemez, yerleşme hakkı tanındığı için, göçmen olabilmekte, eşitlik verilmekte ama farklılık sağlanmamaktadır. Bu suistimal edilmektedir.
İspanya'da Bask lehine konuşma yapan dışlanırken, Türkiye'de kesin bölücülük yapanlar, kabul görebilmektedir.
Basın mensupları hapiste denilmesi, basın yolu ile terör yapmak daha ağır cezası olduğu içindir. Hepsinin bir suçu vardır.

Ayrıca haklarında birkaç dava olduğu için, birisinden hapis bile değilken, o konu dikkate alınarak, sanki Avrupa İnsan Hakları bu davada beraat vermiş gibi davranmaktadırlar. O konuda zaten hapis cezası yoktur ki.

Historical examples

Flight of the Neoplatonic academy philosophers

After Justinian closed the Platonic Academy in 529 AD, according to the historian Agathias, its remaining members sought protection from the Sassanid ruler, Khosrau I, carrying with them precious scrolls of literature, philosophy and, to a lesser degree, science. After the peace treaty between the Persian and the Byzantine empires in 532 guaranteed their personal security, some members of this group found sanctuary in the Pagan stronghold of Harran, near Edessa. One of the last leading figures of this group was Simplicius, a pupil of Damascius, the last head of the Athenian school. The students of an academy-in-exile may have survived into the ninth century, long enough to facilitate the medieval revival of the Neoplatonist commentary tradition in Baghdad.[103]

Spanish expulsion of Jews (15th century)

After the end of the Catholic reconquest of Spain, the Catholic Monarchs pursued the goal of a religiously homogenous kingdom. Thus, Jews were expelled from the country in 1492. As they dominated Spain's financial service industry, their expulsion was instrumental in causing future economic problems, for example the need for foreign bankers such as the Fugger family and others from Genova. On 7 January 1492, the King ordered the expulsion of all the Jews from Spain—from the kingdoms of Castile and León (Kingdoms of Galicia, Leon, Old Castile, New Castile or Toledo), Navarra and Aragon (Aragon, Principality of Catalonia, Kingdoms of Valencia, Mallorca and the Rousillon and the two Sicilies). Before that, the Queen had also expelled them from the four Kingdoms of Andalusia (Seville, Cordova, Jaén and Granada).[104][105] Their departure contributed to economic decline in some regions of Spain. Thus, the conservative aristocracy consolidated its power over these newly acquired territories while contributing to their decline.[citation needed]

Huguenot exodus from France (17th century)

In 1685, Louis XIV revoked the Edict of Nantes and declared Protestantism to be illegal in the Edict of Fontainebleau. After this, many Huguenots (estimates range from 200,000 to 1 million[106]) fled to surrounding Protestant countries: England, the Netherlands, Switzerland, Norway, Denmark and Prussia—whose Calvinist great elector, Frederick William, welcomed them to help rebuild his war-ravaged and under-populated country. Many went to the Dutch colony at the Cape (South Africa), where they were instrumental in establishing a wine industry.[107] At least 10,000 went to Ireland, where they were assimilated into the Protestant minority during the plantations.[citation needed]

Many Huguenots and their descendants prospered. Henri Basnage de Beauval fled France and settled in the Netherlands, where he became an influential writer and historian. Abel Boyer, another noted writer, settled in London and became a tutor to the British royal family. Henry Fourdrinier, the descendant of Huguenot settlers in England, founded the modern paper industry. Augustin Courtauld fled to England, settling in Essex and established a dynasty that founded the British silk industry. Noted Swiss mathematician Gabriel Cramer was born in Geneva to Huguenot refugees. Sir John Houblon, the first Governor of the Bank of England, was born into a Huguenot family in London. Isaac Barré, the son of Huguenot settlers in Ireland, became an influential British soldier and politician. Gustav and Peter Carl Fabergé, the descendants of Huguenot refugees, founded the world-famous Fabergé company in Russia, maker of the famous Faberge eggs.[citation needed]

The exodus of Huguenots from France created a brain drain, as Huguenots accounted for a disproportionate number of entrepreneurial, artisan and technical occupations in the country.[108][109][110] The loss of this technical expertise was a blow from which the kingdom did not fully recover for many years.[citation needed]

19th century Eastern Europe migration

Mid-19th century Eastern European migration was significantly shaped by religious factors. The Jewish minority experienced strong discrimination in the Russian Empire during this period, which reached its maximum in the pogrom waves of the 1880s. During the 1880s, the mass exodus of more than two million Russian Jews began. Already before, a migration stream of Jewish people started which was characterized by highly skilled individuals. This pronounced selectivity was not caused by economic incentives, but by political persecution.[37]

Expulsion of the Jesuits

The suppression of the Society of Jesus in Spanish America in 1767 caused the Jesuit vineyards in Peru to be auctioned at high prices, but new owners did not have the same expertise as the Jesuits, contributing to a production decline.[111]

Also, after the suppression, the production and importance of yerba mate-producing regions, which had been dominated by Jesuits, began to decline.[112][113] Excessive exploitation of indigenous labour in the plantations led to decay in the industry and the scattering of Guaranís living in the missions.[113][114] With the fall of the Jesuits, and the mismanagement of their former enterprises by the crown and the new entrepreneurs that had taken over, Paraguay gained an unrivalled position as the main producer of yerba mate. The plantation system of the Jesuits did prevail, however, and mate continued chiefly to be harvested from wild stand through the 18th century and most of the 19th century.[113]

Antisemitism in pre-World War II Europe (1933–1943)

Antisemitic sentiments and laws in Europe through the 1930s and 1940s, culminating in the Holocaust, caused an exodus of intelligentsia. Notable examples are:

- Albert Einstein (emigrated permanently to the United States in 1933)
- Sigmund Freud (finally decided to emigrate permanently with his wife and daughter to London, England, in 1938, two months after the Anschluss)
- Enrico Fermi (1938; though he was not Jewish himself, his wife, Laura, was)
- Niels Bohr (1943; his mother was Jewish)
- Theodore von Karman
- John von Neumann (Hungarian, Roman Catholic convert)
- Hans Bethe

- Leo Szilard
- Hannah Arendt (first fled to Paris from 1933, and eventually emigrated to the United States in 1940)

Besides Jews, Nazi persecution extended to liberals and socialists in Germany, further contributing to emigration. Refugees in New York City founded the University in Exile. The most prolific research center in math's and physics before the war was the German University of Göttingen, that became a focal point for the Nazi crackdown on "Jewish physics", as represented by the work of Albert Einstein. In what was later called the "great purge" of 1933, academics were expelled or fled, ending up in the United States, Canada and the United Kingdom. Following the great purge, the Institute for Advanced Study in Princeton took on the role of leading research institution in math's and physics.

The Bauhaus, perhaps the most important arts and design school of the 20th century, was forced to close down during the Nazi regime because of their liberal and socialist leanings, which the Nazis considered degenerate.[citation needed] The school had already been shut down in Weimar because of its political stance, but moved to Dessau prior to the closing. Following this abandonment, two of the three pioneers of modern architecture, Mies van der Rohe and Walter Gropius, left Germany for America (while Le Corbusier stayed in France). They introduced the European Modern movement to the American public and fostered the International Style in architecture and design,[citation needed] helping to transform design education at American universities and influencing later architects.[citation needed] A 2014 study in the *American Economic Review* found that German Jewish Émigrés in the US boosted innovation there.[115]

The resulting wave of high-skilled immigration greatly bolstered up the scientific development of the United Kingdom and United States of America. As a result of Nazi intellectual purges, the Anglosphere replaced Germany as the world's scientific leader.[116] German historian Michael Grüttner [de] stated that the "German universities suffered a loss of 20.5% of their teaching staff" after the Nazi seizure of power. He estimates that about 70% of fired scientists lost their position because of Jewish or "non-Aryan" ancestry, 10% lost their position because they were married to a Jew, and 20% were fired for political reasons. As over 60% of fired scientists emigrated, Grüttner argues that Germany lost even more than the sheer number of dismissed scientists would suggest as top scientists were disproportionately represented among the emigrees. When taking into consideration both those who won Nobel Prize either before or after emigration, a total of 24 Nobel laureates fled either Germany or Austria because of Nazi persecution.[117]

Many Jews escaping from German-occupied Europe to the United Kingdom established successful careers in publishing, medicine, science, psychoanalysis and other occupations. Notable scientists include Max Perutz, Rudolf Peierls, Francis Simon, Ernst Boris Chain and Hans Adolf Krebs.[118] Intellectuals include art historians Nikolaus Pevsner and Ernst Gombrich, sociologists Norbert Elias and Karl Mannheim, and philosophers Karl Popper and Ludwig Wittgenstein.[118]

Hungarian scientists in the early and mid-20th century

Different waves of emigration occurred.

Before World War I: József Galamb, engineer and creator of T-Ford; Eugene Farkas, engineer and creator of Fordson[119] tractor; Philipp Lenard (Nobel prize/physics)

- First and biggest wave was around World War I.
- Then after Trianon 1920 when Hungary lost two-thirds of its territory: Mária Telkes, István Szabó (engineer/physicist), Hans Selye
- World War II and the Third Reich
- Soviet occupation and communist occupation around 1948 and then revolution of 1956

During the 1930s and 1940s Hungarian was the third-most-often-used language in Hollywood.

Main article: The Martians (scientists)

"The Martians" were a group of prominent Hungarian scientists of Jewish descent (mostly, but not exclusively, physicists and mathematicians) who escaped to the United States during and after World War II due to Nazism or Communism. They included, among others, Theodore von Kármán, John von Neumann, Paul Halmos, Eugene Wigner, Edward Teller, George Pólya, John G. Kemeny and Paul Erdős. Several were from Budapest, and were instrumental in American scientific progress (e.g., developing the atomic bomb). Many more left because of communism: Hungarian Nobel-prize winners: György von Békésy, Szent-Györgyi, Harsányi and Hersko and others like Viktor Szebehely, Zoltán Bay, Alexandre Lamfalussy (economist), Mihaly Csikszentmihaly (Flow)

- After the revolution of 1956 many left: Ferenc Pavlics (engineer) creator of Moonrover, Imre Izsák, Oláh György (Nobelprize/chemistry), Csaba Horváth[120][circular reference] (chemical engineer) and parents of Nick Szabo (Bitcoin)

German scientist recruitment by the US and USSR post World War II

In the last months of and post-World War II, both the American and Soviet governments forcibly recruited and transported thousands of former Nazi scientists to the US and USSR respectively to continue their scientific work in those countries.

Eastern Europe under the Eastern Bloc

By 1922, the Soviet Union had issued restrictions making emigration of its citizens to other countries almost impossible.[121] Soviet Premier Nikita Khrushchev later stated, "We were scared, really scared. We were afraid the thaw might unleash a flood, which we wouldn't be able to control and which could drown us. How could it drown us? It could have overflowed the banks of the Soviet riverbed and formed a tidal wave which would have washed away all the barriers and retaining walls of our society."[122] After Soviet occupation of Eastern Europe at the end of World War II, the majority of those living in the countries of the Eastern Bloc aspired to independence and wanted the Soviets to leave.[123] By the early 1950s, the approach of the Soviet Union to restricting emigration was emulated by most of the rest of the Eastern Bloc, including East Germany.[124]

Even after the official closing of the Inner German border in 1952,[125] the border between the sectors of East Berlin and West Berlin remained considerably more accessible than the rest of the border because it was administered by all four occupying powers.[126] The Berlin sector border was essentially a "loophole" through which Eastern Bloc citizens could still emigrate.[125] The 3.5 million East Germans, called *Republikflüchtlinge*, who had left by 1961 totaled approximately 20% of the entire East German population.[127] The emigrants tended to be young and well educated, leading to the brain drain feared by officials in East Germany.[123] Yuri Andropov, then the CPSU director of Relations with Communist and Workers' Parties of Socialist Countries, decided on 28 August 1958 to write an urgent letter to the Central Committee about the 50% increase in the number of East German intelligentsia among the refugees.[128] Andropov reported that, while the East German leadership stated that they were leaving for economic reasons, testimony from refugees indicated that the reasons were more political than material.[128] He stated, "the flight of the intelligentsia has reached a particularly critical phase."[128] The direct cost of labour force losses has been estimated at $7 billion to $9 billion, with East German party leader Walter Ulbricht later claiming that West Germany owed him $17 billion in compensation, including reparations as well as labour force losses.[127] In addition, the drain of East Germany's young population potentially cost it over 22.5 billion marks in lost educational investment.[129] In August 1961, East Germany erected a barbed-wire barrier that would eventually be expanded by construction into the Berlin Wall, effectively closing the loophole.[130]

Yorum

Tarihte örnekler sunulmaktadır. Atina demokrasisi 50 kişilik senatör yönetimidir.

Burada bir diktatörlük ve aynı zamanda meclis olsa bile 50 kişinin idare ettiği bir toplumda demokrasi kavramı, seçimle gelmeyen (50 kişi oyu ile) hakimdir olan bir yapıda, hürriyet ve bağımsızlık beklenemez.

622 Yılında Medine Antlaşması ile ilk temel Anayasal hak, bireylere verilmiş, bu sağlanmıştır.

By region

Europe

Human capital flight in Europe fits into two distinct trends. The first is an outflow of highly qualified scientists from Western Europe mostly to the United States.[131] The second is a migration of skilled workers from Central and Southeastern Europe into Western Europe, within the EU.[132] While in some countries the trend may be slowing,[133][134] certain South European countries such as Italy continue to experience extremely high rates of human capital flight.[135] The European Union has noted a net loss of highly skilled workers and introduced a "blue card" policy—much like the American green card—which "seeks to draw an additional 20 million workers from Asia, Africa and the Americas in the next two decades".[136]

Although the EU recognizes a need for extensive immigration to mitigate the effects of an aging population,[137] national populist political parties have gained support in many European countries by calling for stronger laws restricting immigration.[138] Immigrants are perceived both as a burden on the state and the cause of social problems such as increased crime rates and the introduction of major cultural differences.[139]

Western Europe

In 2006, over 250,000 Europeans emigrated to the United States (164,285),[140] Australia (40,455),[141] Canada (37,946)[142] and New Zealand (30,262).[143] Germany alone saw 155,290 people leave the country (though mostly to destinations within Europe). This is the highest rate of worker emigration since reunification, and was equal to the rate in the aftermath of World War II.[144] Portugal has experienced the largest human capital flight in Western Europe. The country has lost 19.5% of its qualified population and is struggling to absorb sufficient skilled immigrants to compensate for losses to Australia, Canada, Switzerland, Germany, United Kingdom and Austria.[145]

Central and Eastern Europe

Central and Eastern European countries have expressed concerns about extensive migration of skilled laborer's to Ireland and the United Kingdom following the creation of the Schengen Agreement. Lithuania, for example, has lost about 100,000 citizens since 2003, many of them young and well-educated, to emigration to Ireland in particular.[citation needed] (Ireland itself previously experienced high rates of human capital flight to the United States, Great Britain and Canada before the Celtic Tiger economic programs.) A similar phenomenon occurred in Poland after its entry into the European Union. In the first year of its EU membership, 100,000 Poles registered to work in England, joining an estimated 750,000 residents of Polish descent.[146] However, with the rapid growth of salaries in Poland, its booming economy, the strong value of the zloty, and decreasing unemployment (which fell from 14.2% in May 2006 to 8% in March 2008[147]), the flight of Polish workers slowed.[148] In 2008 and early 2009 people who came back outnumbered those leaving the country. The exodus is likely to continue, however.[149] According to IMF, the emigration of high skilled labour has adversely affected growth in Eastern Europe and slowed down convergence in per capita income between high and low income EU countries.[77]

Southeastern Europe

The rapid but small-scale departure of highly skilled workers from Southeastern Europe has caused concern about those nations developing deeper integration in the European Union.[150] This has given rise to programs to curb the outflow by encouraging skilled technicians and scientists to remain in the region to work on international projects.[151]

Serbia is one of the top countries that have experienced human capital flight due to the fall of Yugoslavia and its successive civil wars. In 1991, people started emigrating to Italy and Greece, and then began going farther, to the United Kingdom, Canada and the United States. In the last ten years,[when?] educated people and professionals have been leaving the country and going to other countries where they feel they can have improved possibilities for better and secure lives. This is a concern for Albania as well, as it is losing its skilled workers and professionals.[citation needed]

A major cause of human capital flight in countries like Moldova and Ukraine is lack of economic opportunities and corruption. The higher economic class in the country, filled with local and Russian oligarchs, has control over the whole economic system. Young, educated people have few economic opportunities unless they have connections to individuals from the higher class. This encourages them to emigrate and seek opportunities elsewhere.[152]

Greece, Ireland, Italy, Portugal and Spain

Many citizens of the country's most stricken by the economic crisis in Europe have emigrated to countries such as Australia, Brazil, Germany, the United Kingdom, Mexico, Chile, Ecuador, Angola and Argentina.[153][154]

Turkey

In the 1960s, many skilled and educated people emigrated from Turkey, including many doctors and engineers. This emigration wave is believed to have been triggered by political instability, including the 1960 military coup. In later decades, into the 2000s, many Turkish professionals emigrated, and students studying overseas chose to remain abroad, mainly due to better economic opportunities. This human capital flight was given national media attention, and in 2000, the government formed a task force to investigate the "brain drain" problem.[155]

Yorum

1960 Darbesi ve arkasından 1971 ve diğer darbeler nedeni ile yurtdışına birçok kişinin gittiği ifade edilmektedir ki doğrudur.

2000 yılında dış göçler ile ilgili olarak sağlanan ortam ile geri dönenler olmuştur.

Dışardakilerin temel nedeni, diktanın dışladığı kişiler olmalarıdır.

United Kingdom

There is a considerable number of people leaving the United Kingdom for other countries, especially Australia and the United States.[156]

Business industries expressed worries that Brexit poses significant risk of causing brain drain.[157]

Russia

After Russia invaded Ukraine in February, 2022, there was a major exodus of skilled workers, and potential draftees. In addition, most international companies operating in Russia departed, taking their skilled experts with

them. Studies report that this will have a demographic effect especially in Russia lasting much longer than the conflict will take place, and much longer than Putin will remain president.[158][159][160][161]
According to BBC News:[162]
They come from different walks of life. Some are journalists like us, but there are also IT experts, designers, artists, academics, lawyers, doctors, PR specialists, and linguists. Most are under 50. Many shares western liberal values and hope Russia will be a democratic country one day. Some are LGBTQ+. Sociologists studying the current Russian emigration say there is evidence that those leaving are younger, better educated and wealthier than those staying. More often they are from bigger cities.
According to Johannes Wachs, "The exodus of skilled human capital, sometimes called brain drain, out of Russia may have a significant effect on the course of the war and the Russian economy in the long run."[163]
Africa
Countries in Africa have lost a tremendous amount of their educated and skilled populations as a result of emigration to more developed countries, which has harmed the ability of such nations to climb out of poverty. Nigeria, Kenya and Ethiopia are believed to be the most affected. According to the United Nations Development Programme, Ethiopia lost 75% of its skilled workforce between 1980 and 1991.[*citation needed*]
Then South African Deputy President Thabo Mbeki said in his 1998 "African Renaissance" speech:
"In our world in which the generation of new knowledge and its application to change the human condition is the engine which moves human society further away from barbarism, do we not have need to recall Africa's hundreds of thousands of intellectuals back from their places of emigration in Western Europe and North America, to rejoin those who remain still within our shores!
I dream of the day when these, the African mathematicians and computer specialists in Washington and New York, the African physicists, engineers, doctors, business managers and economists, will return from London and Manchester and Paris and Brussels to add to the African pool of brain power, to enquire into and find solutions to Africa's problems and challenges, to open the African door to the world of knowledge, to elevate Africa's place within the universe of research the information of new knowledge, education and information."
Africarecruit is a joint initiative by NEPAD and the Commonwealth Business Council to recruit professional expatriate Africans to take employment back in Africa after working overseas.[164]
In response to growing debate over the human capital flight of healthcare professionals, especially from lower-income countries to some higher-income countries, in 2010 the World Health Organization adopted the Global Code of Practice on the International Recruitment of Health Personnel, a policy framework for all countries for the ethical international recruitment of doctors, nurses and other health professionals.
African human capital flight has begun to reverse itself due to rapid growth and development in many African nations, and the emergence of an African middle class. Between 2001 and 2010, six of the world's ten fastest-growing economies were in Africa, and between 2011 and 2015, Africa's economic growth was expected to outpace that of Asia. This, together with increased development, introduction of technologies such as faster internet access and mobile phones, a better-educated population, and the environment for business driven by new tech start-up companies, has resulted in many expatriates from Africa returning to their home countries, and more Africans staying at home to work.[165]
Ghana
The trend for young doctors and nurses to seek higher salaries and better working conditions, mainly in higher-income countries of the West, is having serious impacts on the health care sector in Ghana. Ghana currently has about 3,600 doctors—one for every 6,700 inhabitants. This compares with one doctor per 430 people in the United States.[166] Many of the country's trained doctors and nurses leave to work in countries such as Britain, the United States, Jamaica and Canada. It is estimated that up to 68% of the country's trained medical staff left between 1993 and 2000, and according to Ghana's official statistics institute, in the period 1999 to 2004, 448 doctors, or 54% of those trained in the period, left to work abroad.[167]
Nigeria
South Africa
Along with many African nations, South Africa has been experiencing human capital flight in the past 20 years, since the end of apartheid. This is believed to be potentially damaging for the regional economy,[168] and is arguably detrimental to the wellbeing of the region's impoverished majority, which is desperately reliant on the health care infrastructure because of the HIV/AIDS epidemic.[169] The skills drain in South Africa tends to reflect racial contours exacerbated by Black Economic Empowerment policies, and has thus resulted in large White South African communities abroad.[170] The problem is further highlighted by South Africa's request in 2001 of Canada to stop recruiting its doctors and other highly skilled medical personnel.[171]

For the medical sector, the loss of return from investment for all doctors emigrating from South Africa is $1.41 billion. The benefit to destination countries is huge: $2.7 billion for the United Kingdom alone, without compensation.[172]

More recently, in a case of reverse brain drain a net 359,000 highly skilled South Africans returned to South Africa from foreign work assignments over a five-year period from 2008 to 2013. This was catalyzed by the global financial crisis of 2007–08 and perceptions of a higher quality of life in South Africa relative to the countries to which they had first emigrated. It is estimated that around 37% of those who returned are professionals such as lawyers, doctors, engineers and accountants.[173]

Middle East

Iraq

During the Iraq War, especially during the early years, the lack of basic services and security fed an outflow of professionals from Iraq that began under Saddam Hussein, under whose rule four million Iraqis are believed to have left the country.[174] In particular, the exodus was fed by the violence that plagued Iraq, which by 2006 had seen 89 university professors and senior lecturers killed.[175]

Iran

In 2006, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) ranked Iran "first in brain drain among 61 developing and less developed countries (LDCs)".[176][177][178] In the early 1990s, more than 150,000 Iranians emigrated, and an estimated 25% of Iranians with post-secondary education were residing in developed countries of the OECD. In 2009, the IMF reported that 150,000–180,000 Iranians emigrate annually, with up to 62% of Iran's academic elite having emigrated, and that the yearly exodus is equivalent to an annual capital loss of $50 billion.[179] Better possibilities for job markets is thought to be the motivation for absolute majority of the human capital flight while a small few stated their reasons as in search of more social or political freedom.[180][181]

Israel

Israel has experienced varying levels of emigration throughout its history, with the majority of Israeli expatriates moving to the United States. Currently, some 330,000 native-born Israelis (including 230,000 Israeli Jews) are estimated to be living abroad, while the number of immigrants to Israel who later left is unclear. According to public opinion polls, the main motives for leaving Israel have not been the political and security situation, but include desire for higher living standards, pursuit of work opportunities and/or professional advancement, and higher education. Many Israelis with degrees in scientific or engineering fields have emigrated abroad, largely due to lack of job opportunities. From Israel's establishment in May 1948 to December 2006, about 400,000 doctors and academics left Israel. In 2009, Israel's Council for Higher Education informed the Knesset's Education Committee that 25% of Israel's academics were living overseas, and that Israel had the highest human capital flight rate in the world. However, an OECD estimate put the highly educated Israeli emigrant rate at 5.3 per 1,000 highly educated Israelis, meaning that Israel actually retains more of its highly educated population than many other developed countries.

In addition, the majority of Israelis who emigrate eventually return after extended periods abroad. In 2007, the Israeli government began a program to encourage Israelis living abroad to return; since then, the number of returning Israelis has doubled, and in 2010, Israeli expatriates, including academics, researchers, technical professionals and business managers, began returning in record numbers. The country launched additional programs to open new opportunities in scientific fields to encourage Israeli scientists and researchers living abroad to return home. These initiatives have since succeeded in luring many Israeli scientists back home.[182][183][184][185][186]

Arab world

By 2010, the Arab countries were experiencing human capital flight, according to reports from the United Nations and Arab League.[*citation needed*] About one million Arab experts and specialists were living in developed countries, and the rate of return was extremely low. The reasons for this included attraction to opportunities in technical and scientific fields in the West and an absence of job opportunities in the Arab world, as well as wars and political turmoil that have plagued many Arab nations.[187]

In 2012, human capital flight was showing signs of reversing, with many young students choosing to stay and more individuals from abroad returning. In particular, many young professionals are becoming entrepreneurs and starting their own businesses rather than going abroad to work for companies in Western countries. This was partially a result of the Arab Spring, after which many Arab countries began viewing science as the driving force for development, and as a result stepped up their science programs. Another reason may be the ongoing global recession.[188][189]

Southeast Asia

Indonesia

While there is no empirical data about human capital flight from Indonesia, the brain drain phenomenon in Indonesia was estimated to reach 5%. After the May 1998 riots of Indonesia, many Chinese Indonesians decided to flee to other countries such as Singapore, Malaysia, Taiwan, Australia, the Netherlands, and the United States which severely contributes to brain drain within the country. Indonesian Aerospace laid off some two thirds of its workforce after the 1997 Asian financial crisis, leading many workers to leave their country to find a better career overseas. As of 2018, there are at least 60 Indonesians graduated from local or overseas universities working at Boeing and Airbus, with half of them holding middle management positions.[190]

In 2023, it was reported that over 4,000 Indonesians acquired Singaporean citizenship between 2019 and 2022. Most of these are young people, students in the ages 25 - 35 and degree holders.[191] The main reasons given were better job prospects, scholarships, better healthcare, higher salaries and a good public transport.

In addition, 413 of the 35,536 recipients of the state and tax funded Indonesia Endowment Fund for Education (LPDP) did not return to Indonesia between 2013 and 2022.[192] They were required to return and work in Indonesia for several years after they concluded their studies.

Malaysia

There have been high rates of human capital flight from Malaysia. Major pull factors have included better career opportunities abroad and compensation, while major push factors included corruption, social inequality, educational opportunities, racial inequality such as the government's Bumiputera affirmative action policies. As of 2011, Bernama has reported that there are a million talented Malaysians working overseas.[193] Recently human capital flight has increased in pace: 305,000 Malaysians migrated overseas between March 2008 and August 2009, compared to 140,000 in 2007.[194] Non-Bumiputeras, particularly Malaysian Indians and Malaysian Chinese, were over-represented in these statistics. Popular destinations included Singapore, Australia, the United States and the United Kingdom.[195] This is reported to have caused Malaysia's economic growth rate to fall to an average of 4.6% per annum in the 2000s compared to 7.2% in the 1990s.[196]

Philippines

Post-colonial Philippines

In 1946, colonialism in the Philippines ended with the election of Manuel Roxas.[197] The Philippines' infrastructure and economy had been devastated by World War II, contributing to serious national health problems and uneven distribution of wealth.[198] As part of reconstruction efforts for the newly independent state, education of nurses was encouraged to combat the low ratio of 1 nurse per 12,000 Filipinos[199] and to help raise national health care standards. However Roxas, having spent his last three years as the secretary of finance and chairman of the National Economic Council and a number of other Filipino companies, was particularly concerned with the country's financial (rather than health) problems.[198] The lack of government funding for rural community clinics and hospitals, as well as low wages, continued to perpetuate low retention rates for nurses in rural areas and slow economic recovery. When the United States relaxed their Immigration Act laws in 1965, labour export emerged as a possible solution for the Philippines.

Labour export from the 1960s onwards

Since the 1960s and 1970s, the Philippines has been the largest supplier of nurses to the United States, in addition to export labour supplied to the UK and Saudi Arabia.[200] In 1965, with a recovering post-WWII economy and facing labour shortages, the United States introduced a new occupational clause to the Immigration Act.[201] The clause encouraged migration of skilled labour into sectors experiencing a shortage,[201] particularly nursing, as well relaxing restrictions on race and origin.[202] This was seen as an opportunity for mass labour exportation by the Philippine government, and was followed by a boom in public and private nursing educational programs. Seeking access through the Exchange Visitors Program (EVP) sponsored by the US government, workers were encouraged to go abroad to learn more skills and earn higher pay, sending remittance payments back home.[203] As nursing was a highly feminized profession, labour migrants through the beginning of the 1980s were predominantly female and young (25–30 years of age).[204]

Pursuing economic gains through labour migration over infrastructural financing and improvement, the Philippines still faced slow economic growth during the 1970s and 1980s.[205] With continuously rising demand for nurses in the international service sector and overseas, the Philippine government aggressively furthered their educational programs under Ferdinand Marcos, president at the time. Although complete statistical data are difficult to collect, studies done in the 1970s show 13,500 nurses (or 85% of all Filipino nurses) had left the country to pursue work elsewhere.[206] Additionally, the number of existing public and private nursing school programs multiplied from a reported 17 nursing schools in 1950, to 140 nursing schools in 1970.[207]

Remittances

Studies show stark wage discrepancies between the Philippines and developed countries such as the US and the UK. This has led Philippine government officials to note that remittances sent home may be seen as more economically valuable than pursuit of local work. Around the turn of the 20th century, the average monthly wage of Filipino nurses who remained in their home country was between 550–1,000 pesos per month (roughly US$70–140 at that time).[208] In comparison, the average nurse working in the US was receiving US$800–400 per month.[208]

However, scholars have noted that economic disparities in the Philippines have not been eased in the past decades. Although remittance payments account for a large portion of Filipino GDP (US$290.5 million in 1978, increased to US$10.7 billion in 2005),[209] and are therefore regarded as a large economic boost to the state, Filipino unemployment has continued to rise (8.4% in 1990, increased to 12.7% in 2003).[209] Here scholars have begun to look at the culture of nurse migration endorsed by the Philippine state as a contributing factor to the country's economic and health problems.

Migration culture of nursing

The Philippines has a migration culture of nursing. A 2021 study found that migration opportunities for Filipino nurses led to a net increase in human capital in the Philippines, thus contradicting the "brain drain" thesis.[9]

Education industry

In addition to the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA) run by the government that serves as both a source of overseas recruitment agreements and as a marketer of Philippine labour overseas, private nursing schools have acted as migration funnels, expanding enrolment, asserting control over the licensure process, and entering into business agreements with other overseas recruitment agencies.[210] However, retaining qualified instructors and staff has been reported to be as problematic as retaining actual nurses, contributing to low exam pass rates (only 12 of 175 reporting schools had pass rates of 90% or higher in 2005,[211] with an average pass rate of 42% across the country in 2006).[212] Private schools have also begun to control licensure exam review centres, providing extra preparation for international qualification exams at extra cost and with no guarantee of success.[212] It is estimated that between 1999 and 2006, US$700 million was spent on nursing education and licensure review courses by individuals who never took the licensing exams or completed the programming.[212]

Discrepancies in wages between Philippine nurses working at home and those working abroad, as noted above, provide clear economic incentives for nurses to leave the country; however, physicians have also been lured into these promises of wealth through the creation of "Second Course" nursing programs.[213] Studies comparing wages of Philippine nurses at home and abroad from 2005 to 2010, showed at-home nurses receiving US$170 per month, or $2,040 per annum, compared to US$3,000–4,000 per month in the US, or $36,000–48,000 per annum.[214] Philippine physician salaries for those working at home are not much more competitive; they earn on average US$300–800 per month, or US$3,600–9,600 per annum.[214] Although it is important to note along with such discrepancies that the costs of living are also higher in the US, and that remittance payment transfers back home are not free, there is still evidently a large economic pull to studying as a nurse and migrating overseas.

Vietnam

According to *Viet Nam News*, 70% of Vietnamese students abroad did not return to Vietnam. *The New York Times* described Barack Obama's remarks at the Young Southeast Asian Leaders Initiative on conditions which cause brain drain as "slyly" describing Vietnam, with corruption, pollution and poor education.[215][216]

More recent news suggests that a so-called brain gain may be occurring. A 2016 study found that 70% of overseas professionals were interested in returning to Vietnam, with many thousands already having done so.[217]

South Asia

India

India has seen massive emigration since the 1980s, and most Indian scholars seek to settle abroad for better opportunities. Major push factors include a lack of research facilities, low ease of doing business, and fewer opportunities due to a lack of skills and innovation.[*citation needed*]

Studies have found that, since 2014, 23,000 millionaires and, since 2019, nearly 7,000 millionaires (2% of India's High-net-worth individuals at the time) have emigrated from India.[218]

Nepal

Every year, 250,000 youths are reported to leave Nepal for various reasons. They seek opportunity in its various manifestations—higher living standards, employment, better income, education, an alluring western lifestyle, stability and security.[219] This number is expected to rise as a result of a devastating earthquake on 25 April 2015.[*citation needed*]

Sri Lanka

Sri Lanka has lost a significant portion of its intellectuals, mainly due to civil war and the resulting uncertainty that prevailed in the country for the thirty-year period prior to the end of the conflict in 2009.[citation needed] Most of these sought refuge in countries such as the United States, Australia, Canada and Great Britain. In recent years, many expatriates have indicated interest in returning to Sri Lanka, but have been deterred by slow economic growth and political instability. Both the government and private organizations are making efforts to encourage professionals to return to Sri Lanka and to retain resident intellectuals and professionals.[citation needed]

Eastern Asia

China

With rapid GDP growth and a higher degree of openness towards the rest of the world, there has been an upsurge in Chinese emigration to Western countries—particularly the United States, Canada and Australia.[220] China became the biggest worldwide contributor of emigrants in 2007.[citation needed] According to the official Chinese media, in 2009, 65,000 Chinese secured immigration or permanent resident status in the United States, 25,000 in Canada and 15,000 in Australia.[220] The largest group of emigrants consists of professionals and experts with a middle-class background,[220] who are the backbone for the development of China. According to a 2007 study, seven out of every ten students who enroll in an overseas university never return to live in their homeland.[221]

Australasia

Pacific Islands

The post-WWII migration trends in the Pacific Islands have essentially followed this pattern[citation needed]:

- Most Pacific island nations that were formerly under UK mandate have had migration outflows to Australia and New Zealand since the decolonisation of the region from the 1960s to the 1990s. There has only been a limited outflow from these islands to Canada and the UK since de-colonization. Fiji, Tonga and Samoa also have had large outflows to the United States.
- Most Pacific islands administered by France (like Tahiti) have had an outflow to France.
- Most Pacific islands under some kind of US administration have had outflows to the US and, to a lesser extent, Canada.

New Zealand

During the 1990s, 30,000 New Zealanders were emigrating each year. An OECD report released in 2005 revealed that 24.2% of New Zealanders with a tertiary education were living outside of New Zealand, predominantly in Australia.[222] In 2007, around 24,000 New Zealanders settled in Australia.[223]

During the 2008 election campaign, the National Party campaigned on the ruling Labour Party's inability to keep New Zealanders at home, with a series of billboards announcing "Wave goodbye to higher taxes, not your loved ones".[224] However, four years after the National Party won that election, the exodus to Australia had intensified, surpassing 53,000 per annum in 2012.[225] Prime Minister John Key blamed the global financial crisis for the continuing drain.[226]

It was estimated in December 2012 that 170,000 New Zealanders had left for Australia since the Key government came to power in late 2008.[227] However, this net migration was reversed soon after, with a net migration gain of 1,933 people achieved in 2016.[228] Economist Paul Bloxham described New Zealand's strong economy, with a housing and construction boom at the time.[229] Australia's weaker economy and reduced investment in mining industries during this time were also mentioned as key factors.

New Zealand enjoys immigration of qualified foreigners, potentially leaving a net gain of skills.[230] Nevertheless, one reason for New Zealand's attempt to target immigration at 1% of its population per year is because of its high rate of emigration, which leaves its migration balance either neutral or slightly positive.

North America

Canada

Colonial administrators in Canada observed the trend of human capital flight to the United States as early as the 1860s, when it was already clear that a majority of immigrants arriving at Quebec City were en route to destinations in the United States. Alexander C. Buchanan, government agent at Quebec, argued that prospective emigrants should be offered free land to remain in Canada. The issue of attracting and keeping the right immigrants has sometimes been central to Canada's immigration history.[231]

In the 1920s, over 20% of university graduating classes in engineering and science were emigrating to the United States. When governments displayed no interest, concerned industrialists formed the Technical Service Council in 1927 to combat the brain drain. As a practical means of doing so, the council operated a placement service that was free to graduates.[citation needed]

By 1976, the council had placed over 16,000 men and women. Between 1960 and 1979 over 17,000 engineers and scientists emigrated to the United States. However, the exodus of technically trained Canadians dropped from 27% of graduating classes in 1927 to under 10% in 1951 and 5% in 1967.[citation needed]

In Canada today, the idea of a brain drain to the United States is occasionally a domestic political issue. At times, brain drain is used as a justification for income tax cuts. During the 1990s, some alleged a brain drain from Canada to the United States, especially in the software, aerospace, health care and entertainment industries, due to the perception of higher wages and lower income taxes in the US.[232] Some also suggest that engineers and scientists were also attracted by the greater diversity of jobs and a perceived lack of research funding in Canada.

The evidence suggests that, in the 1990s, Canada did lose some of its homegrown talent to the US.[233] Nevertheless, Canada hedged against these losses by attracting more highly skilled workers from abroad. This allowed the country to realize a net brain gain as more professionals entered Canada than left.[233] Sometimes, the qualifications of these migrants are given no recognition in Canada (see credentialism), resulting in some—though not all—highly skilled professionals being forced into lower paying service sector jobs.

In the mid-2000s, Canada's resilient economy, strong domestic market, high standard of living, and considerable wage growth across a number of sectors, effectively ended the brain drain debate.[234][235] Canada's economic success even prompted some top US talent to migrate north.[234][235][236][237][238] Anecdotal evidence also suggests that stringent US security measures put in place after 11 September 2001 have helped to temper the brain drain debate in Canada.[239]

United States

The 2000 United States Census led to a special report on domestic worker migration, with a focus on the movement of young, single, college-educated migrants.[240] The data show a trend of such people moving away from the Rust Belt and northern Great Plains region towards the West Coast, Southwestern and Southeast United States. The largest net influx of young, single, college-educated persons was to the San Francisco Bay Area.

Many predominantly rural communities in the Appalachia region of the United States have experienced a "brain drain" of young college students migrating to urban areas in and outside of Appalachia for employment, political reasonings and opportunities offered in urban areas that rural communities are currently unable to.[241][242]

The country as a whole does not experience large-scale human capital flight as compared with other countries, with an emigration rate of only 0.7 per 1,000 educated people,[243] but it is often the destination of skilled workers migrating from elsewhere in the world.[244]

Regarding foreign scholars earning their degrees in the United States and returning to their home country, Danielle Guichard-Ashbrook of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has been quoted as stating "We educate them, but then we don't make it easy for them to stay".[245]

Yorum

Amerika'da meslek sahibi olanlarda göç oranı düşüktür. Binde 0.7 olduğu ifade edilmiştir.

Central and South America

Colombia

In recent years, many people from younger generations (people born from 1994 onwards) have migrated out of Colombia. Many of them are looking for better employment opportunities elsewhere due to the political turmoil that has been going on in the past decades. In many cases, the flight of educated people from Colombia does not occur, due to a lack of economic resources from the people and no governmental support in any extracurricular endeavors (sports or liberal arts). Even though, Colombia has recently implemented programs to benefit people that have higher scores in the ICFES (a national exam mandated for every high-schooler in the country before graduation), such as the ICETEX (Instituto Colombiano de Crédito Educativo y Estudios Técnicos en el Exterior) scholarships; many people who score high on these mandate exams end up migrating to other countries for higher education. Some may argue, including those who have scored high in the ICFES, that they are taking the place of someone less fortunate who deserves, wants and will use an ICETEX scholarship.

Cuba

In 1997, Cuban officials claimed that 31,000 Cuban doctors were deployed in 61 countries.[246] A large number practice in South America. In 2007, it was reported that 20,000 were employed in Venezuela in exchange for nearly 100,000 barrels (16,000 m^3) of oil per day.[247]

However, in Venezuela and Bolivia, where another 1,700 doctors work, it is stated that as many as 500 doctors may have fled the missions in the years preceding 2007 into countries nearby.[246] This number increased dramatically, with 1,289 visas being given to Cuban medical professionals in the United States alone in 2014, with the majority of Cuban medical personnel fleeing from Venezuela due to poor social conditions and not receiving adequate payment; the Cuban government allegedly receives the majority of payments while some doctors are left with about $100 per month in earnings.[248]

Venezuela

Following the election of Hugo Chávez as president and his establishment of the Bolivarian Revolution, millions of Venezuelans emigrated from Venezuela.[249][250][251] In 2009, it was estimated that more than 1 million Venezuelan emigrated since Hugo Chávez became president.[250] It has been calculated that from 1998 to 2013, over 1.5 million Venezuelans, between 4% and 6% of the Venezuela's total population, left the country following the Bolivarian Revolution.[251] Academics and business leaders have stated that emigration from Venezuela increased significantly during the last years of Chávez's presidency and especially during the presidency of Nicolás Maduro.[252]

An analysis of a study by the Central University of Venezuela titled "Venezuelan Community Abroad. A New Method of Exile" states that the Venezuelan refugee crisis was caused by the "deterioration of both the economy and the social fabric, rampant crime, uncertainty and lack of hope for a change in leadership in the near future".[249] The study states that of the more than 1.5 million Venezuelans who had left the country following the Bolivarian Revolution, more than 90% of those who left were college graduates, with 40% holding a master's degree and 12% having a doctorate or post doctorate.[251][253] *The Wall Street Journal* stated that many "white-collar Venezuelans have fled the country's high crime rates, soaring inflation and expanding statist controls".[254] Reasons for leaving cited by the former Venezuelan citizens studied included lack of freedom, high levels of insecurity and lack of opportunity in the country.[251][253] Some Venezuelan parents have encouraged their children to leave the country.[251]

Caribbean

Many of the Caribbean Islands endure a constant and substantial emigration of qualified workers. Approximately 30% of the labour forces of many islands have left, and more than 80% of college graduates from Suriname, Haiti, Grenada and Guyana have emigrated, mostly to the United States.[255] Over 80% of Jamaicans with higher education live abroad.[256] However, it is noted that these nationals pay valuable remittances. In Jamaica, the money sent back amounts to 18% of GNP.[257]

Yorum

Her ülkede bir göç dalgası olduğu görülmektedir.
Birleşmiş Milletler göçün onaylanması için hayati tehdit öne sürülmesini önermesi ile tümü bu yola başvurduğu gözleniyor.
İş imkanları ile gidenlerin, Almancılarda olduğu gibi Almanya’ya katkıları önemlidir.

Öğrenci Göçü

Konu öğrencilerin göçü değil, öğrencilerin eğitim için göçmesidir. Bu terimde, öğrenciler göçme ile ancak eğitim aldıkları vurgusu akla gelmektedir, yanlış da değildir.

Üniversite yapısı, üniversal, uluslararası boyut anlamındadır. Bu nedenle sadece kalıp olarak değil, tüm Evrene yetişen bir eleman olmasıdır.
Bu açıdan önce insanlık değerleri öğretilmeli, sonra bilgi verilmelidir. İnsanlık boyutu olmayanın eğitilmemesi gerektiği vurgusu eski Osmanlı eğitim metodunda vardır.
Bu açıdan milliyetçilik değil, ulusalcılık da değil, genel insanlık kavramı üzerinde durulmalıdır. Bu nedenle propaganda yasaktır, sadece bilgi verilebilir, zorlama olmaz. Hiçbir takım, parti tutulmaz, ama, her takımın temsilcisi olabilir.

Student migration, Wikipedia[3]

Student migration is the movement of students who study outside their country of birth or citizenship for a period of 12 months or more.[1] During the period of globalization, the internationalization of higher education increased dramatically and it has become a market driven activity. With the rapid rise of international education more and more students are seeking higher education in foreign countries and many international students now consider overseas study a stepping-stone to permanent residency within a country.[2] The contributions that foreign students make to host nation economies, both culturally and financially has encouraged major players to implement further initiatives to facilitate the arrival and integration of overseas students, including substantial amendments to immigration and visa policies and procedures.[3] Institutions are competing hard to attract international students at a time when immigration policies in leading destinations like the US and the UK are not enabling transition to work visas.[4]

History

During the colonial period, the majority of student flow came from colonies to the world capitals. Imperial governments provided pathways for selected nationals to pursue higher education. The concept of studying abroad was based on the assumption that graduates would return to their homeland to serve colonial administration once they had developed skills and absorbed the values of the colonial rulers.[3]

The Cold War era had a significant impact on foreign aid and the funding of overseas students. The policy of distributing scientific knowledge and sharing industrial progress with the developing world required the help of higher education institutions. Support for USAID linked the foreign policy mission with support for higher education. Cold War rivals funded study abroad programs and were in competition to attract students from the developing world.[3]

One of the most famous international exchange programs that facilitates and encourages international student migration is the Fulbright Program. Established in 1946, the Fulbright Program provides grants for students, scholars, teachers, and professionals to undertake studies and research. The Fulbright Program was initially funded by using proceeds from the sales of surplus war property and was founded on the principle of promoting "international goodwill through the exchange of students in the fields of education, culture and science".[5]

The Colombo Plan was another program that encouraged the movement of students between countries. The Colombo Plan was established in 1951 with the intention of strengthening the economic and social development of the Asia Pacific region. The Colombo Plan has been responsible for sponsoring over 40,000 Asian students to study or train in Australian higher education institutions. Funding is provided by member countries, which includes a mixture of 26 Commonwealth and non-Commonwealth countries.[6]

Since the colonial and Cold War eras, the profile of international students has made a significant shift. The way in which students travel has changed, and the majority of students seeking education abroad are now self-funded.

Financing and cost

The international student market has become an important source of revenue for local economies and many institutions rely heavily on the income brought by cross-border students.[3] Receiving countries could benefit from qualified skilled migrants who make considerable contributions to their new countries. International students are also demanding more "value for money" as finding job opportunities abroad is becoming more difficult.

Recalibrating

In most host countries, higher education was tuition fee-free. Until the 1980s, many countries had not any provision for levying fees on domestic and international students. The UK was the first to introduce fees on overseas students; other countries, such as Australia, began to follow suit.[3]

The international market for students now accounts for billions of dollars and, subsequently, competition between institutions is fierce. Studying abroad is expensive and in most cases is funded by the individual.

In OECD countries there are three patterns to the levying of fees:

1. In some countries fees for international students are higher than domestic students. This occurs in Australia, Canada, New Zealand, the UK and the USA. Sweden started levying fees for non-European students from 2011.
2. Some countries make no distinction between international and domestic student fees. Tuition fees remain the same for foreign and domestic students in France, Greece, Hungary, Italy and Japan.
3. Countries such as Denmark, Finland and Norway have not begun levying tuition fees from foreign students.[3]

Destination countries

Between 1963 and 2006 the number of students studying in a foreign country increased 9 times. In 2006 there were 2.7 million students studying abroad and there are predictions that the demand for cross-border education will increase to 7.2 million by 2025.[3]

OECD countries receive approximately 85% of the world's foreign students with the majority concentrated in just 6 countries. In 2007, the United States accounted for 21.4% of foreign enrolments, the United Kingdom 12.6%, France 8.8%, Australia 7.6%, Germany 7.4%, and Japan 4.5%.[7]

Australia has the highest ratio of international students per head of population in the world by a large margin, with 812,000 international students enrolled in the nation's universities and vocational institutions in

2019.[8] Accordingly, in 2019, international students represented on average 26.7% of the student bodies of Australian universities. International education therefore represents one of the country's largest exports and has a pronounced influence on the country's demographics, with a significant proportion of international students remaining in Australia after graduation on various skill and employment visas.[9]

Europe is also a major destination, with approximately 840,000 international students. However, the majority of this figure comes from students moving from one European country to another.[7]

East Asia and the Pacific top the list for sending students and accounts for 29% of all international higher education students. (Students from China account for 15% of this total.) North America and Western Europe account for 18%, then Central and East Europe 11%, South and West Asia 9%, Arab States 7% and Sub Saharan Africa 5.8%.[7]

Contributing factors to growth in student migration

There are many factors contributing to the growing numbers of student migration. Many developing countries have an under supply of university places to satisfy demand and as a result students have no other choice but to study abroad. In addition to this it is a common expectation that studying overseas can enhance professional business opportunities.[2] Generally, students seeking cross-border education migrate to countries with more developed education institutions than their own. For example, students in Arab countries migrate to Egypt and Jordan to pursue their studies, and many students from Bangladesh and Nepal travel to India. The flow of students from developing countries to developed countries is often due to the belief that the quality and standards of education offered in OECD countries is superior to what is offered in the country of origin.[3]

Higher education has become a major global export commodity with developing countries capitalizing on domestic shortages by recruiting foreign students. Subsequently, changes to visa and immigration policies have provided incentives for students to travel abroad and potentially offer a gateway to permanent residency within a host nation. Migration opportunities are one of the major contributions to the growth of student migration. A 2006 survey, undertaken by Australia's Monash University, produced statistics which showed 75% of Indian students who completed university education in Australia applied for and were granted residency. The author of the research, Michiel Bass suggests that the most influential reason Indian students studied in Australia was not because of academic reputation, but the opportunity to gain permanent residency.[10]

Other factors for the rise in student migration include lowering travel expenses and greater communication technology which has made studying abroad more accessible.[2]

Student visa and immigration policies

United States

The US attracts a large number of foreigners to its workforce each year, however international graduates of US institutions do not automatically have the right to remain in the country for work purposes upon completion of their course. In fact, as part of the student application process, applicants must state that they are not planning to emigrate to the US.[10]

Visa and immigration policies in the US are (arguably) significantly less accommodating towards international students and graduates compared to other host countries. The greatest changes to visa regulations occurred after the attacks of September 11, 2001, when the US immediately implemented tougher visa and immigration requirements. Under the Enhanced Border Security and Visas Entry Reform Act (2002) the US introduced a new overseas student tax in order to fund an advanced computer tracking system for visa applications, but also made it more difficult for applicants to transfer between visa categories.[10]

However, recently the US Department of State has established a new internship scheme which has been specifically designed for foreign students. Since July 2007, certain international students are eligible to participate in a year-long internship per degree level for practical training as long as they can describe how the experience can enhance their education.[10]

United Kingdom

In 2006, as part of a larger scheme to attract highly skilled labour, the UK government made amendments to the Science and Engineering Graduate Scheme (SEGS) which enabled all international students who have completed a post-graduate degree course (Masters of PhD starting after 1 May 2006) to remain in the UK and seek employment for up to 12 months regardless of discipline.[10] The Government has also made a special provision for internationally coveted Master of Business Administration (MBA) students, allowing graduates of 50 highly ranked business schools to apply for a three-year extension to their one-year working visa once their studies have been completed.[10] As part of the Highly Skilled Migrant Programme (HSMP), such students have been eligible to apply for permanent residence since 12 April 2005. The Government further extended opportunities for non-EU/EEA students in 2007, which allows all students who have completed degree programmes in the UK the opportunity to stay in the UK for employment purposes. The International Graduates Scheme has been in operation since 1 May 2007.[10]

However, in March 2011, the UK Government made an announcement on reforming student visa system, which is getting much stricter the major changes in student immigration policies including tougher requirements for entrance, tightening work entitlements and closing the post-study work route are aimed at ensuring the UK welcomes the best overseas students with expected contribution.

Germany and France

Since January 2005, Germany has issued singular permits for both residence and employment in an effort to attract international students and skilled migrants to the country and facilitate their arrival. Overseas students are also eligible to apply for an extension on their residence permit for up to one year for the purpose of seeking employment which is relevant to their field of study upon completion of their studies.

In France, international students have the right to work part-time for up to 19 hours per week whilst studying. Students must, however, have a valid residency permit and be enrolled in an institution which participates in the French social protection system. Upon completion of studies, students are able to accept offers of employment from French firms by applying for temporary employment authorization. It ought to be noted that both Germany and France belongs to the Schengen agreement.[10]

Australia

In addition to Australia's points system, which encourages skilled migration, regulations allow all international students completing an Australian degree to remain in the country for 18 months upon graduating. Students can earn bonus points for skilled work experience and English-language proficiency in addition to those already earned for Australian qualifications, under amendments to the General Skilled Migration Programme (GSM). Previously, international students were exempt from work experience requirements when applying for general skilled migration.[10]

Legislation introduced on September 1, 2007, requires authorities to provide 'temporary visas' to enable applicants to earn experience. These changes were made to strengthen links between study, work experience and employment to ensure migrants have the skills that Australian employers are looking for. The main rationale behind these schemes is the desire for Australia to benefit from the skills of foreign graduates.[10]

Students no longer have the option to remain in Australia following the completion of a master's degree for the purposes of work. It is now necessary to re-apply under specific sponsorship.[10]

Canada

International students travelling to Canada are not required to apply for a study visa unless the programmes they are enrolled in are longer than 6 months. Acquiring a study permit, does however have significant benefits to students, giving them permission to seek part-time employment on campus and since April 2006, off campus, for up to 20 hours per week whilst they are completing their studies. Under the Post-Graduation Work Permit Programmes, international graduates from Canadian higher education institutions are eligible to apply for employment of up to two years.[10]

In 2008, 105 780 study permits applied for from outside Canada were processed, and in 22% of those cases a study permit was refused. Refusal rates varied by region, with 11% of applicants from Europe refused and 35% from Africa and the Middle East refused.[11]

New Zealand

In New Zealand, international students are not required to apply for a student visa if they are studying for a course which is less than three months in duration. Under certain circumstances international students can seek part-time employment for up to 20 hours per week whilst studying (full-time) in a course that at least 6 months in duration. In July 2007, amendments were made to the Skilled Migrant Category which gives students the opportunity to earn bonus points for recognized New Zealand higher education qualifications or for two years of full-time study in the country. In addition, the number of years to require points for work experience in New Zealand will be reduced and international students may be eligible to apply for a work visa for up to two years upon completion of their studies in the country.

Issues that can arise with student migration

The loss of students from sending countries can have a rather detrimental impact on the economy by depleting already scarce resources.[2] Brain drain is the large scale loss of individuals with technical skills or knowledge.

Differences in learning cultures is an issue in student migration. This means that the students can have difficulty if the teaching, learning and assessment methods are very different from those in their previous education.[12] For example, some European students studying in Britain have been noted as having little experience of a number of tasks typically expected of British students while many are familiar "with only traditional forms of assessment such as examinations".[12]

Yorum

İster eğitim ister farklı nedenlerden dolayı olsun, göç etmeyi ve göçenleri, göçmenleri kabul etmeyen bir grup olacaktır. Bunlar kendi düzenlerinin bozulmasını istemezler. Ama birçok gerekçeler bilimsel görünür ama ortada kanıt, olay yoktur. Sadece göçmenlere kızgınlık boyutu vardır. Korku ve endişe hakimdir.
Her ülkedeki boyut sunulmakta ama yorum yapılmayacaktır.

Student exchange program, Wikipedia[4]

A **student exchange program** is a program in which students from a secondary school (high school) or higher education study abroad at one of their institution's partner institutions.[1] A student exchange program may involve international travel, but does not necessarily require the student to study outside their home country.
Foreign exchange programs provide students with an opportunity to study in another country and experience a different environment.[2] These programs provide opportunities that may not be available in the participant's home country, such as learning about the history and culture of other countries and meeting new friends to enrich their personal development. International exchange programs are also effective to challenge students to develop a global perspective.
The term "exchange" means that a partner institution accepts a student, but does not necessarily mean that the students have to find a counterpart from the other institution with whom to exchange. Exchange students live with a host family or in a designated place such as a hostel, an apartment, or a student lodging. Costs for the program vary by the country and institution. Participants fund their participation via scholarships, loans, or self-funding.
Student exchanges became popular after World War II, intended to increase the participants' understanding and tolerance of other cultures, as well as improving their language skills and broadening their social horizons. Student exchanges also increased further after the end of the Cold War. An exchange student typically stays in the host country for a period of 6 to 12 months; however, exchange students may opt to stay for one semester at a time. International students or those on study abroad programs may stay in the host country for several years. Some exchange programs also offer academic credit.[3]
Students of study abroad programs aim to develop a global perspective and cultural understanding by challenging their comfort zones and immersing themselves in a different culture. Studies have shown that students' desire to study abroad has increased, and research suggests that students choose programs because of location, costs, available resources and heritage.[4] Although there are many different exchange programs, most popular are the programs that offer academic credit, as many students are concerned about traveling hindering their academic and professional plans.[5]

Types of exchange programs

Short-term exchange

A short-term exchange program is also known as STEP. These focus on home-stays, language skills, community service, or cultural activities. High school and university students can apply for the programs through various government or non-governmental organizations that organize the programs. A short-term exchange lasts from one week to three months and doesn't require the student to study in any particular school or institution. The students are exposed to an intensive program that increases their understanding of other cultures, communities, and languages.[6][7]

Long-term exchange

A long-term exchange is one which lasts six to ten months or up to one full year. Participants attend high school or university in their host countries, through a student visa. Typically, guest students coming to the United States are issued a J-1 cultural exchange visa or an F-1 foreign student visa. Students are expected to integrate themselves into the host family, immersing themselves in the local community and surroundings. Upon their return to their home country, they are expected to incorporate this knowledge into their daily lives, as well as give a presentation on their experience to their sponsors. Many exchange programs expect students to be able converse in the language of the host country, at least on a basic level. Some programs require students to pass a standardized test for English language comprehension prior to being accepted into a program taking them to the United States. Other programs do not examine language ability. Most exchange students become fluent in the language of the host country within a few months. Some exchange programs, such as the Congress-Bundestag Youth Exchange, KL-YES, FLEX are government-funded programs.

The Council on Standards for International Educational Travel is a not-for-profit organization committed to quality international educational travel and exchange for youth at the high school level.[8]

Application process

Long-term (10 to 12-month) exchange applications and interviews generally take place between a few days to few months depending on program type, host university requirements and destination country in advance of departure, Students generally must be between the ages of 13 and 18. Some programs allow students older than 18 years of age in a specialized work-study program.

Some programs require a preliminary application form with fees, and then schedule interviews and a longer application form. Other programs request a full application from the beginning and then schedule interviews. High school scholarship programs often require a set GPA of around 2.5 or higher. Programs select the candidates most likely to complete the program and serve as the best ambassadors to the foreign nation. Students in some programs, such as Rotary, are expected to go to any location where the organization places them, and students are encouraged not to have strict expectations of their host country. Students are allowed to choose a country, but may live at any spot within that country.

The home country organization will contact a partner organization in the country of the student's choice. Students accepted for the program may or may not be screened by the organization in their home country. Partner organizations in the destination country each have differing levels of screening they require students to pass through before being accepted into their program. For example, students coming to America may be allowed to come on the recommendation of the organization in their home country, or the hosting partner may require the student to submit a detailed application, including previous school report cards, letters from teachers and administrators, and standardized English fluency exam papers. The US agency may then accept or decline the applicant. Some organizations also have Rules of Participation. For example, almost all US organizations cannot allow an exchange student to drive an automobile during their visit. Some organizations require a written contract that sets standards for personal behavior and grades, while others may be less rigorous. Lower cost programs can result in a student participating without a supervisor being available nearby to check on the student's well-being. Programs provided by agencies that provide compensation for representatives are more likely to retain local representatives to assist and guide the student and keep track of their well-being.

Costs

The costs of student exchange are determined by the charges from a student exchange program organisation or the university or college.[9] The costs vary depending on the country, length of study and other personal factors. Different programs through the school/university of choice may offer students scholarships that cover the expenses of travel and accommodation and the personal needs of a student.[10]

Prevalence worldwide

Students study abroad from many countries around the globe. As of 2017, the top 8 countries sending students abroad for tertiary education are as follows:[11]

Rank	Country	Students Studying Abroad
1	China	928,090
2	India	332,033
3	Germany	122,195
4	South Korea	105,399
5	Vietnam	94,662
6	France	89,379
7	US	86,566
8	Nigeria	85,251

Australian context

Australian high school exchange programs

Each state in Australia provides a different program of student exchange for secondary students. The programs from each state are different for whether a student in Australia is looking to study internationally or a student from another country is looking to study in Australia. Student exchange in Australia, depending on the state, might be managed by registered exchange organizations or the school chosen for study must be registered.[9] The countries that are most popular for Australian students to choose to study are, Japan, France, Germany, USA, Italy, Canada, Belgium, Spain and Argentina. The main purpose of student exchange in Australia is to allow students to study, engage and experience a new culture. International students who choose to study in Australia are given different opportunities through the programs at set schools will learn about Australian culture, but also gain English language skills at a high school level.[citation needed]

Australian university students exchange programs

Exchange programs for university students to study abroad vary depending on the university campus offers. International student exchange programs for university students are aimed to enhance students' intercultural skills and knowledge. Student exchange programs for university students allow broadening their knowledge on their study of choice from a different country. This gives university students a chance to develop their work experience by seeing how their studying profession is practiced in another country. International exchange for tertiary students allows them to gain cultural experience in their studies and a chance to travel abroad while completing their degree.[12]

Foreign students in Spain

A series of studies conducted within the last decade found similar results in students studying abroad in Spain for a short-term and/or semester long program. These studies found that students can improve their speaking proficiency during one semester, there is a positive relationship between students' integrative motivation and interaction with second language culture, and student contact with the Spanish language has a great effect on their speaking improvement.[13] It is especially apparent in students who live with host families during their program. Anne Reynolds-Case found improvements in understanding and usage of the *vosotros* form after studying in Spain.[14] One study specifically studies culture perceptions of students studying abroad in Spain. Alan Meredith defines culture as consisting "of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behavior acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievement of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts." Questionnaires were given to students living with host families during a two-month program in Spain. He studies how these groups perceive customs, such as concern for personal appearance, physical contact, cooking styles, politics, etc. The study found a variety of results depending the cultural custom. However, the US students' perceptions most closely aligned with the Young Spaniards (16–22 years old).[15] At the same time, Angela George's study found little significance in the adoption of regional features during their semester abroad.[16] Though most of these studies focused on students who came from America to study in Spain, the United States is not the only one sending their students. Brian Denman's article demonstrates an increase of Saudi student mobility for education, including locations such as Spain.[17]

Drawbacks

Even though exchange students learn to improve themselves through the experience of studying and staying in another country, there are also many difficulties to be encountered. One of them is when exchange students are unable to adapt to pedagogy followed by the host country. Another is conflicts between the host family (who have provided accommodation) and the students, when it cannot be solved by communicating with each other and the student usually will be asked to stay with another host until they find a new match.[citation needed] This process, however, could take time while the students' duration of stay is limited. Even with preparation and knowledge about the new environment, they could still experience culture shock, which can affect them in different ways. Students from a completely different culture[18] can also encounter homesickness for a longer period of time. Transportation can also be a problem, as it is often difficult or impractical for a student to buy a car during a short program. Moreover, students will find it hard to find a job, even part-time since most exchange visas do not allow students to work and it is difficult to obtain one that does. Another potential drawback is health issues that can occur during the stay in a foreign country. Students are advised to always have health insurance while traveling abroad, and carry emergency contact details of their local hosts and of multiple family members as well.[19] Students participating in student exchange programs have sometimes been vulnerable to threats such as terrorism and other crimes. For example, in 1998 a number of US students traveling in Guatemala on a college sponsored trip were attacked in the Santa Lucía Cotzumalguapa area, with the entire group being robbed and physically harassed and threatened, and five of the young women being raped.[20]

Yorum

Öğrenci değişim programları, yetişmesi için bir başka yerde olmasıdır. Ancak bireyler kendi yerlerindeki fertlerin yetişmesini ister, onlara görev vermek isterler. Kurucu Rektör olduğumda Denizli fabrikalarında tek bir stajyer öğrenci göremedim. Makine Mühendisliği ve İnşaat

Bölümü senelerce olmasına karşın, kabul etmediklerini söylediler. Gerekçesi de onlara 1970 yılları makineleri öğretiliyor, bizimkiler ise 1900 yılı olduğu için, bozarlar diye korkuyoruz dediler. Bunun üzerine özel kurslar açtık ve sonuçta stajyerlerin %97'si Üniversite öğrencileri idi.
Ayrıca onların araştırma ve geliştirme merkezleri ile de iş birliği yaparak Uzun süreli yaklaşım da olanaklı hale getirdik.
Onlara staj olarak beceri kazandırma ötesinde, kurulan ilişki ile de onlara katkı ve ilerlemelerinde de destek olduk. Bir bakıma partner olduk.
Başka ülkelerde eğitim görenlerin, ülkelerine faydaları olur mu? İletişim ve ilişki kurmak, onlarla iş birliği yapmak, bir temsilci olarak çalışmaları ile ilgilenmek olursa olur.

Kültürler arası ilişkiler

Hekimlikte her olgu bir farklıdır, empati, yani onun yerine göç etmelisiniz, hekimlikle bağdaşmayı sağlamalısınız. Kısaca hekimlik terzilik, bir bakıma empatik yaparak oluşan onun tarafında olmak, bir bakıma göçtür.

Asistanlık döneminde, daha önce intörn olduğumda bir sekreterin annesi, kan şekeri oldukça yüksek olduğu için, yüksek doz insülin verilmiş ve 2 gün metabolizması ve kendisine gelememişti. Ben gece nöbetçi iken kan şekeri 600mg/dL olmuş, ilaç aldığı için ben kıdemlime konuşarak, sadece şeker düşürücü dozda s.c. insülin yapıp, saatte bir kontrol ettik ve 4 saatte 100mg/dL altına indi, şuur kapanmadı ve gayet mutlu oldular. Ama konsültan beğenmedi, niye kitaba göre yapılmadı diye kızdı. Arkadaş sorunca, biz birey hakkı Kültürüne göre davranıyoruz, o ise Geleneksel Kültüre göre davranıyor. 2 gün toparlanmayan kişi, 4 saatte şekeri düzeldi.
Pediatride düşük doz ve devamlı perfüzyon yaptık. Hocamız devamlı gelip, neticeleri tartışıyorduk. Başasistanlar hocaya asistan devamlı sizinle tartışıyor, yerini mi değiştirelim demişler. Hoca bana geldi, onlar geleneksel yöntem Kültüründe, biz ise araştırmacı, yeniliklere açık bir yapı izliyoruz. Algılamadılar, biz farklı kültürel yapıdayız dedi. Kültürel farklılık dedi.

Yabancı merak edilen ama istenmeyen, daha doğrusu endişe duyulan kişidir. Kültürel yapıya göre sabit ise ne yapacağı belli olur. Karma kültürde ise acaba ne yapacak diye beklenir.

Kültürel yapıları tanımlarsak:

1) **Kabile Kültürü:** Fenerbahçeli isen, o takımın yaptığı ile gurur duyman gerekir. Atatürk ben sporcunun ahlaklısı ve çevik olanı severim demesi ile farklı kültürel boyutu ortaya koymaktadır.
   Hacettepe Birinci Lig takımı idi, bizler de öğrenci olarak tezahürat yapmak için götürdüler. Elimize bir kâğıt verdiler, bunları, yazılı olanları bağıracaksınız dediler.
   Biz bağırıyoruz "hekim, hakem" dedik. Amigo olan kıdemli doktor asistan, baştakini niye okumuyorsunuz, bu hakeme tezahürat oluyor dedi. Biz hekimiz, ağzımızdan bu kelime çıkmaz dedik. Yapmadık. Bize kızma değil, büyük saygı duydu. Sorulunca da kültür farkı dedi.
2) **Tarım Kültürü:** Belirli gelenekler vardır ve hekimlikte bazı protokoller vardır, buna uymak gerekir.
   Bir keresinde bir hoca, bunu yapmayacaktın, bu tetkik gereksiz, seni genel toplantıya çıkaracağım dedi. Ben de gereken cevabı veririm dedim. Başasistanlar devreye girdi, akşam hoca beni odasına çağırdı. Sen kitaplardan okuyup, buna göre yaklaşım

yapıyorsun ama bazı durumlarda tetkik yapmadan, klinik karar vermek gerekir. Bu açıdan kültürel değişim gereklidir demiştir. Kısaca, ayrıca beni tebrik etmiştir.

3) **Endüstri Kültürü:** İşin yapılması için asistan, hekime, hemşireye ihtiyaç vardır. Gelsin çalışsın ve gitsin denilince, çok büyük incinme yaşanır.
   Sınıf arkadaşıma kıdemli olmuştum. Ben senin dediğini yapmam, bana karışamazsın dedi. Peki bu hasta senin ise taktim et, ne yapacağını sen bize söyle dedim.
   Belirli oradan elementel kalsiyum nasıl vereceği, çocuğun almakta direndiğini belirterek, benden yardım istedi. Kalsiyum Laktat, tatsız, tuzsuz ve kötü bir yapıda idi. Ben Kalsiyum Glukonatlı ve içinde tat olan bir preparatı önerdim. Önce kendimiz içtik, beğendik, sonra çocuğa ikram ettik. Aldı ve çok beğendi.
   Sosyal Antropoloji Dersleri aldığımız için, işte kültürel değişim yaşadık dedik.
4) **Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü:** Benim dediğim olacak, diğerlerine emsal olması için sana taviz vermem derler. Anlaşmam derler.
   Anlaşmazsan benimle çatışırsın, bu kültürel çatışma olduğu için yayılır, yaygınlaşır denilir. Bunun üzere bir anlaşma yapılır. Hekimlikte kolaydır, hasta verisi temel v dayanak olmalıdır dersiniz. Hasta memnuniyeti, ilacı beğenmesi de bir faktördür.
5) **Birey Hakkı Kültürü:** Birey Hakkı üstündür, başkasının ne istediği nasıl bilinir, sorman gerekir.

Amerika’da toruna parasetamol aldım, ama muz aromalı imiş, 5 eczane dolaşıp, orman meyvelisini aldım ve kullandı. Diğerini de siz kullanırsınız dedim.

<u>Başlıca Faydaları</u>.

- <u>Birey Hakkı diyerek, haksız talepte bulunmanızı idare ister, yoksa muhalefet olursanız, artık iktidar zulüm etmekte serbestlik hissetmez</u>.
- <u>Kendi askeri ve ekonomik gücü olur, birey hakkını yok etmeyi kime istemez. Savunma yapılırsa yok edemezler</u>. Mekke ve İstanbul hücumlara direnmiştir, ama işgal değil, fetih harekâtı, insanlığın sağlanmasına dayanamamışlardır. Fatih 2 yıl kadar Rum idarecileri değiştirmemiştir. Bu nedenle olayı fetih olarak kavramayanlar, İstanbul Fatih’i yenmiştir demişlerdir.
- <u>Her bireyin kendi çabası ile ekonomik güç ile ana ülkeye katkıları olur</u>. Mevcut paraları ötesinde, kazandıklarını da ana ülkeye yatırım yaparlar. Fikir vermek, birçok boyutun önüne geçebilmektedir.
- <u>Her bir kişi, o ülkenin bayrağı olarak, tek yapı değil, farklı yapı ile uluslararası yapıya kavuşurlar</u>. Etik Kurulda ötenaziye karşı çıkmak, bunu hukuk yolu ile açıklamak, toplumda değişimi sağlar, ilk planda kabul etmeseler bile.
- <u>Doğru artık oy birliği ve oy çokluğu ile değil, bireyin tercihine göre olmaktadır. Çoklu evrensel boyuttadır</u>. Burada evrensel yapının hukuksal boyutuna girilmekte, suç olmadıkça bizler insana karışmamız olanaklı değildir.

<u>Birey Hakkı diyerek, tersini isteyenler</u>.

- <u>Ayırımcılık ile birey hakkı farklıdır, benim hakkım diyerek ayırımcılık istenemez</u>. Bana hakkımı vermiyorlar diyen kişi, sıranın önüne geçmek istemektedir, ama nedeni yoktur, yaşlı, gebe, çocuklu gibi bazı durumları yoktur.
- <u>Sırada durmayanlar var diyen kişi kendisi öncelik istemektedir</u>. Gerekçe, dayanak sorulmalıdır.
- <u>Ben çocuğumu çıkarmak istiyorum, imza verip çıkarayım diyen kişi bebeğe zararı dokunacak ise, zarar durumuna göre hukuki işlem başlatılır</u>. Yenidoğanda

ventilatör istemiyorum diyen anne ve baba Savcılıkta imza vermişler ve tutuklanmışlardır, bebeklerde başka aile veya devlet kurumuna devredilmişlerdir.
Bir asker ben çıkarmak istiyorum dedi, bebek kan kültüründe üreme vardı, 3-5 gün tedavi edilmesi gerekir dedik. Zorla uygulamak isteyince, Hastane kolluk kuvveti bir kişi ile yanına gittim, söyledim. Beni bu kişi tutabilir mi dedi. Elbette tutamaz, ama sen bir hareketin ile meslekten atılır ve çocukta senin elinden alınır dedim. Şiddet sorunu çözmez dedim. Avukat tutmuş, hasta hakkı boyutu ile geldi, yaşam hakkı tartışılmaz, etik değil, varlık hakkıdır dedik, itirazı reddedildi.

NOT: Tüm kültürel ilişkilerde birey Hakkı, tüm kamu kurum ve kuruluşlardan üstündür, ama bunu kabul ettirmek değil, dinlenmeyen yerden göçmek gerekir.
Siz kabul etmeyin, bilin ki, hukuk, birey hakkı temelinde, sizin tarafınızdadır.

Intercultural relations, Wikipedia[5]

Intercultural relations, sometimes called **intercultural studies**, is a relatively new formal field of social science studies. It is a practical, multi-field discipline designed to train its students to understand, communicate, and accomplish specific goals outside their own cultures.[1] Intercultural relations involves, at a fundamental level, learning how to see oneself and the world through the eyes of another. It seeks to prepare students for interaction with cultures both similar to their own (e.g. a separate socioeconomic group in one's own country) or very different from their own (e.g. an American businessman in a small Amazon tribal society).[2] Some aspects of intercultural relations also include, their power and cultural identity with how the relationship should be upheld with other foreign countries.[3]

Nature

The study of intercultural relations incorporates many different academic disciplines. As a field, it is most closely tied to anthropology and sociology, although a degree program in intercultural relations or intercultural studies may also include the study of history, research methods, urban studies, gender studies, public health, many various natural sciences, human development, political science, psychology, religion, missiology, and linguistics or other language training.[4] Often, intercultural programs are designed to translate these academic disciplines into a practical training curricula. Graduate programs will also prepare students for academic research and publication.[5] Especially in today's global and multicultural world, students of intercultural relations can use their training in many fields both internationally and domestically, and often pursue careers in social work, law, community development, religious work, and urban development.[6] Intercultural relations offers the opportunity to direct you in experiencing and learning about the diverse relations within our world.[7]

History

The origins of the practical use of multi-field intercultural relations can be traced back to Christian missionaries seeking to relate the Christian gospel to other cultures in effective, ethical and culturally sensitive ways.[8][9] Many intercultural studies programs are offered at religious institutions as training for missionaries and religiously motivated international development workers, and therefore often include some training in theology and evangelism.[10] However, in an increasingly globalized world, the broader discipline attracts persons from many backgrounds with many different career goals.[11] Bachelor's, master's, and doctorate degrees are offered in the discipline.

Topics

Some of the main topics of study are:

- Anthropology and Sociology
- Culture Theory
- Development of cultural competence
- Analyzing cultural patterns around the world
- World Religions
- Gender Studies
- Strategies for adapting

- Intercultural communication
- Teaching social skills to reduce cultural misunderstandings
- Research methodology in order to produce academic works and increase access to a culture
- Linguistics
- Intercultural relationships
- Interethnic relationships
- Interracial relationships
- Interreligious relationships

Yorum

Kültürler birbirine saygı duyarlarsa, anlaşma zemini yakalarlar.
Bu söze karşın, bu işin yürümediği gözlenecektir. Temel olan bireydir, birey etkilenmeli, birey eleman olmalıdır. Bireyin hakkı temeldir denilince, diğer kültürler karşı çıkacaktır. İlişkiler bozulabilir veya daha çok gelişebilir.
Tarımın Ülkemizde gelişmesi için, Ziraat Fakültelerine uygulama alanları oluşturuldu, daha önemlisi, Devlet Üretme Çiftlikleri kuruldu. Bu merkezlerde çiftçi ile yan yana ekimler yapıldı, buna göre eğitim sağlandı. Fazla gübre atmanın ekini öldürdüğü, toprağa göre atılmasının gerektiği anlaşılmış oldu.

Zamanımızda Devlet Çiftliklerinde 10 litre inek başına süt miktarı değişmemiş, ama çiftçi 60 litre almaktadır. Kısaca o yaklaşım eski dünyada kalmış, halk yeni Evrene göçü yaşamıştır.

Second-language acquisition, Wikipedia[6]

Second-language acquisition (**SLA**), sometimes called **second-language learning** — otherwise referred to as **L2** (**language 2**) **acquisition**, is the process by which people learn a second language. Second-language acquisition is also the scientific discipline devoted to studying that process. The field of second-language acquisition is regarded by some but not everybody as a sub-discipline of applied linguistics but also receives research attention from a variety of other disciplines, such as psychology and education.
A central theme in SLA research is that of *interlanguage:* the idea that the language that learners use is not simply the result of differences between the languages that they already know and the language that they are learning, but a complete language system in its own right, with its own systematic rules. This interlanguage gradually develops as learners are exposed to the targeted language. The order in which learners acquire features of their new language stays remarkably constant, even for learners with different native languages and regardless of whether they have had language instruction. However, languages that learners already know can have a significant influence on the process of learning a new one. This influence is known as *language transfer*.
The primary factor driving SLA appears to be the language input that learners receive. Learners become more advanced the longer they are immersed in the language they are learning and the more time they spend voluntarily reading. The input hypothesis developed by linguist Stephen Krashen theorizes that comprehensible input alone is necessary for second language acquisition. Krashen makes a distinction between language acquisition and language learning (the acquisition–learning distinction),[1] claiming that acquisition is a subconscious process, whereas learning is a conscious one. According to this hypothesis, the acquisition process in L2 (Language 2) is the same as L1 (Language 1) acquisition. Learning, on the other hand, refers to conscious learning and analysis of the language being learned.[2] Krashen argues that consciously learned language rules play a limited role in language use, serving as a monitor that could check second language output for form — assuming the learner has time, sufficient knowledge, and inclination (the monitor hypothesis). Subsequent work, by other researchers, on the interaction hypothesis and the comprehensible output hypothesis, has suggested that opportunities for output and interaction may also be necessary for learners to reach more advanced levels.
Research on how exactly learners acquire a new language spans several different areas. Focus is directed toward providing proof of whether basic linguistic skills are innate (nature), acquired (nurture), or a combination of the two attributes. Cognitive approaches to SLA research deal with the processes in the brain that underpin language acquisition, for example how paying attention to language affects the ability to learn it, or how language acquisition is related to short-term memory and long-term memory. Sociocultural approaches reject the notion that SLA is a purely psychological phenomenon and attempt to explain it in a social context. Some key social

factors that influence SLA are the level of immersion, connection to the L2 community, and gender. Linguistic approaches consider language separately from other kinds of knowledge and attempt to use findings from the wider study of linguistics to explain SLA. There is also a considerable body of research about how SLA can be affected by individual factors such as age and learning strategies. A commonly discussed topic regarding age in SLA is the critical period hypothesis, which suggests that individuals lose the ability to fully learn a language after a particular age in childhood. Another topic of interest in SLA is the differences between adult and child learners. Learning strategies are commonly categorized as learning or communicative strategies and are developed to improve their respective acquisition skills. Affective factors are emotional factors that influence an individual's ability to learn a new language. Common affective factors that influence acquisition are anxiety, personality, social attitudes, and motivation. In the domain of personality, introversion and extroversion in particular can affect learning.

Individuals may also lose a language through a process called second-language attrition. This is often caused by a lack of use or exposure to a language over time. The severity of attrition depends on a variety of factors including level of proficiency, age, social factors, and motivation at the time of acquisition. Finally, classroom research deals with the effect that language instruction has on acquisition.

Definitions

Second language refers to any language learned in addition to a person's first language; although the concept is named *second*-language acquisition, it can also incorporate the learning of third, fourth, or subsequent languages.[3] Second-language acquisition refers to what learners do; it does not refer to practices in language teaching, although teaching can affect acquisition. The term *acquisition* was originally used to emphasize the non-conscious nature of the learning process,[note 1] but in recent years *learning* and *acquisition* have become largely synonymous.

SLA can incorporate heritage language learning,[4] but it does not usually incorporate bilingualism. Most SLA researchers see bilingualism as being the result of learning a language, not the process itself, and see the term as referring to native-like fluency. Writers in fields such as education and psychology, however, often use bilingualism loosely to refer to all forms of multilingualism.[5] SLA is also not to be contrasted with the acquisition of a foreign language; rather, the learning of second languages and the learning of foreign languages involve the same fundamental processes in different situations.[6]

Research background

The academic discipline of second-language acquisition is a sub-discipline of applied linguistics. It is broad-based and relatively new. As well as the various branches of linguistics, second-language acquisition is also closely related to psychology and education. To separate the academic discipline from the learning process itself, the terms *second-language acquisition research*, *second-language studies*, and *second-language acquisition studies* are also used.

SLA research began as an interdisciplinary field; because of this, it is difficult to identify a precise starting date.[7] However, two papers in particular are seen as instrumental to the development of the modern study of SLA: Pit Corder's 1967 essay *The Significance of Learners' Errors* and Larry Selinker's 1972 article *Interlanguage*.[8] The field saw a great deal of development in the following decades.[7] Since the 1980s, SLA has been studied from a variety of disciplinary perspectives, and theoretical perspectives. In the early 2000s, some research suggested an equivalence between the acquisition of human languages and that of computer languages (e.g. Java) by children in the 5 to 11 year age window, though this has not been widely accepted amongst educators.[9] Significant approaches in the field today are systemic functional linguistics, sociocultural theory, cognitive linguistics, Noam Chomsky's universal grammar, skill acquisition theory and connectionism.[8]

There has been much debate about exactly how language is learned and many issues are still unresolved. There are many theories of second-language acquisition, but none are accepted as a complete explanation by all SLA researchers. Due to the interdisciplinary nature of the field of SLA, this is not expected to happen in the foreseeable future. Although attempts have been made to provide a more unified account that tries to bridge first language acquisition and second language learning research.[10]

Stages

Krashen stages

Stephen Krashen divides the process of second-language acquisition into five stages: preproduction, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency.[11][12] The first stage, preproduction, is also known as the silent period. Learners at this stage have a receptive vocabulary of up to 500 words, but they do not yet speak their second language.[12] Not all learners go through a silent period. Some learners start speaking straight away, although their output may consist of imitation rather than creative language use. Others may be required to speak from the start as part of a language course. For learners that do go through a silent period, it may last around three to six months.[13]

The second of Krashen's stages of acquisition is early production, during which learners can speak in short phrases of one or two words. They can also memorize chunks of language, although they may make mistakes when using them. Learners typically have both an active and receptive vocabulary of around 1000 words. This stage normally lasts for around six months.[12]

The third stage is speech emergence. Learners' vocabularies increase to around 3000 words during this stage, and they can communicate using simple questions and phrases. They may often make grammatical errors.

The fourth stage is intermediate fluency. At this stage, learners have a vocabulary of around 6000 words and can use more complicated sentence structures. They are also able to share their thoughts and opinions. Learners may make frequent errors with more complicated sentence structures.

The final stage is advanced fluency, which is typically reached somewhere between five and ten years of learning the language. Learners at this stage can function at a level close to native speakers.[12]

Krashen has also developed several hypotheses discussing the nature of second language learners' thought processes and the development of self-awareness during second language acquisition. The most prominent of these hypotheses are Monitor Theory and the Affective Filter hypothesis.[14]

Kleine and Perdue stages

From the early 1980s, a large research project into SLA was carried over at the Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics, headed by Wolfgang Klein and coordinated by Clive Perdue, which studied *Second Language Acquisition by Adult Immigrants* coming into Europe. The results, published in the early 1990s, proposed that second language acquisition proceeds along three stages: *pre-basic* variety (or *nominal utterance organisation*), basic variety (or *infinite utterance organisation*), and post-basic variety (or *finite utterance organisation*).[15][16][17][18]

The pre-basic stage is usually very short, with a small lexicon of nouns and no verbs. The basic stage sees the introduction of verbs in their basic form not marked for finiteness (like participles). In the third stage functional morphology starts to appear, with the flection of nouns and verbs.[19][20][18]

Language difficulty and learning time

The time taken to reach a high level of proficiency can vary depending on the language learned. In the case of native English speakers, some estimates were provided by the *Foreign Service Institute* (FSI) of the U.S. Department of State — which compiled approximate learning expectations for several languages for their professional staff (native English speakers who generally already know other languages).[21] *Category I Languages* include e.g. Italian and Swedish (24 weeks or 600 class hours) and French (30 weeks or 750 class hours). *Category II Languages* include German, Haitian Creole, Indonesian, Malay, and Swahili (approx. 36 weeks or 900 class hours). *Category III Languages* include a lot of languages like Finnish, Polish, Russian, Tagalog, Vietnamese, and many others (approx. 44 weeks, 1100 class hours).

Of the 63 languages analyzed, the five most difficult languages to reach proficiency in speaking and reading, requiring 88 weeks (2200 class hours, *Category IV Languages*), are Arabic, Cantonese, Mandarin, Japanese, and Korean. The Foreign Service Institute and the National Virtual Translation Center both note that Japanese is typically more difficult to learn than other languages in this group.[22]

There are other rankings of language difficulty as the one by *The British Foreign Office Diplomatic Service Language Centre* which lists the difficult languages in Class I (Cantonese, Japanese, Korean, Mandarin); the easier languages are in Class V (e.g. Afrikaans, Bislama, Catalan, French, Spanish, Swedish).[23]

The bottleneck hypothesis

The bottleneck hypothesis strives to identify components of grammar that are easier or more difficult to acquire than others. It argues that functional morphology is the bottleneck of language acquisition, meaning that it is more difficult than other linguistic domains such as syntax, semantics, and phonology because it combines syntactic, semantic, and phonological features that affect the meaning of a sentence.[24] For example, knowledge of the formation of the past tense in English requires both phonological patterns such as allomorphs at the end of the verb and irregular verb forms. Article acquisition is also difficult for L1 speakers of languages without articles, such as Korean and Russian. One study compared learner judgments of a syntactic feature, V2, and a morphological property, subject-verb agreement, using an acceptability judgment task. Researchers found that while Norwegian speakers who are intermediate and advanced learners of English could successfully assess the grammaticality of V2, they had significantly more difficulty with subject-verb agreement, which is predicted by the bottleneck hypothesis.[25]

Cognitive and scientific reasons for the importance of this theory aside, the bottleneck hypothesis can also be of practical benefit as educators can maximize their time and focus on difficult problems in SLA classroom settings rather than placing attention on concepts that can be grasped with relative ease.

The cumulative effects hypothesis

This hypothesis claims that second-language acquisition may impose extra difficulties on children with specific language impairment (SLI), whose language delay extends into their school years due to deficits in verbal memory and processing mechanisms in comparison to children with typical development (TD). Existing research on individuals with SLI and bilingualism has been limited and thus there is a need for data showing how to support bilingual development in children with SLI. "Cumulative" refers to the combination of the effects of both internal deficits in language learning and external complications in input and experience caused by bilingualism, which could in turn overwhelm the learner with SLI. The theory predicts that bilingual children with SLI will be disadvantaged, falling behind both their monolingual peers with SLI and bilingual peers with TD. Paradis' longitudinal study examined the acquisition of tense morphology over time in children with SLI who are learning English as a second language.[26] The study found that the acquisition profile for children with SLI is similar to those reported for monolinguals with SLI and TD, showing inconsistencies with CEH. This has provided evidence that SLA will not negatively harm children with SLI and could be beneficial.

Comparisons with first-language acquisition

Adults who learn a second language differ from children learning their first language in at least three ways: children are still developing their brains whereas adults have mature minds, and adults have at least a first language that orients their thinking and speaking. Although some adult second-language learners reach very high levels of proficiency, pronunciation tends to be non-native. This lack of native pronunciation in adult learners is explained by the critical period hypothesis. When a learner's speech plateaus, it is known as fossilization.

Some errors that second-language learners make in their speech originate in their first language. For example, Spanish speakers learning English may say "Is raining" rather than "It is raining", leaving out the subject of the sentence. This kind of influence of the first language on the second is known as *negative* language transfer. French speakers learning English, however, do not usually make the same mistake of leaving out "it" in "It is raining." This is because pronominal and impersonal sentence subjects can be omitted (or as in this case, are not used in the first place) in Spanish but not in French.[27] The French speaker knowing to use a pronominal sentence subject when speaking English is an example of *positive* language transfer. Not all errors occur in the same ways; even two individuals with the same native language learning the same second language still have the potential to utilize different parts of their native language. Likewise, these same two individuals may develop near-native fluency in different forms of grammar.[28] Another error that can occur is called language convergence. This can occur for children acquiring a second language. The grammar structures or common grammatical patterns of one language may influence another. In a study, Singaporean elementary school students who were learning both English and Mandarin showed signs of language convergence. In this study, these students showed a preference for using grammatical patterns common in Mandarin when speaking English.[29] Language convergence occurs because the children are not only acquiring the grammar of the new language but still developing the grammar of their native language, so the two grammars converge.

Also, when people learn a second language, the way they speak their first language changes in subtle ways. These changes can be with any aspect of language, from pronunciation and syntax to the gestures the learner makes and the language features they tend to notice.[30] For example, French speakers who spoke English as a second language pronounced the /t/ sound in French differently from monolingual French speakers.[31] This kind of change in pronunciation has been found even at the onset of second-language acquisition; for example, English speakers pronounced the English /p t k/ sounds, as well as English vowels, differently after they began to learn Korean.[32] These effects of the second language on the first led Vivian Cook to propose the idea of multi-competence, which sees the different languages a person speaks not as separate systems, but as related systems in their mind.[33]

Learner language

Learner language is the written or spoken language produced by a learner. It is also the main type of data used in second-language acquisition research.[34] Much research in second-language acquisition is concerned with the internal representation of a language in the mind of the learner, and how those representations change over time. It is not yet possible to inspect these representations directly with brain scans or similar techniques, so SLA researchers are forced to make inferences about these rules from learners' speech or writing.[35]

Interlanguage

Originally, attempts to describe learner language were based on comparing different languages and on analyzing learners' errors. However, these approaches were unable to predict all the errors that learners made when in the process of learning a second language. For example, Serbo-Croat speakers learning English may say "What does Pat doing now?", although this is not a valid sentence in either language.[36] Additionally, Yip found that ergative verbs in English are regularly mis-passivized by L2 learners of English whose first language is Mandarin.[37] For instance, even advanced learners may form utterances such as "what was happened?" despite the fact that this construction has no obvious source in either L1 or L2. This could be because L2 speakers interpret ergatives as transitive, as these are the only types of verbs that allow passivization in English.

To explain this kind of systematic error, the idea of the *interlanguage* was developed.[38] An interlanguage is an emerging language system in the mind of a second-language learner. A learner's interlanguage is not a deficient version of the language being learned filled with random errors, nor is it a language purely based on errors introduced from the learner's first language. Rather, it is a language in its own right, with its own systematic rules.[39] It is possible to view most aspects of language from an interlanguage perspective, including grammar, phonology, lexicon, and pragmatics.

Three different processes influence the creation of interlanguages:[36]

- *Language transfer*. Learners fall back on their mother tongue to help create their language system. Transfer can be positive, i.e., promote learning, or negative, i.e., lead to mistakes. In the latter case, linguists also use the term interference error.
- *Overgeneralization*. Learners use rules from the second language in roughly the same way that children overgeneralize in their first language. For example, a learner may say "I goad home", overgeneralizing the English rule of adding *-ed* to create past tense verb forms. English children also produce forms like *goad*, *sticked*, and *binged*. German children equally overextend regular past tense forms to irregular forms.
- *Simplification*. Learners use a highly simplified form of language, similar to speech by children or in pidgins. This may be related to linguistic universals.

The concept of interlanguage has become very widespread in SLA research and is often a basic assumption made by researchers.[39]

Sequences in the acquisition of English inflectional morphology

1. Plural *-s*	*Girls go.*
2. Progressive *-ing*	*Girls going.*
3. Copula forms of *be*	*Girls are here.*
4. Auxiliary forms of *be*	*Girls are going.*
5. Definite and indefinite articles *the* and *a*	*The girls go.*
6. Irregular past tense	*The girls went.*
7. Third person *-s*	*The girl goes.*
8. Possessive *'s*	*The girl's book.*

A typical order of acquisition for English, according to Vivian Cook's 2008 book *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*.[40]

In the 1970s, several studies investigated the order in which learners acquired different grammatical structures.[note 2] These studies showed that there was little change in this order among learners with different first languages. Furthermore, it showed that the order was the same for adults and children and that it did not even change if the learner had language lessons. This supported the idea that there were factors other than language transfer involved in learning second languages and was a strong confirmation of the concept of interlanguage.

However, the studies did not find that the orders were the same. Although there were remarkable similarities in the order in which all learners learned second-language grammar, there were still some differences between individuals and learners with different first languages. It is also difficult to tell when exactly a grammatical structure has been learned, as learners may use structures correctly in some situations but not in others. Thus, it is more accurate to speak of *sequences* of acquisition, in which specific grammatical features in a language are acquired before or after certain others but the overall order of acquisition is less rigid. For example, if neither feature B nor feature D can be acquired until feature A has been acquired (feature B and D depend on A) and feature C depends on B, but D does not depend on B (or, therefore, on C), then acquisition orders (A, B, C, D) and (A, D, B, C) are possible, as they are both valid topological orderings.

Learnability and teachability

Learnability has emerged as a theory explaining developmental sequences that crucially depend on learning principles, which are viewed as fundamental mechanisms of language acquisition within learnability theory.[41] Some examples of learning principles include the uniqueness principle and the subset principle. The uniqueness principle refers to learners' preference for a one-to-one mapping between form and meaning, while the subset principle posits that learners are conservative in that they begin with the narrowest hypothesis space that is compatible with available data. Both of these principles have been used to explain children's ability to evaluate grammaticality despite the lack of explicit negative evidence. They have also been used to explain errors in SLA, as the creation of supersets could signal over-generalization, causing acceptance or production of ungrammatical sentences.[37]

Pienemann's teachability hypothesis is based on the idea that there is a hierarchy of stages of acquisition and instruction in SLA should be compatible with learners' current acquisitional status.[42] Recognizing learners' developmental stages is important as it enables teachers to predict and classify learning errors. This hypothesis predicts that L2 acquisition can only be promoted when learners are ready to acquire given items in a natural context. One goal of learnability theory is to figure out which linguistic phenomena are susceptible to fossilization, wherein some L2 learners continue to make errors despite the presence of relevant input.

Variability

Although second-language acquisition proceeds in discrete sequences, it does not progress from one step of a sequence to the next in an orderly fashion. There can be considerable variability in features of learners' interlanguage while progressing from one stage to the next.[43] For example, in one study by Rod Ellis, a learner used both "No look my card" and "Don't look my card" while playing a game of bingo.[44] A small fraction of variation in interlanguage is *free variation*, when the learner uses two forms interchangeably. However, most variation is *systemic variation*, a variation that depends on the context of utterances the learner makes.[43] Forms can vary depending on the linguistic context, such as whether the subject of a sentence is a pronoun or a noun; they can vary depending on social contexts, such as using formal expressions with superiors and informal expressions with friends; and also, they can vary depending on the psycholinguistic context, or in other words, on whether learners have the chance to plan what they are going to say.[43] The causes of variability are a matter of great debate among SLA researchers.[44]

Language transfer

One important difference between first-language acquisition and second-language acquisition is that the process of second-language acquisition is influenced by languages that the learner already knows. This influence is known as *language transfer*.[note 3] Language transfer is a complex phenomenon resulting from the interaction between learners' prior linguistic knowledge, the target-language input they encounter, and their cognitive processes.[45] Language transfer is not always from the learner's native language; it can also be from a second language or a third.[45] Neither is it limited to any particular domain of language; language transfer can occur in grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, discourse, and reading.[46]

Language transfer often occurs when learners sense a similarity between a feature of a language they already know and a feature of the interlanguage they have developed. If this happens, the acquisition of more complicated language forms may be delayed in favor of simpler language forms that resemble those of the language the learner is familiar with.[45] Learners may also decline to use some language forms at all if they are perceived as being too distant from their first language.[45]

Language transfer has been the subject of several studies, and many aspects of it remain unexplained.[45] Various hypotheses have been proposed to explain language transfer, but there is no single widely accepted explanation of why it occurs.[47]

Some linguists prefer to use cross-linguistic influence to describe this phenomenon. Studies on bilingual children find bidirectional cross-linguistic influence; for example, Nicoladis (2012) reported that bilingual children aged three to four produce French-like periphrastic constructions e.g. "the hat of the dog" and ungrammatical English-like reversed possessive structures e.g. "*chien chapeau*" (dog hat) significantly more than their monolingual peers.[48] Though periphrastic constructions are expected as they are grammatical in both English and French, reversed possessives in French are ungrammatical and thus unexpected.

In a study exploring cross-linguistic influence in word order by comparing Dutch-English bilingual and English monolingual children, Unsworth found that bilingual children were more likely to accept incorrect V2 word orders in English than monolinguals with both auxiliary and main verbs. Dominance was a predictor of this phenomenon;

Dutch-dominant children showed less sensitivity to word order than English-dominant ones, though this effect was small and there was individual variation.[49]

Language dominance

The term language dominance can be defined in terms of differences in frequency of use and differences in proficiency in bilinguals.[50] How basic or advanced a speaker's L2 level will be is determined by a complex range of environmental, individual and other factors. Language dominance may change over time through the process of language attrition, in which some L2 skills begin to match or even overtake those of L1.[51] Research suggests a correlation between amount of language exposure and cross-linguistic influence; language dominance is considered to have an impact on the direction of transfer.[50][52] One study found that transfer is asymmetrical and predicted by dominance, as Cantonese dominant children showed clear syntactic transfer in many areas of grammar from Cantonese to English but not vice versa.[50] MLU, mean length of utterance, is a common measurement of linguistic productivity and language dominance in children.

Input and interaction

The primary factor affecting language acquisition appears to be the input that the learner receives. Stephen Krashen took a very strong position on the importance of input, asserting that comprehensible input is all that is necessary for second-language acquisition.[53][54] Krashen pointed to studies showing that the length of time a person stays in a foreign country is closely linked with their level of language acquisition. Further evidence for input comes from studies on reading: large amounts of free voluntary reading have a significant positive effect on learners' vocabulary, grammar, and writing.[55][56] Input is also the mechanism by which people learn languages according to the universal grammar model.[57]

The type of input may also be important. One tenet of Krashen's theory is that input should not be grammatically sequenced. He claims that such sequencing, as found in language classrooms where lessons involve practicing a "structure of the day", is not necessary, and may even be harmful.[58]

While input is of vital importance, Krashen's assertion that *only* input matters in second-language acquisition has been contradicted by more recent research. For example, students enrolled in French-language immersion programs in Canada still produced non-native-like grammar when they spoke, even though they had years of meaning-focused lessons and their listening skills were statistically native-level.[59] Output appears to play an important role, and among other things, can help provide learners with feedback, make them concentrate on the form of what they are saying, and help them to automatize their language knowledge.[60] These processes have been codified in the theory of comprehensible output.[61]

Researchers have also pointed to interaction in the second language as being important for acquisition. According to Long's interaction hypothesis the conditions for acquisition are especially good when interacting in the second language; specifically, conditions are good when a communication breakdown occurs and learners must negotiate for meaning. The modifications to speech arising from interactions like this help make input more comprehensible, provide feedback to the learner, and push learners to modify their speech.[62]

Factors and approaches to SLA

Cognitive factors

Much modern research in second-language acquisition has taken a cognitive approach.[63] Cognitive research is concerned with the mental processes involved in language acquisition, and how they can explain the nature of learners' language knowledge. This area of research is based in the more general area of cognitive science and uses many concepts and models used in more general cognitive theories of learning. As such, cognitive theories view second-language acquisition as a special case of more general learning mechanisms in the brain. This puts them in direct contrast with linguistic theories, which posit that language acquisition uses a unique process different from other types of learning.[64][65]

The dominant model in cognitive approaches to second-language acquisition, and indeed in all second-language acquisition research, is the computational model.[65] The computational model involves three stages. In the first stage, learners retain certain features of the language input in short-term memory. (This retained input is known as *intake*.) Then, learners convert some of this intake into second-language knowledge, which is stored in long-term memory. Finally, learners use this second-language knowledge to produce spoken output.[66] Cognitive theories attempt to codify both the nature of the mental representations of intake and language knowledge and the mental processes that underlie these stages.

In the early days of second-language acquisition research on interlanguage was seen as the basic representation of second-language knowledge; however, more recent research has taken several different approaches in characterizing the mental representation of language knowledge.[67] Some theories hypothesize that learner language is inherently variable,[68] and there is the functionalist perspective that sees the acquisition of language as intimately tied to the function it provides.[69] Some researchers make the distinction between *implicit* and *explicit* language knowledge, and some between *declarative* and *procedural* language knowledge.[70] There have also been approaches that argue for a *dual-mode system* in which some language knowledge is stored as rules and other language knowledge as items.[71]

The mental processes that underlie second-language acquisition can be broken down into micro-processes and macro-processes. Micro-processes include attention;[72] working memory;[73] integration and restructuring. Restructuring is the process by which learners change their interlanguage systems;[74] and *monitoring* is the conscious attending of learners to their own language output.[75] Macro-processes include the distinction between intentional learning and incidental learning; and also the distinction between explicit and implicit learning.[76] Some of the notable cognitive theories of second-language acquisition include the nativization model, the multidimensional model[77] and processability theory, emergentist models, the competition model, and skill-acquisition theories.[78]

Other cognitive approaches have looked at learners' speech production, particularly learners' speech planning and communication strategies. Speech planning can affect learners' spoken output, and research in this area has focused on how planning affects three aspects of speech: complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Of these three, planning effects on fluency have had the most research attention.[79] Communication strategies are conscious strategies that learners employ to get around any instances of communication breakdown they may experience. Their effect on second-language acquisition is unclear, with some researchers claiming they help it, and others claiming the opposite.[80]

An important idea in recent cognitive approaches is the way that learning itself changes over development. For example, connectionist models that explain L1 language phenomena in different languages (e.g., Japanese, English [81]) can also be used to develop L2 models by first training on the L1 (e.g., Korean) and then training on the L2 (e.g. English).[82] By using different learning rates for syntax and lexical learning that change over development, the model can explain sensitive period effects and differences in the effect of language exposure on different types of learners.

Sociocultural factors

From the early days of the discipline, researchers have also acknowledged that social aspects play an important role.[83] There have been many different approaches to the sociolinguistic study of second-language acquisition, and indeed, according to Rod Ellis, this plurality has meant that "sociolinguistic SLA is replete with a bewildering set of terms referring to the social aspects of L2 acquisition".[84] Common to each of these approaches, however, is a rejection of language as a purely psychological phenomenon; instead, sociolinguistic research views the social context in which language is learned as essential for a proper understanding of the acquisition process.[85]

Ellis identifies three types of social structures that affect the acquisition of second languages: sociolinguistic setting, specific social factors, and situational factors.[86] Sociolinguistic setting refers to the role of the second language in society, such as whether it is spoken by a majority or a minority of the population, whether its use is widespread or restricted to a few functional roles, or whether the society is predominantly bilingual or monolingual.[87] Ellis also includes the distinction of whether the second language is learned in a natural or an educational setting.[88] Specific social factors that can affect second-language acquisition include age, gender, social class, and ethnic identity, with ethnic identity being the one that has received most research attention.[89] Situational factors are those that vary between each social interaction. For example, a learner may use more polite language when talking to someone of higher social status, but more informal language when talking with friends.[90]

Immersion programs provide a sociolinguistic setting that facilitates second-language acquisition. Immersion programs are educational programs where children are instructed in an L2 language.[91] Although the language of instruction is the L2 language, the curriculum parallels that of non-immersion programs and clear support exists in the L1 language, as the teachers are all bilingual. The goal of these programs is to develop a high level of proficiency in both the L1 and L2 languages. Students in immersion programs have been shown to have greater levels of proficiency in their second language than students who receive second language education only as a subject in school.[91] This is especially true in terms of their receptive skills. Also, students who join immersion programs earlier generally have greater second-language proficiency than their peers who join later. However, students who join later have been shown to gain native-like proficiency. Although immersion students' receptive skills are especially strong, their productive skills may suffer if they spend the majority of their time listening to instruction only. Grammatical skills and the ability to have precise vocabulary are particular areas of struggle. It is argued that immersion is necessary, but not sufficient for the development of native-like proficiency in a second language.[91] Opportunities to engage in sustained conversation, and assignments that encourage syntactical, as well as semantic development help develop the productive skills necessary for bilingual proficiency.[91]

A learner's sense of connection to their in-group, as well as to the community of the target language emphasizes the influence of the sociolinguistic setting, as well as social factors within the second-language acquisition process. Social Identity Theory argues that an important factor for second language acquisition is the learner's perceived identity to the community of the language being learned, as well as how the community of the target language perceives the learner.[92] Whether or not a learner feels a sense of connection to the community or culture of the target language helps determine their social distance from the target culture. A smaller social distance is likely to encourage learners to acquire the second language, as their investment in the learning process is greater. Conversely, a greater social distance discourages attempts to acquire the target language. However, negative views not only come from the learner, but the community of the target language might feel greater social distance from the learner, limiting the learner's ability to learn the language.[92] Whether or not bilingualism is valued by the culture or community of the learner is an important indicator of the motivation to learn a language.[93]

Gender, as a social factor, also influences SLA. Females have been found to have higher motivation and more positive attitudes than males for second-language acquisition. However, females are also more likely to present higher levels of anxiety, which may inhibit their ability to efficiently learn a new language.[94]

There have been several models developed to explain social effects on language acquisition. Schumann's Acculturation Model proposes that learners' rate of development and ultimate level of language achievement is a function of the "social distance" and the "psychological distance" between learners and the second-language community. In Schumann's model, the social factors are most important, but the degree to which learners are comfortable with learning the second language also plays a role.[95] Another sociolinguistic model is Gardner's socio-educational model, which was designed to explain classroom language acquisition. Gardner's model focuses on the emotional aspects of SLA, arguing that positive motivation contributes to an individual's willingness to learn L2; furthermore, the goal of an individual to learn an L2 is based on the idea that the individual has a desire to be part of a culture, in other words, part of a (the targeted language) mono-linguistic community. Factors, such as *integrativeness* and *attitudes towards the learning situation* drive motivation. The outcome of positive motivation is not only linguistic but non-linguistic, such that the learner has met the desired goal. Although there are many critics of Gardner's model, nonetheless many of these critics have been influenced by the merits that his model holds.[96] [97] The inter-group model proposes "ethnolinguistic vitality" as a key construct for second-language acquisition.[98] Language socialization is an approach with the premise that "linguistic and cultural knowledge are *constructed* through each other",[99] and saw increased attention after the year 2000.[100] Finally, Norton's theory of social identity is an attempt to codify the relationship between power, identity, and language acquisition.[101]

A unique approach to SLA is Sociocultural theory. It was originally developed by Lev Vygotsky and his followers.[102] Central to Vygotsky's theory is the concept of a zone of proximal development (ZPD). The ZPD notion states that social interaction with more advanced target language users allows one to learn a language at a higher level than if they were to learn a language independently.[103] Sociocultural theory has a fundamentally different set of assumptions to approaches to second-language acquisition based on the computational model.[104] Furthermore, although it is closely affiliated with other social approaches, it is a theory of mind and not of general social explanation of language acquisition. According to Ellis, "It is important to recognize... that this paradigm, despite the label 'sociocultural' does not seek to explain how learners acquire the cultural values of the L2 but rather how knowledge of an L2 is internalized through experiences of a sociocultural nature."[104]

Linguistic factors

Linguistic approaches to explaining second-language acquisition spring from the wider study of linguistics. They differ from cognitive approaches and sociocultural approaches in that they consider linguistic knowledge to be unique and distinct from any other type of knowledge.[64][65] The linguistic research tradition in second-language acquisition has developed in relative isolation from the cognitive and sociocultural research traditions, and as of 2010 the influence from the wider field of linguistics was still strong.[63] Two main strands of research can be identified in the linguistic tradition: generative approaches informed by universal grammar, and typological approaches.[105]

Typological universals are principles that hold for all the world's languages. They are found empirically, by surveying different languages and deducing which aspects of them could be universal; these aspects are then checked against other languages to verify the findings. The interlanguages of second-language learners have been shown to obey typological universals, and some researchers have suggested that typological universals may constrain interlanguage development.[106]

The theory of universal grammar was proposed by Noam Chomsky in the 1950s and has enjoyed considerable popularity in the field of linguistics. It focuses on describing the linguistic competence of an individual. He believed that children not only acquire language by learning descriptive rules of grammar; he claimed that children *creatively* play and form words as they learn language, creating meaning of these words, as opposed to the mechanism of memorizing language.[107] It consists of a set of *principles*, which are universal and constant, and a set of *parameters*, which can be set differently for different languages.[108] The "universals" in universal grammar differ from typological universals in that they are a mental construct derived by researchers, whereas typological universals are readily verifiable by data from world languages.[106] It is widely accepted among researchers in the universal grammar framework that all first-language learners have access to universal grammar; this is not the case for second-language learners, however, and much research in the context of second-language acquisition has focused on what level of access learners may have.[108] there is an ongoing debate among generative linguists surrounding whether L2 users have full or partial access to universal grammar. This can be seen through acceptability judgment tests. For example, one study found that during a comprehension task, while English L1 speakers learning Spanish may accept the imperfect aspect in appropriate conditions, even at higher levels of proficiency, they do not reject the use of the Preterite tense in continuous and habitual contexts.[109]
Universal grammar theory can account for some of the observations of SLA research. For example, L2 users often display knowledge about their L2 that they have not been exposed to.[110] L2 users are often aware of ambiguous or ungrammatical L2 units that they have not learned from any external source, nor their pre-existing L1 knowledge. This unsourced knowledge suggests the existence of a universal grammar. Another piece of evidence that generative linguists tend to use is the poverty of the stimulus, which states that children acquiring language lack sufficient data to fully acquire all facets of grammar in their language, causing a mismatch between input and output.[111] The fact that children are only exposed to positive evidence yet have intuition about which word strings are ungrammatical may also be indicative of universal grammar. However, L2 learners have access to negative evidence as they are explicitly taught about ungrammaticality through corrections or grammar teaching.[111]

Individual variation

There is considerable variation in the rate at which people learn second languages, and in the language level that they ultimately reach. Some learners learn quickly and reach a near-native level of competence, but others learn slowly and get stuck at relatively early stages of acquisition, despite living in the country where the language is spoken for several years. The reason for this disparity was first addressed with the study of language learning aptitude in the 1950s, and later with the *good language learner studies* in the 1970s. More recently research has focused on several different factors that affect individuals' language learning, in particular strategy use, social and societal influences, personality, motivation, and anxiety. The relationship between age and the ability to learn languages has also been a subject of long-standing debate.

Age

The issue of age was first addressed with the critical period hypothesis.[note 4] The strict version of this hypothesis states that there is a cut-off age at about 12, after which learners lose the ability to fully learn a language. However, the exact age marking the end of the critical period is debated, and ranges from age 6 to 13, with many arguing that it is around the onset of puberty.[92] This strict version has since been rejected for second-language acquisition, as some adult and adolescent learners have been observed who reach native-like levels of pronunciation and general fluency faster than young children. However, in general, adolescent and adult learners of a second language rarely achieve the native-like fluency that children who acquire both languages from birth display, despite often progressing faster in the initial stages. This has led to speculation that age is indirectly related to other, more central factors that affect language learning.
Children who acquire two languages from birth are called simultaneous bilinguals. In these cases, both languages are spoken to the children by their parents or caregivers and they grow up knowing the two languages. These children generally reach linguistic milestones at the same time as their monolingual peers.[112] Children who do not learn two languages from infancy, but learn one language from birth, and another at some point during childhood, are referred to as sequential bilinguals. People often assume that a sequential bilingual's first language is their most proficient language, but this is not always the case. Over time and experience, a child's second language may become his or her strongest.[112] This is especially likely to happen if a child's first language is a minority language spoken at home, and the child's second language is the majority language learned at school or in the community before the age of five. Proficiency for both simultaneous and sequential bilinguals is dependent upon the child's opportunities to engage in meaningful conversations in a variety of contexts.[112]

Often simultaneous bilinguals are more proficient in their languages than sequential bilinguals. One argument for this is that simultaneous bilinguals develop more distinct representations of their languages, especially with regards to phonological and semantic levels of processing.[113] This would cause learners to have more differentiation between the languages, leading them to be able to recognize the subtle differences between the languages that less proficient learners would struggle to recognize. Learning a language earlier in life would help develop these distinct representations of language, as the learner's first language would be less established. Conversely, learning a language later in life would lead to more similar semantic representations.[113]

Although child learners more often acquire native-like proficiency, older child and adult learners often progress faster in the initial stages of learning.[114] Older child and adult learners are quicker at acquiring the initial grammar knowledge than child learners, however, with enough time and exposure to the language, children surpass their older peers. Once surpassed, older learners often display clear language deficiencies compared to child learners. This has been attributed to having a solid grasp of the first language or mother tongue they were first immersed into. Having this cognitive ability already developed can aid the process of learning a second language since there is a better understanding of how language works.[115] For this same reason interaction with family and further development of the first language is encouraged along with positive reinforcement. The exact language deficiencies that occur past a certain age are not unanimously agreed upon. Some believe that only pronunciation is affected, while others believe other abilities are affected as well. However, some differences that are generally agreed upon include older learners having a noticeable accent, a smaller vocabulary, and making several linguistic errors.

One explanation for this difference in proficiency between older learners and younger learners involves Universal Grammar. Universal Grammar is a debated theory that suggests that people have an innate knowledge of universal linguistic principles that is present from birth.[114] These principles guide children as they learn a language, but its parameters vary from language to language.[116] The theory assumes that, while Universal Grammar remains into adulthood, the ability to reset the parameters set for each language is lost, making it more difficult to learn a new language proficiently.[114] Since older learners would already have an established native language, the language acquisition process is very different for them, than for young learners. The rules and principles that guide the use of the learners' native language play a role in the way the second language is developed.[116]

Some nonbiological explanations for second-language acquisition age differences include variations in social and psychological factors, such as motivation; the learner's linguistic environment; and the level of exposure. Even with less advantageous nonbiological influences, many young children attain a greater level of proficiency in their second language than older learners with more advantageous nonbiological influences.[114]

Strategies

Considerable attention has been paid to the strategies learners use to learn a second language. Strategies are of critical importance, so much so that *strategic competence* has been suggested as a major component of communicative competence.[117] Strategies are commonly divided into *learning strategies* and *communicative strategies*, although there are other ways of categorizing them. Learning strategies are techniques used to improve learning, such as mnemonics or using a dictionary. Communicative strategies are strategies a learner uses to convey meaning even when he or she doesn't have access to the correct form, such as using pro-forms like *thing*, or using non-verbal means such as gestures. If learning strategies and communicative strategies are used properly language acquisition is successful. Some points to keep in mind while learning an additional language are: providing information that is of interest to the student, offering opportunities for the student to share their knowledge, and teaching appropriate techniques for the uses of the learning resources available.[118]

Another strategy may include intentional ways to acquire or improve their second language skills. Adult immigrants and/or second language learners seeking to acquire a second language can engage in different activities to receive and share knowledge as well as improve their learning; some of these include:

- incidental or informal learning (*media resources, family/friend interactions, work interactions*)
- purposeful learning (*self-study, taking language classes*)
- pursuing formal education [119]

Affective factors

The learner's attitude to the learning process has also been identified as being critically important to second-language acquisition. Anxiety in language-learning situations has been almost unanimously shown to be detrimental to successful learning. Anxiety interferes with the mental processing of language because the demands of anxiety-related thoughts create competition for mental resources. This results in less available storage and energy for tasks required for language processing.[120] Not only this, but anxiety is also usually accompanied by self-deprecating thoughts and fear of failure, which can be detrimental to an individual's ability to learn a new language.[94] Learning a new language provides a unique situation that may even produce a specific type of anxiety, called language anxiety, that affects the quality of acquisition.[121] Also, anxiety may be detrimental for SLA because it can influence a learner's ability to attend to, concentrate on, and encode language information.[94] It may affect the speed and accuracy of learning. Further, the apprehension created as a result of anxiety inhibits the learner's ability to retrieve and produce the correct information.

A related factor, personality, has also received attention. There has been discussion about the effects of extravert and introvert personalities. Extraverted qualities may help learners seek out opportunities and people to assist with L2 learning, whereas introverts may find it more difficult to seek out such opportunities for interaction.[92] However, it has also been suggested that, while extraverts might experience greater fluency, introverts are likely to make fewer linguistic errors. Further, while extraversion might be beneficial through its encouragement of learning autonomously, it may also present challenges as learners may find reflective and time-management skills to be difficult.[122] However, one study has found that there were no significant differences between extroverts and introverts in the way they achieve success in a second language.[123]

Other personality factors, such as conscientiousness, agreeableness, and openness influence self-regulation, which helps L2 learners engage, process meaning, and adapt their thoughts, feelings, and actions to benefit the acquisition process.[122] SLA research has shown conscientiousness to be associated with time-management skills, metacognition, analytic learning, and persistence; agreeableness to effort; and openness to elaborative learning, intelligence, and metacognition. Both genetics and the learner's environment impact the personality of the learner, either facilitating or hindering an individual's ability to learn.

Social attitudes such as gender roles and community views toward language learning have also proven critical. Language learning can be severely hampered by cultural attitudes, with a frequently cited example being the difficulty of Navajo children in learning English[*citation needed*].

Also, the motivation of the individual learner is of vital importance to the success of language learning. Motivation is influenced by goal salience, valence, and self-efficacy.[124] In this context, goal salience is the importance of the L2 learner's goal, as well as how often the goal is pursued; valence is the value the L2 learner places on SLA, determined by the desire to learn and attitudes about learning the L2; and self-efficacy is the learner's own belief that he or she is capable of achieving the linguistic goal.[124] Studies have consistently shown that *intrinsic motivation*, or a genuine interest in the language itself, is more effective over the long term than *extrinsic motivation*, as in learning a language for a reward such as high grades or praise. However, motivation is dynamic and, as an L2 learner's fluency develops, their extrinsic motivation may evolve to become more intrinsic.[124] Learner motivation can develop through contact with the L2 community and culture, as learners often desire to communicate and identify with individuals in the L2 community. Further, a supportive learning environment facilitates motivation through the increase in self-confidence and autonomy.[124] Learners in a supportive environment are more often willing to take on challenging tasks, thus encouraging L2 development.

Attrition

Attrition is the loss of proficiency in a language caused by a lack of exposure to or use of a language.[92] It is a natural part of the language experience as it exists within a dynamic environment.[125] As the environment changes, the language adapts. One way it does this is by using L1 as a tool to navigate the periods of change associated with acquisition and attrition. A learner's L2 is not suddenly lost with disuse, but its communicative functions are slowly replaced by those of the L1.[125]

Similar to second-language acquisition, second-language attrition occurs in stages. However, according to the regression hypothesis, the stages of attrition occur in reverse order of acquisition. With acquisition, receptive skills develop first, and then productive skills, and with attrition, productive skills are lost first, and then receptive skills.[125]

Age, proficiency level, and social factors play a role in the way attrition occurs.[125] Most often younger children are quicker than adults to lose their L2 when it is left unused. However, if a child has established a high level of proficiency, it may take them several years to lose the language. Proficiency level seems to play the largest role in the extent of attrition. For very proficient individuals, there is a period where very little, if any, attrition is observed. For some, residual learning might even occur, which is the apparent improvement within the L2.[125] Within the first five years of language disuse, the total percentage of language knowledge lost is less for a proficient individual than for someone less proficient. A cognitive psychological explanation for this suggests that a higher level of proficiency involves the use of schemas, or mental representations for linguistic structures. Schemas involve deeper mental processes for mental retrieval that are resistant to attrition. As a result, information that is tied to this system is less likely to experience less extreme attrition than information that is not.[125] Finally, social factors may play an indirect role in attrition. In particular, motivation and attitude influence the process.

Higher levels of motivation and a positive attitude toward the language and the corresponding community may lessen attrition. This is likely due to the higher level of competence achieved in L2 when the learner is motivated and has a positive attitude.[125]

Classroom second-language acquisition

While considerable SLA research has been devoted to language learning in a natural setting, there have also been efforts made to investigate second-language acquisition in the classroom. This kind of research has a significant overlap with language education, and it is mainly concerned with the effect that instruction has on the learner. It also explores what teachers do, the classroom context, and the dynamics of classroom communication. It is both qualitative and quantitative research.

The research has been wide-ranging. There have been attempts made to systematically measure the effectiveness of language teaching practices for every level of language, from phonetics to pragmatics, and for almost every current teaching methodology. This research has indicated that many traditional language-teaching techniques are extremely inefficient.[126] Cited in Ellis 1994 It is generally agreed that pedagogy restricted to teaching grammar rules and vocabulary lists does not give students the ability to use the L2 with accuracy and fluency. Rather, to become proficient in the second language, the learner must be given opportunities to use it for communicative purposes.[127][128]

Another area of research has been on the effects of corrective feedback in assisting learners. This has been shown to vary depending on the technique used to correct, and the overall focus of the classroom, whether on formal accuracy or communication of meaningful content.[129][130][131] There is also considerable interest in supplementing published research with approaches that engage language teachers in action research on learner language in their own classrooms.[132] As teachers become aware of the features of learner language produced by their students, they can refine their pedagogical intervention to maximize interlanguage development.[133]

If one wishes to acquire a language in a classroom setting only, one needs to consider the category of the language one wishes to acquire; the category of the desired language will determine how many hours or weeks to devote to study.

There are three main categories of languages. Category I languages are “cognate languages” like French, Spanish, and Swedish; category II languages are Finnish, Russian, and Vietnamese; category III languages are Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, and Korean. As such, the languages are categorized by their similarity to English. Respectively, category I languages require 24 weeks or 600 classroom hours to achieve proficiency; category II languages require 44 weeks or 1,100 hours; category III languages require 88 weeks or 2,200 hours .[134]

Moreover, one can achieve proficiency in a foreign language in a classroom setting so long as one acknowledges the time commitment necessary.

Yorum

Yukarıda bilgi sunulmuş, ancak Yazar olarak kendi görüşümü sunacağım.

Yabancı dil veya ikinci dil olarak bakarsanız onu ötelemiş olursunuz. Aynı kalıpta bakılmamalı, ona tercümanlık yapılmamalıdır.

Sevgi kelimesi, sevmek ötesinde, her bireyin birbiri ile olan ilişkisi boyutunu da anlatmaktadır. Onu Love diye tercüme ederseniz değişir. Aşk olarak bakılması, bu durumda Âdem/Havva kavramı ile cinsiyeti algılama ve dışlanmaya gerekçe olabilir.

Bir kere lisan konuşurken üç boyutu akla getirmeliyiz.

- Resmi dil, protokol dili: Gereksiz ve uzun sunumlar nedeni ile Sayın diye başlamak itici olabilmektedir.
- Gramatik dil, okulda öğretilen lisan: Burada daha dikkat ötesinde, bir düzen içinde olunmalıdır.
- Konuşulan lisan: Herhangi bir düzene bakmadan oluşan lisan.
- Sokak lisanı: Dikkatsizce yapılan konuşmalar, simgelerin söylenmesi.
- Argo: İstenmeyen ve bazıların kendi aralarında yakınlaşma için kullanılan lisan.

İngiltere’de intörn olarak Guy’s Hastanesine gitmiş, Genel Cerrahi Bölümünde aktif çalıştım. Safra kesesinde taşı ve tıkanıklığı olan ve T tüpü takılan bir hastam oldu. Hasta İngiliz Edebiyatı Hocası idi. Akşam boş vakitlerimde gelip, benimle konuşur musun diye sordu.

Gerekçesi de ben gramatik konuşuyor muşum, hoca olarak dinlemek istiyormuş. Ben anlaşamadığımı söyledim. Yolda birisi saat ne diye sordu, ben de saati kaç olduğunu mu öğrenmek istiyor musunuz diye sorunca, kızdı gitti dedim. Bir İngiliz olarak ona sokak lisanı değil, güzel konuş diyorsunuz, esas kendisine kızmıştır dedi. Sakın onlar gibi olmayın, onlar sizi anlamaya çalışırlar, siz onları anlamaya çalışmayın dedi. Taburcu oluncaya kadar akşam 15:00 sonra konuşuyorduk.

Türkçe eklemeli dildir, bu açıdan lügatte olmasa bile anlaşılabilir. *Derinsiz deniz* kelimesinde olduğu gibi, sığ denilmektedir.

Sigara; çay, gibi içilmez, niye içilmez yazıyor diyen İngiliz'e, burada içine çekmek olarak algılanmalı dedim. Göz, gözlük, gözlükçü aynı kökten oluşmaktadır.

Kırgız ben Kırgızca konuşuyorum diyor, anlaşmamızda siz Kırgızca biliyorsunuz diyor. Türkçe denilince kavramlar karışıyor, Nostratik Üst Aile denince bilimsel oluyor.

Talebeler benim niye İngilizce yazmadığımı sordular. Şiirlerde ben tercüme yapmam dedim. Bizde tercüme değil, sizi İngilizce olarak da tanımak istiyoruz dediler. Tümü Kolej mezunu ve yabancı lisan sahibi idiler. Yine yanlış ifade, yabancı değil, iki dil sahibi kişiler idi.

Kolejde Almanca, 3 yıl, Üniversitede Fransızca 3 yıl ders olarak gördüm. Ama bunlar bende benliğimde yer etmediler.

SONUÇ: Lisan bir ifade şeklidir. Tüm tutum ve davranışlarla da destekler ve tanımlanır. Bu açıdan onu tercüme etmek yerine birey ne dediğine bakmalıdır. Bir süreç sonra lisan kendisine beyinde ayrı bir yer tutar ve tercüme etmeden cevabı oradan verir. Amaç iletişim ise, sevgi temelinde saygı oluşturmadan geçmelidir.

Her lisan ayrı bir kişilik yaratır, ayrı insandır denilmesi bu açıdan önemlidir.

Ayrı insan olmak, daha önce davranışlarından farklı davranmak, daha ileri ve daha gelişmiş olmaktır. Bir kaza yapınca tüm direksiyon yaklaşımını değiştirmeli, kaza boyutundan çıkmalısın. Yazar olarak ilk araba kullanmayı, profesyonel şoförden öğrendim ve hızlı kullanamıyordum. Sonra sen hekimsin dedim ve tümden kullanmayı değiştirdim.

İnsan Bulunduğu yeri Güzelleştirmeli

İnsan oturduğu yerden belli olur derler.
Bir kişi memur olarak gelir, memur olarak çıkıyorsa, sadece işini yapıyorsa, ödül almalı mıdır? Evet kimse aynı işi on yıllarca yapmaz.
Devamlı ilerleme için başkasının rekabeti ve üstüne basıyorsa, insanlık boyutunu kaybetmiş demektir.
İnsanlar bir işi öğrenmesi ile gelecek nesle öğretmesi, danışman olması beklenir.
Aynı zamanda bir kişi kendi kapasitesine göre de işletme fark etmelidir.

Pamukkale Üniversitesi yeni kurulduğundan personel alımı için sınav açtık, birçok kişi, özellikle Üniversite bünyesinden etkin olmak isteyeceği düşüncesi ile, Rektör lojmanı yanında bir yataklı, kalacak büro hazırladık. Kimse girmeyecek, sadece 5 kişi, memur olarak bilgi işlem yapacak olanlar alındı. 10 yıllık OSYM kitapçığından çıkmış olanlardan seçildi. Basıldı. Ama bahçede dolaşanlar vardı, rektörü görünce kaçtılar.

Sınav oldu, 3 gün torpil olup olmadığı incelendi ve ilan edildi, ayrıca yedekleri diğer tüccarlar istedi, kimse alınanları bilmiyordu. Sonra bir hafta uyum denemesi yaptık, geliş, gidiş ve çalışmalarını saptadık ve ona göre iş, büro seçtik.
Rektör Yardımcı sekreteri yaptığımız kişi, başvurusunda bazı notları yazmamış. Niye diye sordum, bir işletme eğer beni tanıyamaz ve kapasitemi ölçemez ise orada çalışmam demiş. Siz fark ettiniz ve iş verdiniz dedi.

Bir gün bile bir göç olabilir

Bazı günler vardır, bizi tamamen değiştirebilir. Bunlar acı, acıklı veya güzel, neşeli olabilir. Bazı kişiler dini açıdan yücelmek için bazı yerlere giderler, bir nevi Meditasyon geçirirler, ama bunu yücelme sanırlar, gerçekte ise aldanmadır. Yücelme insanın kendisinde olandır.

İlkokul bitirme aşamasında iken, 27 Mayıs Darbesi oldu. Gece kaldırıldık, şükür namazı anlatılarak, açıklanarak kılındı. Yaratana giderken, tam teslimiyet olmanın anlamı, kimseye kul, köle olunmayacağı, doğruya doğru, eğriye eğri denileceği, savaş, çatışma ve bozgunculuk değil, sevgi ve insanlıkta olmak gerektiği anladım. Bir gece içinde şeytana bile teşekkür ettim, bize zarar ve zulmü gösterdiği için bir fikir, düşünce olduğu kavradım. Bize etkisi olmadığı, fikir olduğu, yapınca suçlu ve sorumlu biz olacağımızı anladık.
Kısaca bir gecede çok göç yapmış oldum.

Sonuç

Kişi bir eğitim almış ise, o kültüre göre aldığı kabul edilir, bu sınırda kapalı olduğu için, ilerlemesi de mümkün olamaz.
Yüksek Teknoloji Kültüründe diplomalar alınır ama kişi kavramadığı belirgindir. İşe getirilir, sonra da görevden alınır.
Torpil, özgeçmiş olmayan yerde bir öncü tanıma olabilir, ama geniş yazılmış ise, buradaki etkinliğe bakılabilir.

İngiltere'de Guy's Hastanesinde intörn olarak gittiğim durumda, yolda ve herhangi bir kişi ile konuştuğumda ne söylediklerini tam anlamıyor ve üzülüyordum. İlk, Orta ve Lise Kolejde okumuş, Tıbbiyede de İngilizce ders kitaplarını takip ederken, bir sorun var dedim. Hastam İngilizce Edebiyat Öğretmeni idi. Bana sen kurallı ve düzgün İngilizce konuşuyorsun, onlar ise sokak ve kullanan İngilizce kullanıyorlar, bu açıdan sana da kızıyorlardır dedi. Argo lisanı hiç saymıyorum dedi. Burada yenilememin nedeni, bırakın sizler kendinizi irdelerken haksızlık yapamayın, onlar, bilenler yapsın.

Bir çocuk, bu çok acı canım yandı dedi. Ben tatmıştım dedim ve biraz tat katsın istedim diye yanıtladım. Senin algın ile benim algım farklı, benim dudağım daha hassas, bu açıdan benim kendime ifadem, duygularım daha önemlidir. Teşekkür ederim kontrol etmişsin ama bana sorman gerekirdi dedi.

Senin algını ben bilemem, bu açıdan sevgi sözcüğünü sen kullan, ben irdeleyeyim derim. Birçok yabancı şarkıyı da kendi lisanında algılamak isterim. Türkçesi ise tamamen farklı bir kültürel ve yapıda kabul ederim, bir nevi göç derim.

İnsan yaşarken algıladığı boyut, her gün yeni bir gün, her gün göç yapmakta, daima yürüdüğü gibi ileri gitmeli, arkaya değil, gelişmiş ve sevgi boyutu ile insanlığa yol almalıdır.

Bu konuda eğitilirse ve bilime, verilere dayanırsa daha rahat olması ötesinde, daha etkin ve verimli olabilecektir

Sonuç; sevilen ve sayılan kişi olmaktır.

Kaynaklar

1) Güven., B. Kültürün ABC'si, 2002. Yüksek Teknoloji Kültürü
2) Human capital flight (Brain Drain), Wikipedia
3) Student migration, Wikipedia
4) Student exchange program, Wikipedia
5) Intercultural relations, Wikipedia
6) Second-language acquisition, Wikipedia