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Political Economy of Development in Turkey

1838 - Present



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Foreword

It is the mother of all debates in economic development: Are developing nations' paths shaped largely by external or internal factors? Do countries remain poor and under-developed because of the inappropriate policies imposed on them by great powers and by their inescapable position in the global division of labor? Or do they shape their fortunes themselves, with underdevelopment the result of their governing elites' reliance on the wrong ideas and the wrong strategies?

When I ask my own students this question at the start of my class on economic development, I find broad support for both positions. Many students, particularly from low-income African countries, see their countries' development blocked by both a disadvantageous history and an inhospitable present. On the one hand, there is the legacy of colonialism, imperialism, and (for many countries) the slave trade, which has left these countries with arbitrary borders, lopsided social structures, and weak institutions. On the other, there is the undeniable facts of global power, denying the global poor of voice in international rules and governance.

Others lay the blame on their own elites and political classes. Many students from Asia and Latin America have seen their countries go through extended periods of rapid economic development, which points to the possibility of doing well no matter how constraining history or external conditions may be. They have also seen how some of these development experiences have met with failure ultimately, not because of decisions made elsewhere but because of the proclivity of home governments

to over-borrow, print too much money, or decimate entrepreneurship through bad policy. When the IMF is called in to impose austerity as a last resort, these students understand that the fault lies not with Washington but with decisions taken earlier in Jakarta, Buenos Aires, or indeed Ankara.

Thinking about development policy requires hopefulness, or what Albert O. Hirschman called 'possibilism.' You have to believe that conditions can improve, and that people in developing countries have the agency to make the decisions that will make a difference in their lives. You do not have to deny the roles that history, power politics, or global economic constraints play in shaping present-day outcomes. You simply have to believe that domestic conditions and choices play a big part as well

And how could you not? Consider the wide variation in experience among developing countries since the end of the Second World War and de-colonization. Some (such as those in East and Southeast Asia) have done extremely well, others (many in Sub-Saharan Africa) have done generally poorly, and most have experienced periods of rapid growth as well as crises or periods of slow growth. Whatever role history or external conditions may have played, they cannot account for the full variation across countries. If colonialism was decisive, for example, how could we explain the fact that there is as much variation in incomes per capita among countries that were colonialized as there is among countries that were never colonialized? If it was a matter of informal control by great powers, how can we explain the phenomenal success of Japan and (in recent decades) China, despite the great powers' success at imposing on these nations free trade and economic concessions during the nineteenth century? If Bretton Woods institutions or contemporary trade rules have produced stifling effects on development, why is it that so many countries, even in Africa (e.g., Mauritius and Botswana), have managed to escape those constraints?

Turkey was never colonized, but the Ottoman Empire found itself under increasing pressure from the great powers during the nineteenth century as it declined militarily. It had to grant foreign merchants special privileges and submitted to a trade treaty that restricted its autonomy. Resorting to foreign borrowing in order finance its military campaigns, the Ottomans eventually found themselves bankrupt, unable to service the debt, and ended up under foreign receivership. Was the Ottoman Empire's (and subsequently the nascent Turkish Republic's) economic

weakness a direct result of these external circumstances? Perhaps. But not too dissimilar foreign pressures exerted on Japan resulted in a remarkably different path. Under the Meiji restoration, the Japanese elites crafted a remarkable economic strategy that produced the first successful industrialization outside of Europe and North America—and this despite their hands being tied on foreign trade policies due to an earlier trade treaty with the USA. It is not entirely clear that such a path would have been foreclosed to the late Ottomans.

Or to take later examples: Was Turkey's adoption of a developmental strategy delayed by World Bank and US pressure in the early postwar years? (Perhaps, but what about a counterfactual such as South Korea, a country that was even more dependent on US aid?) Was the collapse of Turkish import-substituting industrialization during the late 1970s inevitable? (I would say no. The crisis was the result of irresponsible macroeconomic policies by the coalition governments of the time.) Was the unbalanced opening to foreign capital after the late 1980s the result of external pressure? (Not really. It was Turgut Özal's own decision to extend his liberalization to the financial sphere.) Wasn't Recep Tayyip Erdogan's curious mix of neoliberalism and populism substantially home-grown? (Clearly yes.)

The great virtue of the chapters in this volume is that they balance discussions of the dependency versus national autonomy models of development with clear, nuanced accounts of the Turkish specificities. The reader gets not only a panoramic view of the political economy of Turkey's development in a chronological presentation, she is also given the material to refine or make up her own mind on these larger developmental debates. The editors are to be congratulated for having successfully coaxed the authors of the individual chapters—distinguished scholars themselves—to stay on theme and on message. As a result, this is a rare collection where the whole is greater than the sum of the parts.

As the individual chapters make clear, Turkish governments and elites had to make their choices against the backdrop of the ideas and interests of powerful foreign actors. Domestic policy is never made from scratch and in a vacuum. As the constellation of external ideas and interests changed over time, they exerted distinct pressures on Turkish policies. But there were margins for maneuver. Ideas and interests of domestic origin were to play a key part as well.

The world economy is at a crossroads as I write these words (in June 2021). The neoliberal consensus has lost its intellectual appeal, hyperglobalization is under retreat, and the rise of China has substantially altered the geopolitical landscape. When democracy returns to Turkey, the country's leaders will have to chart a new course that is perhaps less constrained by global ideological orthodoxy than at anytime in recent memory. One hopes that they will have the vision and self-confidence to articulate a model that not only serves Turkey better but also provides an example for other countries.

June 2021

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Contents

1	Political Economy of Global Capitalism: A Framework for Turkey's Dependent Development, 1838–2020 Yonca Özdemir and Emre Özçelik	1
2	Peripheralization of the Ottoman Economy, 1838–1908 Seven Ağır	47
3	From Globalization to Deglobalization: Nationalism and Economics in the Making of Modern Turkey, 1908–1929 Zafer Toprak	79
4	Turkey's Attempt to Break the Fetters Before the Ladder Was Kicked Away, 1929–1947 M. Erdem Özgür and Eyüp Özveren	107
5	Transition to Dependent Development, 1947–1960 Yakup Kepenek	135
6	Import-Substituting Industrialization Strategy and Planning Experience in Turkey, 1960–1980 Ümit Akçay and Oktar Türel	163

x CONTENTS

7	Turkey's Encounter with Neoliberal Globalization and the Logic of Washington Consensus, 1980–1990 Ziya Öniş and Fikret Şenses	197
8	The Era of Speculation-Led Growth and the 2001 Crisis, 1990–2001 A. Erinç Yeldan	227
9	From Domestic to Global Crisis: Turkey During the 2001–2009 Period Erol Taymaz and Ebru Voyvoda	257
10	Neoliberal Framework and External Dependency Versus Political Priorities, 2009–2020 Korkut Boratav and Özgür Orhangazi	287
11	Concluding Remarks Yonca Özdemir and Emre Özçelik	315
Index		333

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List of Figures

Fig. 8.1	The Alejandro-Taylor cycle: vicious cycle of capital	
	flows & macroeconomic disequilibria	232
Fig. 8.2	Real exchange rate index (TL/USD), purchasing power	
	parity (PPP) in consumer prices (Data source Annual	
	reports of the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey	
	[Author's calculation])	238
Fig. 8.3	Assets, liabilities and open position of the banking sector	
	(%) (Data source Annual reports of the Central Bank	
	of the Republic of Turkey)	241
Fig. 8.4	Path of the nominal exchange rate basket	
	under the stabilization program, January 2000–December	
	2002 (Data source Central Bank of the Republic	
	of Turkey)	248
Fig. 8.5	Theoretical expectations of the currency board operative	249
Fig. 8.6	Monetary base, net domestic assets, net foreign assets	
	and net open market operations, 7 January 2000–1	
	December 2000, end-of-week observations, million	
	Turkish Liras (Data source Balance sheet reports	
	of the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey)	252
Fig. 10.1	Foreign capital inflows (% of GDP) and GDP growth	
	rate (%) (Source Authors' own calculations, using	
	Balance of Payments and National Accounts data	
	from the Electronic Data Delivery System of the Central	
	Bank of the Republic of Turkey [https://evds2.tcmb.	
	gov.tr/index.php]. Accessed on 1 March 2021)	292
	0 / 1 I J	

Fig. 10.2 Current account balance in billion USD (bars, left axis) and as a percentage of GDP (line, right axis) (Source Authors' own calculations using Balance of Payments and National Accounts data from the Electronic Data Delivery System of the Central Bank of the Republic of Turkey [https://evds2.tcmb.gov.tr/index.php]
Accessed on 1 March 2020)

296

LIST OF TABLES

Table 5.1	Main economic indicators, 1945–1960	145
Table 6.1	Growth rate targets and realization in plan periods	
	(annual average percentage changes)	180
Table 8.1	Macroeconomic adjustment processes: Turkey,	
	1983–1999	236
Table 8.2	Speculative short-term foreign capital (hot money)	
	flows and selected financial indicators (Million US\$)	242
Table 9.1	GDP Growth Rate, Current Account Balance	
	and the Real Effective Exchange Rate, 1999-2009	261
Table 9.2	Main Economic Indicators, 2000–2009	271
Table 10.1	External Debt	299



CHAPTER 1

Political Economy of Global Capitalism: A Framework for Turkey's Dependent Development, 1838–2020

Yonca Özdemir and Emre Özçelik

Turkey is a developing country which has always encountered various dilemmas during its struggle for economic growth and democracy. Since the establishment of the Republic of Turkey in 1923, one of the main concerns of its policymakers and intellectuals has been "development." As a latecomer in industrialization, from the beginning of the twentieth century, Turkey has tried to catch up with the advanced countries through

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modernization reforms from above. For that purpose, Turkey has tried different economic models throughout its history (e.g., economic liberalism, statism, import-substituting industrialization, export-led growth, neoliberalism); but no matter how Turkey strived for becoming a modern nation with a modern economy, it has only succeeded partially. Hence, Turkey has developed to a certain degree, but it has failed to become an advanced country.

From the late Ottoman period onward, Turkey has generally experienced "dependent development" to varying degrees, with perhaps the exception of the episode of the 1930s. Despite the historical nonoccurrence of explicit and formal colonization by Western powers, Turkey has not been able to escape the dependency relations exerted through global capitalism. Dependency patterns and dependent development of Turkey have their historical roots that can be traced back to the nineteenthcentury Ottoman Empire. Although the Empire was a significant player in world politics, it missed the first industrial revolution; and by the nineteenth century, it lagged significantly behind the major Western powers in economic, technological, and institutional terms. In fact, industrialization in Europe and the consequent political-economic rivalry among the European powers in the nineteenth century led to the "peripheralization" of the Ottoman Empire without conventional colonization, similar to the case of China (Keyder, 1987: 36). Although there were some favorable instances when Turkey could implement relatively more independent policies, the political-economic history of Turkey is mostly a story of dependent development.

Another feature of modern Turkey was that, at the beginning, it had a more-or-less "egalitarian" socioeconomic structure inhabited dominantly by small- and medium-size farmers, with no prominent landed aristocracy and national bourgeoisie. Such an initial socioeconomic condition could be an important advantage for fast-track development, but instead, Turkey gradually evolved into an unequal semi-industrialized nation. It is quite puzzling that Turkey today resembles Latin American countries like Mexico, Argentina, and Brazil, rather than the Southern European or East Asian countries. Although it cannot be claimed that Turkey's development experience was a complete failure, it nonetheless seems that Turkey could not utilize its developmental potential as effectively as certain success stories, such as South Korea and Taiwan that were poorer than Turkey up until the 1960s. Therefore, Turkey is categorized as an uppermiddle-income country today, having failed to jump to the high-income

status despite century-long efforts to achieve sustained development in the economic and democratic spheres.

All in all, Turkey did succeed in building up some important industries, as compared to its highly backward economy in the 1920s. However, due mainly to its peripheral position in the world system, its economy has generally been vulnerable to crises, and thus, has never shifted to a stable and sustained growth path. Even when it experienced some impressive "growth spurts," eventually it has not been able to escape the recurrent crises pertaining to a less-developed economy within global capitalism. However, this diagnosis is not to argue that Turkey has been *completely* shaped by the world system. Indeed, what Turkey has achieved has been influenced and limited by its position in the world system despite its unique domestic features. Its domestic class structure, along with its developmental orientation, has also evolved in an uneven manner over time, creating its own internal constraints and contradictions and leading to serious economic crises up until today.

Yet another historical puzzle that Turkey displays is its political trajectory. Turkey's political development has been even more disillusioning than its economic development. The Ottoman Empire was one of the biggest empires in the world between the fifteenth and nineteenth centuries. From its ruins emerged the Republic of Turkey in 1923. Turkey started as a one-party authoritarian state in 1923, but then rather peacefully transitioned into a multi-party democracy along the 1946-1950 period. However, since then, there have been frequent political disorders with periods of relative democracy followed by military coups and interventions. Eventually, today, Turkey is back to quite an authoritarian rule under the heavy dominance of Recep Tayyip Erdoğan, the President of the Republic, and his Justice and Development Party (AKP). Hence, Turkey launched one of the most important modernization revolutions of the twentieth century only to find itself back to a rather conservative and autocratic regime with prominent Islamic/Islamist connotations, toward the centennial commemoration of the Republic.

Why is Turkey an important case to analyze? First of all, it is one of the biggest developing countries in the world. With over 84 million people, Turkey is ranked the 17th in the world in terms of population and the 20th in terms of GDP. However, it is ranked the 73rd when it comes to GDP per capita. It is quite a typical developing country in many respects. It does not have a significant amount of natural resources and mineral reserves; hence, it is a net importer of energy. In every