



Historical evolution of the regional understanding of geography curricula: tradition and change

Bahaddin Şahin ¹

Abstract

Geography curricula (GCs) are expected to constantly undergo renewal and development, not only in terms of pedagogical strategies and didactic applications but also regarding the evolution of disciplinary thought. A review of the literature reveals a significant research gap, as there is no existing study explicitly focusing on the relationship between academic geography and geography education, particularly exploring how the epistemological evolution of geography is reflected in GCs. Hence, this area presents extensive opportunities for research. The present study aims to investigate the historical transformation of the concept of "region" within GCs implemented in Türkiye from the early Republican period to the present day, through the lens of shifting paradigms influenced by the evolution of geographical thought. The study adopts a qualitative historical research design. Primary data sources for the study consist of GCs put into place since 1924, while secondary sources comprise minutes and reports from the First Geography Congress held in 1941 under the leadership of the Ministry of National Education at the time. The study data were collected by document analysis technique using a data collection form. Following an extensive literature review, the approaches that significantly influenced geographical thought over the past century were categorized according to their periods of impact on the discipline. A descriptive analysis of the data collected was then conducted based on these predefined categories.

Accordingly, when considering the paradigms that have been influential in the history of geographical thought, the regional understanding of GCs implemented from the early Republican period to the present day is divided into three periods: 1924-1941, 1942-2004, and 2005-2024. Although the traditional regional geography approach was dominant in the discipline until the mid-20th century, there was no regional content in the GC implemented between 1924 and 1941. However, during this period, there were problems arising from the use of different regional classifications in practice. This situation was the main factor in the convening of the First Geography Congress in 1941 and in the decision to adopt the teaching of the geography of Türkiye based on seven geographical regions. This understanding of the region, which was contemporary at the time of its creation, continued to be the

Keywords

Region
Regional geography
Geographical thought
Geography curriculum
Geography education
Historical research

Article Info

Received: 03.14.2024
Accepted: 06.03.2025
Published Online: 10.30.2025

DOI: 10.15390/ES.2025.2496

¹ Keçiören Science and Art Center, Ministry of National Education, Ankara, Türkiye, bahaddinsahin@gmail.com

dominant understanding in all GC administered in the period 1942-2005, despite the fact that the traditional regional geography approach lost its influence on the discipline with the quantitative revolution in the second half of the 20th century. Therefore, this holistic and static regional understanding, which was predominantly formed according to natural features, had sharp boundaries between regions but did not take much account of interactions and connections, and possessed a homogeneous structure, dominated the GCs for a considerably long period. Both the strong criticism of positivism in the discipline since the early 1970s and the new regional geographical discourses that emerged in the early 1980s led to a new understanding of the region after the quantitative revolution. Along with these intellectual developments in academic geography, various reports and declarations underlining the place of the region in geography education have been published by international geography associations and the region has been considered as one of the five main themes of geography education. Long after these developments, only with the 2005 GC, the traditional regional understanding was abandoned, and a dynamic regional understanding was adopted where regional boundaries are not sharp, can change over time, different regions can be formed with criteria determined according to purpose, and intra-regional differences are emphasized. The 2005 GC's modern understanding of regions was finalized with the regional classification envisaged by the 2018 GC. Thus, it is observed that in Türkiye, the failure to follow the approaches that emerged in the discipline in the history of geographical thought in academic geography as well as in school-based geography education, especially after the second half of the 20th century, has caused a contemporary understanding of the region to be reflected in GC with a considerable delay.

Introduction

Throughout the history of geographical thought, the evolution of the understanding of region took place in a dynamic and ever-changing process, much like the discipline itself. The concept of region has taken on different meanings in different periods and its role in geographical thought has been constantly reshaped. Conceptions of region have transformed depending on the philosophical and methodological tendencies of the period, and have occasionally been placed at the center of research or pushed to the periphery of the discipline. This evolution, which extends from the boundaries of physical geography to a broad perspective that includes social and cultural interactions, also reflects the development of geography as an interdisciplinary science (Paasi, 1991). This transitionary process of the understanding of region in the history of geographical thought plays a key role in understanding how geography has turned into a field of scientific inquiry. This change has enabled geography to comprehensively address how geography shapes and interprets not only physical spaces but also social structures, cultural practices and economic dynamics (Gilbert, 1988). Consequently, the understanding and use of region has expanded over time, contributing significantly to the enrichment of geographical thinking and methodology. This shift can be seen as a reflection of geography's effort to understand and interpret the world from a multidimensional perspective (Peet, 1998). In this context, it is challenging to explain the development of regional understanding without reflecting the historical development of geographical thought as a whole (Entrikin, 2011). Since the institutionalization of geography as a discipline, regional geography has been a significant source of theoretical debate and concrete research practice (Paasi, 2009). For this reason, these theoretical debates on regional geography are presented in the literature section of the study together with the historical thought evolution of the discipline.

In the history of geographical thought, region has been associated with both the human and the natural. In this respect, region includes the external knowledge of nature as part of human practices in geographical research. Depending on different classification methodologies, region has been a concept that describes the distinctive and self-consistent sum of specific phenomena and contains their internal knowledge (Harvey, 2015). With this perspective, in the historical process of geography, attempts have been made to explain the changing context of natural or social events and phenomena in space through regional studies. Thus, this approach has become the main motif of the geographical way of knowing that the totality formed by both nature and social life exhibits spatial differences within itself. In this way, geographers have turned toward understanding human practices within their own "living environment" (Bekaroğlu, 2016). Those who argue that this approach has provided geographers with a scientific vision of "what to look for" and "how to look" have accepted the region as both a "way of seeing" what is similar and different and a tool for organizing thoughts about the world, perceiving, enabling perception and making sense of the whole (Gregory et al., 2009; Haggett, 1969; Hartshorne, 1959).

Over time, geographers have begun to reflect on how each regional unit is interrelated, how phenomena are integrated into space, or in what ways it differs from the whole that makes this relationship discontinuous. Thus, they became more oriented towards seeking answers to a series of epistemological questions such as: "Why is there a need to divide the earth as a whole into parts?", "What makes a region different from its surroundings?", "How are the boundaries of a region to be determined?", and "What is a region a part of, and to what extent is the part subject to the whole?" (Harvey, 2015; Lacoste, 2014).

According to Nir (1990), the need to draw boundaries in space emerged as individuals came together in the form of families, tribes, settlements, cities, and states. Indeed, the first traces of the need to divide social units into more manageable ones can also be seen in the chorographic works of Ancient Greek and Roman thinkers. When examining works from that period, many aspects of daily life, including culture and governance style, were interpreted through regional differences and comparisons (Paasi, 2009; Tomaney, 2009). A common point of these studies is that they were based on the determinist discourse, which described natural and human phenomena according to their local positions. For example, in Strabo's work titled *Geographica*, the relationships that humans established with their environment were explained on the basis of given natural conditions, and the "unique/particular/singular" nature of places was interpreted along this axis (Holt-Jensen, 2017).

The work of Bernhardus Varenius in the mid-17th century was influential in the emergence of the main approach to regional studies in the modern geography period (Bauab, 2011; Holt-Jensen, 2017; Martin, 2005; Paasi, 2009; Shaw, 2008). Varenius' *Geographia Generalis* is a key turning point in understanding the place and importance of regional geography in the history of geographical thought. This work, published in 1650, laid the scientific foundations of geography and proposed the division of geographical knowledge into two main branches: general (systematic) and special (regional) geography (Gregory et al., 2009; Tomaney, 2009; Unwin, 1992). According to this distinction, systematic geography is nomothetic while regional geography is an idiographic approach (Holt-Jensen, 2017; Nir, 1990). In fact, Varenius' intellectual effort on the relationship between the regional and the universal was the result of the flow of new knowledge regarding specific places and the goal of generalizing this knowledge (Martin, 2005).

Regional generalizations made in the modern geography period were dominated by a reductionist understanding (Stern, 1992). This understanding was influenced by the principle-setting natural sciences and philosophy defining space as a particular, fixed and non-relational container in the Cartesian manner. Thus, the realization that data to be obtained based on local observations cannot be isolated from space and time has further reinforced determinist ideas (Livingstone, 2011). The fact that each piece of geographical data carries the codes of its own absolute space and time has made it even more important to reveal the code carried by the unique and different (Baulig, 1959). For this reason, discussions on the region have centered on the following question: "Are regions a mental category, or are they a spatial reality?" (Nir, 1990; Paasi, 2009).

Kant's acceptance of space and time as absolute, but also as mental concepts independent of experience (a priori) as the "condition" of existence, bolstered the idea that regions are "mental", that is, fictional (Harvey, 2015; Kant, 1999, 2002). Kant's ideas regarding the ways of grasping space and time were subsequently introduced into geography through Ritter and Humbolt (Tekeli, 2012; Unwin, 1992). These names were later followed by Hettner in Germany and Hartshorne in America. The justification of the borders drawn in space and the provability of the region as a spatial "reality" was through determinism. Until the mid-20th century, although a form of rationality valid for all times and places was partially achieved in physical geography, the difficulties in demonstrating this rationality caused geographical studies to be based on given natural conditions. The fact that absolute space is at the center of modern philosophical thought has made this relatively easier. Thus, the means of drawing boundaries to what is both a part of the whole and homogeneous in itself has been sought in nature (geology, landforms, climate, soil, vegetation, etc.). With this approach, it was aimed to facilitate the analysis of the complex in space, to verify regional hypotheses and to obtain information that could form physical laws (Baulig, 1959).

Although the use of determinist thinking to legitimize the imperial events of the 19th century facilitated the introduction of geography into modern science, it was characterized as a tool that served power (Özgen, 2012). Geography has sought to legitimize inter-societal competition and the conquest of certain societies by others in order to gain an important position in the mass reproduction of ideas. Moreover, by utilizing evolutionary biology, it has aimed to explain the concepts of identity and nationalism based on the relationship between the locus of power of certain ethnic groups and their regional origins (Peet, 1985). This approach assigned a different identity to the concept of region and strengthened the concept of "regionalization". The ritual of regionalization has popularized the idea that the aim is not only to draw lines on space, but also to reflect on the meaning of space and to determine policies accordingly. In this respect, understanding the region as an intellectual goal in geography became more important than categorizing space (Hart, 1982). In this period, Ratzel's concept of *Lebensraum* (habitat/environment), which emphasized biological and environmental conditions, came to the fore. With this concept, Ratzel paved the way for the redefinition of previous theories of the "organic state" and his views spread to continental Europe and America (Balibar & Wallerstein, 2000; Bassin, 1987). In this sense, the determinism and "uniqueness" of the region remained dominant until the mid-20th century, when empires largely disintegrated and nation-states rapidly took their place on the historical stage (Agnew, 2018; Baulig, 1959).

The acknowledgement that nature cannot be independent from social processes and that nature is a product has led to the definition of space as a reflection of social forms and heightened criticism towards determinist thinking in geography. Consequently, Paul Vidal de la Blache, the pioneer of the French regional geography school and one of the most important thinkers of the 20th century, as well as names such as L. Febvre, A. Demangoen, J. Gottmann, C. Sauer, E. Huntington and I. Bowman, who were influenced by him, argued for emphasizing human practices as opposed to determinism (Arı, 2017; Couper, 2015; Dikshit, 2011; Öngör, 1963; Peet, 1985). According to this new Vidalian approach, which emerged after the 1920s as a reaction to determinism and was called Possibilism, regions are not given (Harvey, 2015). Although natural processes are influential on human practices, they are not the sole determinant, and nature provides individuals with many possibilities of activity, allowing them to choose the way of life (*genre de vie*) that suits them. From this perspective, each place is formed by the juxtaposition of a certain number of cells, the boundaries of each of which are "geographical data". Thus, each region is the subject of a monographic study based on "its" distinct characteristics (Lacoste, 2014). In this method, which can also be referred to the relationship between the logic of forming the boundaries of regions and the mathematical function of sets, the question of what is to be accepted as "order" is important (Hanson, 1958). However, the possibilists, like the determinists, saw reaching the whole by focusing on the relationship of all phenomena in space as the ultimate goal of geography. For this purpose, they argued that since it is difficult to study the whole, dividing the space into small parts and understanding the laws, systems and processes operating in each part means understanding the whole. This is because the smaller the scale, the easier it is to ensure homogeneity and this increases the level of significance of the laws put forward (Haggett, 1969).

Therefore, regional studies have been the main concept of geography since the 1920s, and the number of regional monographs has increased (Ashutosh, 2017; Dikshit, 2011; Fitzgerald, 1943; Martin, 2005; Oberhauser, 1995; Paasi, 2002). With these studies, the idea that the world consists of a mosaic of interrelated regions and that understanding the natural and human conditions that determine the lifestyle choices of individuals depends on understanding the regions has gained further prominence (Johnston & Sidaway, 2005; Öngör, 1963; Özgüç & Tümertekin, 2000; Öztürk, 2007). In this period, Richard Hartshorne's views on regional geography occupied an important place in the history of geographical thought (Agnew, 2018). Hartshorne (1939) argued that the main purpose of geography is to explain the diversity in different parts of the world and stated that regional geography is an indispensable method for understanding this diversity. Hartshorne (1939) argued that regional geography is important to realize the integrative or synthesizing purpose of geography. Hartshorne's views profoundly influenced the methodology and philosophy of geography and left a significant mark on subsequent generations of geographers (Cresswell, 2013).

Regional geography has reigned as the dominant paradigm of the discipline for many years (Cresswell, 2013). It dominated the systematic approach until the 1950s (Paasi, 2009). However, the exceptionalist nature of the regional approach and its weakness in terms of generalization and theory-building made the comparability and reproducibility of regional studies problematic (Gilbert, 1988; Minshull, 2017). Furthermore, the traditional regional approach considered the region as a static and isolated entity in a holistic structure, thus isolating it from its historical and global contexts (Cresswell, 2013; Dikshit, 2011; Martin, 2005; Minshull, 2017; Nayak & Jeffrey, 2013). These strong critiques of the regional approach from the early 1950s onwards led to the quantitative revolution, an intellectual transformation that set the stage for the transition from modern to contemporary geography (Cresswell, 2013; Dikshit, 2011; Harvey & Holly, 1981; Martin, 2005; Peet, 1985). The quantitative revolution paved the way for theory development in geography, enabling mathematical and statistical expression and testing of the relationships between geographical events and processes (Burton, 1963; Gilbert, 1988; Gregory, 1988; Johnston & Sidaway, 2005). The essence of this approach has been to move away from focusing on specific and particular characteristics of regions and towards making arguments that can be applied in general. In this context, quantitative geography emerged as a response to the inadequacy of traditional regional geography in explaining general spatial dynamics (Nayak & Jeffrey, 2013).

The visibility of regional geography, which took on an anachronistic appearance with quantitative geography, gradually began to fade within the discipline, but it remained the dominant paradigm until the 1950s in the United States, the 1960s in the United Kingdom, the 1970s in Germany and the 1980s in France (Couper, 2015; Cresswell, 2013; Dikshit, 2011; Martin, 2005; Yavan, 2014). With quantitative geography, the understanding of region has also been transformed. Traditional regional geography, which is descriptive and focuses on the unique characteristics of specific areas, has been criticized for its lack of scientific rigor. With quantitative geography, regions are no longer seen as unique entities but as units of analysis where spatial phenomena can be measured and compared (Cresswell, 2013). This has led to the development of new definitions of regions such as functional regions and formal regions (Dikshit, 2011; Montello, 2003; Nir, 1987). Over time, the quantitative revolution, which also affected geography departments in countries outside the United States and the United Kingdom, can be viewed as a major revolution that ended the dominance of regional geography within the discipline (Paasi, 2009).

Following the quantitative revolution in which positivist and empirical methods rose to prominence, strong criticisms against positivism emerged in the early 1970s with the influence of critical theories (Holt-Jensen, 2017; Nayak & Jeffrey, 2013; Peet, 1998). Thus, as interpretivist and critical approaches gained momentum in response to positivism; anthropocentric, structuralist, Marxist, feminist, and post-modernist approaches became effective in geography as a result of the reflection of social events (especially the 1968 student movements, minority rights, feminist movement, etc.) on geography (Nayak & Jeffrey, 2013; Yazan & Bekaroğlu, 2018). In this period, the return to regional geography was first expressed in the 1980s with the new regional geography approach (Johnston, 2005). This approach moved away from the previous positivist and deterministic understandings of regional geography and tended to re-evaluate the concept of region through socio-cultural structures, identities

and power relations. In this context, new regional geography refers to a transformation characterized by a refocusing of regional geography on the study of spatial relations in socio-economic contexts (Gilbert, 1988).

Instead of conceiving the region as a fixed and determined space, the new regional geographers interpreted it as a space that is continuously constructed and reproduced through social practices and discourses (Paasi, 1991). The 1990s was a period in which postmodernism and cultural approaches were influential in regional geography. In this period, a more critical and interpretive approach was adopted in regional geography, emphasizing the multi-layered nature of individual experiences, identities and places. Additionally, the importance of narrative and representation in comprehending regional differences and local cultures increased in this period (Minca, 2001). During this time, regional geography tended to examine how spatial identities are constructed by viewing the region as a multi-layered and dynamic structure.

Region in Geography Education

In the history of geographical thought, the origins of regional geography date back almost to antiquity (Paasi, 2009). However, despite the changing approaches in the history of geographical thought, the region has almost always been at the center of the discipline, as the meaning attributed to the region has also changed (Montello, 2003; Paasi, 1991; Wade, 2006). From the perspective of school geography, the golden period of regional geography was at the end of the First World War, when the importance and popularity of the science of geography increased further (Avdić et al., 2020). This is also the period in academic geography when regionalism prevailed as the dominant paradigm in the discipline. The main goals of geography education in schools during this period were the definition, delimitation and analysis of regions (Lambert & Morgan, 2010). In this context, the focus was on how natural elements shape regions, and in this sense, human geography was also handled from a deterministic perspective. Thus, by emphasizing the natural characteristics of regions (climate, topography, vegetation, etc.), the idea that natural factors determine social life became dominant. Human factors, on the other hand, were kept in the background. In the early second half of the 20th century, following the quantitative revolution in academic geography, regional geography gradually lost its dominance in school geography (Avdić et al., 2020). The main criticisms of the regional geography perspective in schools during this period were its focus on description, its encouragement of rote memorization instead of critical thinking, and its lack of a problem-solving approach. The quantitative revolution transformed school geography into a more analytical, critical and problem-solving oriented structure, leaving behind the descriptive and rote approach of regional geography. Thus, the traditional regional geography approach in curricula was reduced in many Western countries in a process that lasted until the 1970s. For example, in the United Kingdom, this process lasted until the late 1960s (Lambert & Morgan, 2010). However, following both the criticisms against positivism in academic geography since the early 1970s and the new regional geography discourses that emerged in the early 1980s, various reports and declarations were published by international geography associations that underlined the place of the region in geography education.

In 1984, the Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geographic Education published Guidelines for Geographic Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools (Association of American Geographers [AAG], 1984). In this guideline, it was argued that teachers should shape their geography lessons around the five fundamental themes of geography: place, location, human-nature interaction, movement, and region. Similarly, in 1992, the International Declaration on Geographical Education published by the Commission on Geographical Education of the International Geographical Union (IGU-CGE) included the concepts of place, location, human-nature interaction, movement and region under the title of "Questions and Concepts in Geography" (Artvinli & Kaya, 2010; International Geographic Union, Commission on Geographical Education [IGU-CGE], 1992; Şahin, 2020, 2022). About two years after the 1992 declaration, the four major geographical societies in the United States, namely the National Geographic Society, the American Geographical Society, the Association of American Geographers and the National Council for Geography Education published Geography for Life: National Geography (Bednarz et al., 1994). In this guideline, it was emphasized that the region should be included in the 5 basic subjects of geography education.

As seen in the international documents listed above, the concept of the region has a very important place in geography education (Akimoto, 2015; Świątek & Osuch, 2020). The concept of region is utilized to facilitate students' understanding of various spatial patterns of the world and human-environment interactions. With data from regional studies, students can analyze similarities and differences between places, examine the factors that shape places, and gain insight into the complex relationships that exist within and between regions (IGU-CGE, 1992). In addition to these, regional studies can also be used to gain spatial thinking skills, analyze national or international events and phenomena in a geographical context, and use inductive methodology when required (Koç & Aksoy, 2012). Thus, students can comprehend both the interconnections of various elements within a region and the relationality of flows of people, goods and ideas by understanding that regions are not isolated. At this point, Hart (1982) states that the best way to unify geography, which has a dual structure, as a discipline is regional geography. Accordingly, the region should be included in the curriculum as a good pedagogical tool for geography education (Gersmehl, 2008; Halseth, 1998; Lee, 2023; Standish, 2018a, 2018b, 2021; Wade, 2006).

Another reason for including regions in geography education is to understand the change / chaotic situation brought about by globalization, which has become increasingly stronger after the 1980s (Rees & Legates, 2013). It is valuable for students to gain awareness about the social, cultural, and economic debates in the global-local (regional) dualism in terms of interpreting the regions created according to human criteria (Šabić et al., 2018). Geography is also one of the subjects that help students develop a sense of place and belonging. Students can explore their identities by examining their own country, the regions their country is part of, and other regions worldwide. Additionally, students can understand the challenges and opportunities where they live and develop a sense of empathy and altruism for other communities. However, there are important issues to be considered in the process of developing a region-based program. The 1992 International Declaration on Geography Education states that in the process of preparing a region-based curriculum, regions can be selected as local communities, regions of residence, country of residence, continents of residence, other continents and regional groups, world and global structures (IGU-CGE, 1992). According to this declaration, the principles guiding the selection of regions at all levels should be the following;

- Decentrism — regions should be chosen to avoid national or continental centrism;
- Motivation — regions should be chosen to take account of students' interests and the actuality of current events;
- Balance of scale — regions should be selected to include experience of a range of scales from local to global;
- Diversity — regions should be selected to include a selection of contrasting places, various physical environments, different human activities, cultures, socio-economic systems and stages of development and sustainability;
- Relevance — regions should be selected to provide studies which are relevant to public, vocational and private life;
- Responsibility — regions should be selected to enable students to recognise and accept their responsibilities for action at a range of scales from local to global (IGU-CGE, 1992, p.10).

The Lucerne Declaration on Geography Education for Sustainable Development published by the IGU-CGE in 2007, like the 1992 declaration, states that local, national, international, and global scales should be considered in the selection of regions (IGU-CGE, 2007). However, the Lucerne Declaration also emphasizes that regional issues should be organized in such a way as to provide a global perspective rather than adhering to a strict "from near to far" logic (IGU-CGE, 2007).

As can be seen, the region has played an essential role in the evolution of geographical thought. From the environmental determinism of the early 19th century to the regional synthesis approach of the mid-20th century and more recent critical and postmodern perspectives, the idea of region has been central to the way geographers conceptualize space and place (Paasi, 1991). Although the region's visibility within the discipline has sometimes diminished in this process, the theoretical debates and the meaning attributed to the region and regional geography have persisted to the present day.

Regional geography experienced its golden age in the second half of the 19th century and the first half of the 20th century in the history of geographical thought (Bilgili, 2016; Guelke, 1977; Wade, 2006; Wood, 1999; Yavan, 2014). This period also coincided with the establishment, organization, and even the rise of modern Turkish geography (Erinç, 1973). The second half of the 20th century witnessed a quantitative revolution and an epistemological revolution in the history of geographical thought. In both revolutions, the perspective on region and regional geography and the understanding of the region changed. In many developed Western countries, school geography has also been affected by the changing approaches in academic geography, and this has been reflected in the curricula (Lambert & Morgan, 2010).

Especially in the last decade, various studies have been conducted by the new generation of geographers that examine the reflections of all these processes experienced with the evolution of geographical thought on modern Turkish geography and the regional tradition within modern Turkish geography (Arı, 2013, 2019; Bekaroğlu & Sarış, 2017; Bekaroğlu & Yavan, 2013, 2018; Bekaroğlu et al., 2019; Bilgili, 2016; Özgür, 2018, 2021; Özgür & Yavan, 2013; Tekeli, 2012; Tüysüz & Yavan, 2012; Yazan & Bekaroğlu, 2018). However, the few existing studies in the field of geography education focus solely on teachers' views regarding the paradigms in the history of geographical thought, while the rest of the literature is oriented toward academic geography (Kurtkaya & Ünlü, 2023; Öztürk, 2012; Öztürk & Karabağ, 2012). In contrast, there is no study in the literature that explores how these various approaches have been reflected in school geography curricula in Türkiye. Therefore, this area represents a substantial research gap.

Purpose of the Study

Geography curricula (GCs) should be continuously renewed and developed in terms of the discipline's evolution of thought as well as pedagogical strategies and didactic practices. The quality of a curriculum depends on reflecting the epistemology of the discipline to it as much as possible (Butt, 2020). Introducing students to geography can be achieved by teaching them not only subject knowledge but also the ways of thinking and research methods of geography (Standish, 2018a). In this context, the present study aims to examine the historical change in the understanding of the region in the secondary geography curricula implemented in Türkiye from the early Republican period to the present day from the perspective of changing approaches with the evolution of geographical thinking. Accordingly, answers to the following research questions were sought:

1. How has the understanding of "region" in GCs changed historically from the early Republican period to the present?
2. How was the concept of region addressed in the GCs implemented between 1924 and 1941?
3. What were the implications of the First Geography Congress in 1941 for delineating geographical regions, and how were these reflected in the GCs?
4. What changes occurred in the interpretation of region and regional approaches in the GCs implemented between 1942 and 2004?
5. How did the place and function of the concept of region within the program change with the 2005 GC?
6. How do the learning outcomes related to the concept of region in the 2017 and 2018 GC differ in content and scope from previous curricula?
7. How does the way the concept of region is addressed in the GCs reflect the evolution of geographical thought?

Method

Research Model

This study, which aims to examine the historical transformation of the understanding of "region" in the GCs implemented from the proclamation of the Republic to the present day, adopts a qualitative design. In line with the aim of the study, a detailed descriptive literature review was conducted on how the role of "region" and "regional geography" has evolved over time within the history of geographical thought. In addition, the historical research method was used as the primary study design. The historical research method involves a detailed investigation of a past event, phenomenon, condition, or concept within its context and through the stages of its historical development (Best & Kahn, 2005; Cohen et al., 2018; Karasar, 2016). According to the 2015 International Declaration on Research in Geography Education; empirical, theoretical/philosophical, comparative, and historical approaches are among the essential methodologies in studies on geography education (IGU-CGE, 2015). Historical educational studies are typically carried out in four main stages: (1) identifying a research question, (2) locating historical data sources, (3) evaluating the authenticity and accuracy of historical data, and (4) synthesizing historical data into meaningful chronological and thematic patterns (Fraenkel et al., 2012; Gall et al., 2007). Accordingly, following the identification of the research questions, data sources were obtained from two distinct types of sources, and their accuracy was verified through cross-comparison. Subsequently, based on the literature review, the data were subjected to descriptive and content analysis in a chronological sequence corresponding to the historical periods identified.

Data Source and Data Collection

Data sources in historical research are primary and secondary sources that can be used without primary sources or to complement primary sources (Cohen et al., 2018; Fraenkel et al., 2012). In this context, a total of 17 GCs implemented at the secondary education level since 1924 constitute the primary data source of the study (Table 1). The secondary data source of the study consists of the reports and minutes of the First Geography Congress held in 1941. The concept of geographical regions, which was formed with the division of Türkiye into seven geographical regions and included in the GCs until 2005, was established during the First Geography Congress. The opinions and discussions of the Geography of Türkiye Commission, which was formed during the congress, were recorded in reports and minutes in the process of determining the regions and the understanding of the regions formed. Moreover, the 1942 GC was prepared in this congress organized under the leadership of the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) at the time. For this reason, congress reports and minutes were evaluated as secondary data sources since it was an important turning point that shaped geography education in the historical process.

Table 1. Primary Data Source of the Study: GCs Implemented Between 1924-2024

	GCs	Board of Education Decision No	Board of Education Decision Date	Implementation Period
1	1924 GC			1924-1938
2	1938 GC	104	13.09.1938	1938-1940
3	1940 GC	191	17.09.1940	1940-1942
4	1942 GC	31	27.02.1942	1942-1957
5	1957 GC	215	21.09.1957	1957-1971
6	1971 GC	110	22.03.1971	1971-1973
7	1973 GC	541	29.12.1973	1973-1982
8	1982 GC	156	19.11.1982	1982-1983
9	1983 GC	107	08.07.1983	1983-1992
10	1992 GC	190	08.07.1992	1992-2005
11	2005 GC	198	14.07.2005	2005-2010
12	2010 GC	5	10.02.2010	2010-2011
13	2011 GC	131	26.08.2011	2011-2014
14	2014 GC	85	04.09.2014	2014-2017
15	2017 GC	84	05.07.2017	2017-2018
16	2018 GC	26	19.01.2018	2018 -2024
17	2024 GC	20	23.05.2024	2024 +

The GCs, which constitute the primary data source of the study, were obtained in three stages (Figure 1). These stages are as follows;

1. A substantial number of GCs were obtained by scanning the electronic archive of the Journal of Announcements (Tebliğler Dergisi) of the MoNE, which contains issues published between 1926 and 2024.
2. Additionally, the Board of Education (BoE) archive provided access to all secondary school GCs implemented between 1924 and 2024, including those not retrieved during the first phase.
3. In the final stage, GCs obtained from both the BoE archive and the Journal of Announcements were compared, and the originality and accuracy of the data were verified, thereby completing the process.

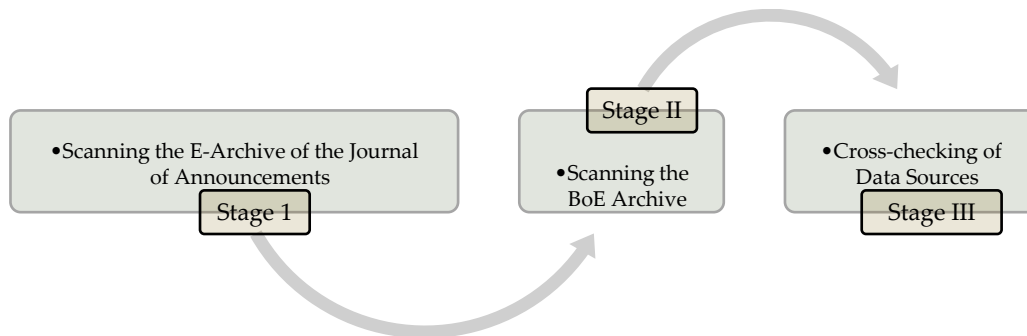


Figure 1. Stages of Accessing the Primary Data Source

The reports and minutes of the First Geography Congress, which constitute the secondary data source of the study, were accessed through Ankara University Faculty of Language and History Geography Library. After accessing the primary and secondary data sources of the study, the 1924 GC was translated from Ottoman Turkish into modern Turkish by an expert. Then, data were collected by examining the study's primary and secondary data sources through document analysis, a data collection technique commonly used in qualitative research. Document analysis is a data collection technique commonly used in qualitative historical research (Best & Kahn, 2005; Bowen, 2009; Mertens, 2010; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). A data collection form was prepared for the primary data source of the study, and data were generated by examining the curricula through this form (Figure 2). The secondary data source of the study was obtained by directly examining the curricula to complement the primary data source.

<i>Curriculum Information</i>	
BoE Approval Date	
BoE Decision Number	
Courses Covered by the Curriculum	
Period of Implementation	
<i>Regional Content in the Curriculum</i>	
Course Containing the Regional Content	
Weekly Course Hours	
Compulsory / Elective	
Unit / Learning Area Including the Regional Content	
Topic Including the Regional Content	
Learning Outcome Including the Regional Content	

Figure 2. Data Collection Form Used for the Primary Data Source of the Study

Data Analysis

The data obtained from the study's primary and secondary data sources through the document review technique were analyzed using the descriptive analysis technique. Descriptive analysis is a widely used method of qualitative historical research in educational sciences (Fraenkel et al., 2012). In descriptive analysis, the data collected are summarized and interpreted according to predetermined themes and categories (Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). Based on the literature review, the historical shift in the understanding of region in the history of geographical thought was categorized into three periods based on paradigms (traditional regional geography, quantitative geography, critical period) (Figure 3-a). According to these categories, the GCs implemented between 1924 and 2024 (Figure 3-b) were analyzed through the data collection form. Then, a descriptive analysis was performed according to the regional understanding of traditional regional geography, quantitative geography, and critical period.

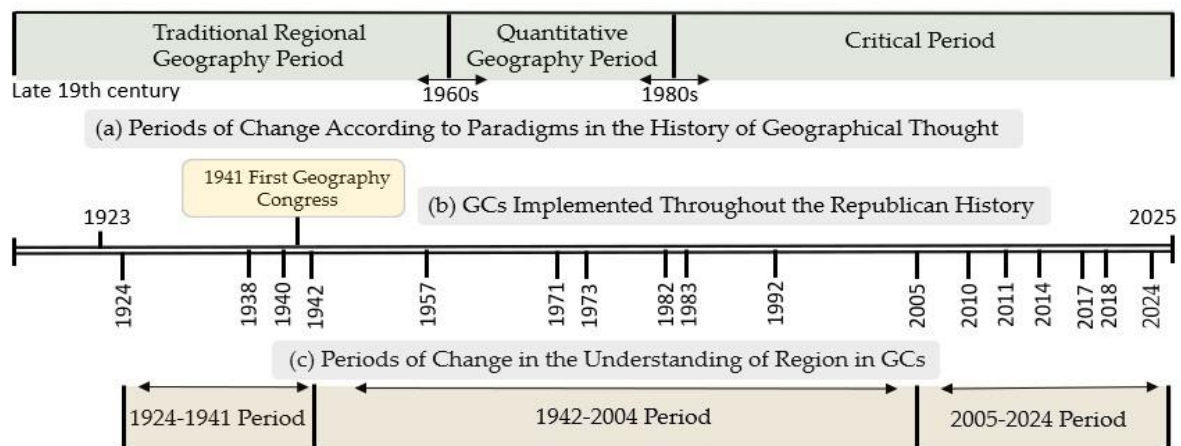


Figure 3. Periods of Change According to Paradigms in the History of Geographical Thought (a), GCs Implemented Throughout the Republican History (b), Periods of Change in the Understanding of Region in GCs (c)

Following the analysis of the GCs in line with the approaches of the periods identified, the programs implemented in the 100 years between 1924-2024 were examined in detail in three periods (Figure 3-c): 1924-1941 (I), 1942-2004 (II) and 2005-2024 (III) and the study findings were presented in line with these periods. In this process, the regional understanding of the GCs of the 1942-2004 period was analyzed together with the reports and minutes of the First Geography Congress of 1941. Accordingly, by analyzing the content of these reports and minutes, findings on the purpose and process of creating geographical regions were obtained. In this way, it was possible to understand curricula development over time in more detail and to evaluate how the understanding of regions was affected in this evolution process.

Validity and Reliability of the Study

Reporting the data collected throughout the study and explaining how the researcher reached the conclusions are important criteria for determining research validity in qualitative studies (Creswell, 2013; Yıldırım & Şimşek, 2018). In this context, to ensure the internal validity of the study, the authenticity of the data sources was confirmed, as seen in Figure 1. Furthermore, the data collection form, designed to gather information from the primary source of the study, was reviewed by an independent expert in the field of geography education and subsequently finalized. To ensure the external validity of the study, all GCs applied from the early Republican period to the present time were analyzed, with comprehensive descriptions of the study procedures and methodology provided.

Reliability in qualitative research refers to the consistency of the researcher's approach in terms of different projects and different researchers (Creswell, 2013). In this context, the reliability of the study and data was ensured by confirming the results of the study and directly including the data in a descriptive manner. The consistency of the data analysis in the present study was made possible by the

systematic application of the methods used and the transparent conduct of the analysis process. Accordingly, the data collected were categorized according to three main periods (traditional regional geography, quantitative geography, critical period), which were determined as a result of the literature review and reflect the historical change in the understanding of the region in the history of geographical thought. Through the data collection form, all GCs between 1924-2024 were examined according to these categories and the conformity of each program with the regional understanding of the relevant period was analyzed. Furthermore, the analysis of the GCs of the 1942-2004 period was performed together with the reports and minutes of the First Geography Congress of 1941, which is the cornerstone of this period. Thus, the development process of the curricula and the changes in the understanding of the region were evaluated more comprehensively and consistency was ensured in the analysis process.

The role of the researcher is vital for the reliability and validity of the study (Best & Kahn, 2005; Cohen et al., 2018). In this study, the researcher has many years of experience in the field of geography education, and their experience in this specialization was effectively used to collect and interpret data. The researcher adopted a reflective approach to be aware of their own biases and assumptions and to minimize their impact on the research process. The ethical dimension of the research was handled meticulously. Academic ethical rules were followed in citing the documents analyzed as sources. In the data collection and analysis processes, the principles of scientific research and publication ethics were adhered to. Moreover, the principles of transparency and accuracy were observed in reporting the research findings.

Findings

The findings obtained through the research data analysis are presented in three periods: 1924-1941, 1942-2004, and 2005-2024.

Understanding of Region in the GCs Implemented Between 1924 and 1941

In the period 1924-1941, two curriculum changes took place, one in 1924 and one in 1938. However, these were only minor changes. In this period, geography in secondary education consisted of three different courses: General Geography (Natural, Human, and Economic) at the first grade of high school, Geography of Major and Neighboring Countries at the second grade of high school, and Geography of Türkiye at the third grade of high school (Maarif Vekâleti, 1924, 1938). None of the curricula of these three courses included the concept of region, nor did they include any regional approach or classification. Even in the Geography of Türkiye course curriculum, it is seen that the subjects are handled with a systematic approach, and no regional classification is included. However, according to the reports and minutes of the First Geography Congress of 1941, different regional classifications are used in the teaching of Turkish geography in practice.

Understanding of Region in the GCs Implemented Between 1942 and 2004

In the 63 years between 1942 and 2004, there were seven curriculum changes: 1942, 1957, 1971, 1973, 1982, 1983, and 1992 (Maarif Vekâleti, 1942; MoNE, 1957, 1971, 1973, 1982, 1983, 1992). The 1942 GC was prepared during the First Geography Congress held between June 6-21, 1941, under the leadership of the Ministry of Education. Three commissions were formed at the congress: the Program and Textbooks Commission, the Term Commission, and the Geography of Türkiye Commission. The Program and Textbooks Commission designed the GC to cover three different courses: General Geography at the first grade of high school, Geography of States at the second grade of high school, and Geography of Türkiye at the third grade of high school (Maarif Vekâleti, 1941). One of the most important issues discussed at the congress was the division of Türkiye into geographical regions in order to facilitate the teaching of Turkish Geography. The Turkish Geography Commission justified this situation in the congress report as follows;

The issue of the division of regions was one of the main issues that the geography congress addressed and wanted to bring to a good conclusion. The geographical divisions in the geography books that have appeared in the field of education until today were very different in terms of number, area, and name. No matter how much effort had been made by the authors to base the aforementioned divisions on scientific principles, the significant differences between the opinions of the authors had led to a complete anarchy in the teaching of national geography; in fact, until very recently, even books that took very unscientific methods such as dividing the country into administrative divisions, river basins and even into several compartments with almost straight lines along the meridians had appeared in the field of teaching (Maarif Vekâleti, 1941, s.76).

As can be seen here, the biggest reason for dividing Türkiye into geographical regions is that different educators and textbooks use different regional classifications in teaching Turkish geography. For this reason, it is emphasized that a standard regional classification is needed both to facilitate the teaching of Turkish Geography and to ensure unity in the teaching process. According to the minutes and reports of the Commission, the Geography of Türkiye Commission followed a five-stage approach in the creation of geographical regions (Figure 4). Accordingly, in the 1st stage, the principles to be taken into account in determining geographical regions were established; in the 2nd stage, seven geographical regions to be used at the primary and secondary education level were created according to the principles determined, in the 3rd stage, the borders of the seven geographical regions were identified on a large-scale map, in the 4th stage, the geographical regions created were divided into sub-regions and named, and finally, in the 5th stage, the study was presented to the Congress (Maarif Vekâleti, 1941).

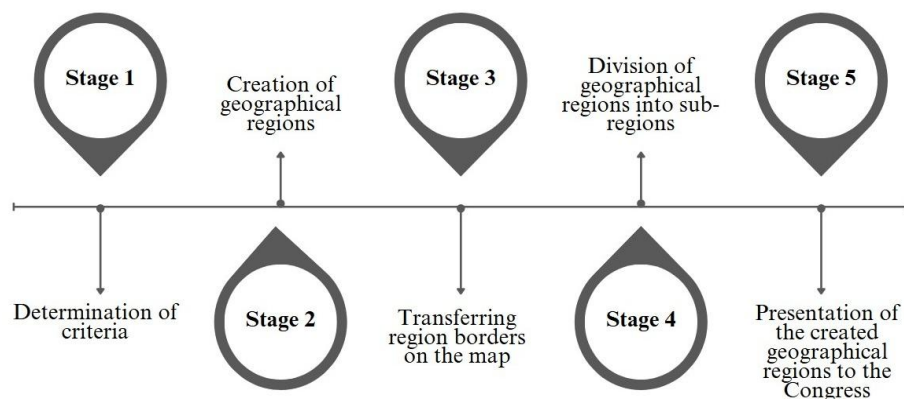


Figure 4. The Stages of Creating Geographical Regions in the First Geography Congress

As a result of the completion of the stages listed above, geographical regions and the borders and names of the sub-regions that make up these regions were discussed and accepted in the congress, and geographical regions were included in the primary, secondary and high-school GC. Accordingly, the subject of geographical regions was added to the 4th-grade geography course at the primary school level, to the 3rd-grade Geography of Türkiye course at the secondary school level and to the-3rd grade Geography of Türkiye course at the high school level. The curriculum prepared at the congress was accepted and put into practice with the decision of the BoE dated 27.02.1942 and numbered 31.

The 1957 GC and the 1971 Draft GC did not differ in terms of the concept of region and the regional approach compared to the 1942 GC (MoNE, 1957, 1971). In the 1973 GC, however, in the Türkiye Geography course, the elements that constitute the geographical regions—namely landforms, climate, vegetation, rivers, lakes, seas, and coasts—were included with an emphasis on being addressed “briefly” prior to the geographical regions themselves (MoNE, 1973). Thus, the curriculum included the elements forming the geographical regions for the first time. However, it is observed that all of these elements are natural components.

In the GC, which was temporarily put into practice in 1982, the Geography of Türkiye course, which was taught in the 3rd grade of high school in the previous programs, was replaced by the Geographical Regions of Türkiye course in the 2nd grade of high school. Thus, for the first time, geographical regions ceased to be a unit or a subject and became an independent course (MoNE, 1982). However, it is seen that the elements that make up geographical regions, which were briefly included in the 1973 GC, are not included in this program. Another noteworthy point is that although the name of the course is Geographical Regions of Türkiye, Türkiye's neighbors (Bulgaria, Greece, Cyprus, Iraq, Iran, Syria, and the Soviet Union), which were previously included in the Geography of Countries course in the 2nd grade of high school, are included in this course. The reason for this is that with the abolition of the Geography of Countries course in the 1982 temporary GC, some of the countries previously included in this course were transferred to the Geographical Regions of Türkiye course, and the other part was transferred to the Economic Geography of Türkiye course taught in the 3rd grade of high school.

After the 1982 Provisional GC was implemented for only one year, following some minor changes, the 1983 GC was put into practice starting from the 1983-1984 academic year. The 1983 GC also included a course on Geographical Regions of Türkiye in the 2nd grade of high school. However, unlike the 1982 GC, the concepts of geographical region, department and precinct were included in the introduction part of the program (MoNE, 1983). Additionally, it is observed that the elements that make up the geographical regions in the 1973 GC are also included. Unlike the 1973 GC, it is noteworthy that in addition to natural elements; human elements such as population, settlement, and economic characteristics are also included. Another notable fact is that more countries (major countries of the Middle East, Balkan Countries, the Soviet Union, the major countries of Africa, and the major countries of Asia) compared to the 1982 GC were included.

In 1992, a new system called the course pass and credit system was introduced in secondary education institutions. The 1992 GC was also shaped in this direction. Accordingly, the courses Geography I and II were included in the group of common courses in secondary education institutions implementing the Course Pass and Credit Regulation. The Geography I course consists of 5 units: Earth, Map Knowledge, Climate, Structure of the Earth and Formation of Landforms, and Formation of the Earth (MoNE, 1992). The content of the Geography II course is largely the same as the Geographical Regions of Türkiye course in the 1983 GC. However, the countries included in the 1983 GC were not included in this course, and a separate elective course was created under the name Geography of Countries.

Understanding of Region in the GCs Implemented Between 2005 and 2024

From the Republican era to the present day, the most radical change after the 1942 GC took place with the 2005 GC. The 2005 GC consisted of Natural Systems, Human Systems, A Spatial Synthesis: Türkiye, Global Setting: Regions and Countries, Environment and Society and the umbrella learning area of Geographical Skills and Applications. The 2005 GC was structured to include four courses at the 9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th grade levels. Accordingly, while the 9th- and 10th-grade Geography courses were compulsory in all secondary education institutions, the 11th- and 12th-grade Geography courses were included in the weekly course schedule of secondary education institutions as elective courses. The Global Setting: Regions and Countries learning area within the 9th-grade Geography course wholly covers the subject of regions (MoNE, 2005). This learning area consisted of a total of three learning outcomes (Table 2).

Table 2. Region-Oriented Learning Outcomes in the 2005 GC

	Grade	Learning Outcomes
Global Setting: Regions and Countries Learning Area	9	D.9.1. Analyzes different examples of regions in the world regarding their characteristics and the criteria used in determining the region. D.9.2. Explains the changeability of region boundaries according to the purpose by using examples of regions at various scales. D.9.3. Distinguishes the countries in the regions determined according to various geographical criteria using maps.
Mekânsal Bir	11	C.11.10. Examples of different types of regions on maps in terms of the criteria used in defining and classifying regions.
Sentez: Türkiye	12	C.12.1. Inquires the reasons for creating Türkiye's geographical regions based on the principles of regional classification.

Source: MoNE, 2005

When Table 2 is examined, it is seen that the three learning outcomes (D.9.1,2 and 3) that make up the Global Setting: Regions and Countries learning area in the 9th grade level include the criteria used in determining the regions, the fact that the borders of the region can change according to the purpose, and the ability to distinguish the countries in the regions formed by using various criteria. Accordingly, unlike previous programs, the concept of region and its place in geography are included for the first time in the 2005 GC. On the other hand, it is noteworthy that region classification is not included. The 11th-grade learning area titled A Spatial Synthesis: Türkiye requires exemplifying different regions in Türkiye on the map using the region classification criteria (Table 2). However, again, it is expected to exemplify only using the criteria utilized in classification without giving a clear region classification. In the 2005 GC, another outcome related to the concept of region is the first of the learning area titled A Spatial Synthesis: Türkiye, which is “C.12.1. Questions the rationale behind the formation of Türkiye’s geographical regions based on the principles of regional classification” (Table 2). The notable element in this outcome is that it does not emphasize the teaching of the natural and human characteristics of the geographical regions, but rather focuses solely on questioning the rationale used in their formation. Accordingly, with the 2005 GC, the teaching of Geography of Türkiye based on geographical regions was abandoned entirely. However, geographical regions could only be included in the 2005 GC in terms of the reasons for their creation. On the other hand, since the 12th-grade Geography course is elective, it is understood that only students who choose this course can acquire this outcome (MoNE, 2005).

After five years, the 2005 GC was revised for the first time in 2010. This revision was realized both in terms of the general objectives of the GC and its content (MoNE, 2010). One of the most important changes made in the content dimension is that the 10 learning outcomes in the 2005 GC were not included in the 2010 GC. Among these 10 learning outcomes, C.11.10 and C.12.1 are also seen in Table 2. On the other hand, learning outcomes D.9.1, 2, and 3 were included in the 2010 GC without any change (MoNE, 2010). Thus, the concept of geographical region, which had been included in GCs for 68 years with the 1942 GC, was removed entirely from the curriculum.

The 2005 GC was revised again in 2011 and 2014. The 2011 revision was a minor update that involved the addition of only two new learning outcomes to the GC. Regarding learning outcomes related to the concept of region, the 2011 GC did not introduce any changes compared to the 2010 version (MoNE, 2011). In 2014, however, a more comprehensive revision was carried out, particularly at the 10th-grade level. Within the weekly high school course schedule, the 10th-grade geography course, which had previously been taught for two hours as both a compulsory and elective subject, saw the removal of its elective component. Accordingly, seven learning outcomes in the 10th-grade GC were removed. Since no changes were made at other grade levels, the 2014 GC did not differ from the 2010 version in terms of learning outcomes related to the concept of the region (MoNE, 2014).

After 13 years of implementation of the 2014 GC, the 2017 GC was put into practice due to MoNE's finalization of its comprehensive curriculum renewal and updating efforts, which included numerous curricula for primary and secondary education. Unlike the 2010, 2011, and 2014 GCs, the 2017 GC includes remarkable changes in content and assessment and evaluation approach, skills, and values (MoNE, 2017). Table 3 shows the learning outcomes related to the concept of the region in the 2017 GC.

Table 3. Region-Oriented Learning Outcomes in the 2017 GC

	Grade	Learning Outcomes
Global Setting: Regions and Countries Unit	9	9.3.1. Analyzes different examples of regions in the world regarding their characteristics and the criteria used in determining the region. a) Examples of natural and human regions from Türkiye are also given. b) Emphasis is placed on the love of the country, based on the existence of different regional examples in Türkiye and this richness.
		9.3.2. Explains the changeability of region boundaries according to the purpose by using examples of regions at various scales.
		9.3.3. Distinguishes the countries in the regions determined according to various geographical criteria using maps.
	12	12.2.2. Analyzes the functional regions in our country according to their characteristics. a) The definition of the functional zone and the criteria by which it is determined. b) The reasons for the creation of functional regions are given. c) Functional region examples defined by the Turkish Statistical Institute, the General Directorate of Highways, the State Hydraulic, the Turkish State Meteorological Service, and the General Directorate of Forestry are included.

Source: MoNE, 2017

When regional learning outcomes of the 2017 GC were examined, it was found that although they were essentially the same as those in the 2010 and later GCs, there were also some differences. Based on this, although the regional learning outcomes in the 9th-grade Geography course were not changed, two explanations were added to learning outcome 9.3.1 (D.9.1 in the 2005 GC). The first explanation required examples of natural and human regions from Türkiye. The second explanation aimed to emphasize the love of the country through its association with value-learning outcomes (MoNE, 2017). Another change was the learning outcome 12.2.2, which was added to the Human Systems unit of the 12th-grade GC. With this learning outcome, the functional region was included in the GC for the first time. However, it is noteworthy that while the functional region is not included in the 9th-grade GC, it is included in the elective 12th-grade GC. Furthermore, the functional region is addressed only at the scale of Türkiye.

After the 2017 GC underwent a partial revision following a very brief period, the 2018 GC was put into effect. This revision consists of minor changes in the general objectives, competencies, value-learning outcome association, and certain learning outcomes (9.1.7 and 9.2.4) and learning outcome descriptions (9.1.3, 9.1.4, 9.1.5, 9.1.6, 9.1.8, 9.1.12, 9.3.1, 9.4.2) of the 2017 GC. Learning outcome 9.3.1, which includes the subject of region, is also included in these learning outcome explanations. Two learning outcome descriptions (Table 3) in the 2017 GC were removed from the 2018 GC, and two different descriptions were added instead. In the first of these explanations, as shown in Table 4, "the distinction between formal and functional regions" was included (MoNE, 2018). Thus, with the 2018 GC, the region classification was included in the program for the first time. In the second explanation, this classification was requested to include different examples of regions from around the world, including Türkiye.

Table 4. Region-Oriented Learning Outcomes in the 2018 GC

	Grade	Learning Outcomes
Global Setting: Regions and Countries Unit	9	9.3.1. Analyzes different examples of regions in the world regarding their characteristics and the criteria used in determining the region. a) The distinction between formal and functional regions is given. b) Examples of different regions from Türkiye and the world are given. 9.3.2. Explains the changeability of region boundaries according to the purpose by using examples of regions at various scales 9.3.3. Distinguishes the countries in the regions determined according to various geographical criteria using maps.
	12	12.2.2. Analyzes the functional regions in our country according to their characteristics. a) The definition of the functional zone and the criteria by which it is determined. b) The reasons for the creation of functional regions are given. c) Functional region examples defined by the Turkish Statistical Institute, the General Directorate of Highways, the State Hydraulic, the Turkish State Meteorological Service, and the General Directorate of Forestry are given.

Source: MoNE, 2018

The 2018 GC was implemented until the 2023-2024 academic year. In 2024, the 2024 GC, which was prepared in line with the Turkish Century Education Model (TCEM) and approved by the BoE decision dated 23.05.2024 and numbered 20, was put into effect starting from the 2024-2025 academic year. According to the Turkish Century Education Model Curriculum Common Text (TCEMCCT), the curricula have a student-centered and flexible structure based on the holistic development of students. Furthermore, the curricula prepared according to the TCEM aim to develop students' academic knowledge and socio-emotional skills, values, and literacy abilities by dynamically addressing knowledge and skills (MoNE, 2024a). The TCEM curricula, which are stated to be prepared within the Virtue-Value-Action framework, consist of conceptual skills, field skills, dispositions, socio-emotional learning skills, and literacy skills in the context of the skills framework (MoNE, 2024a). Unlike the 2018 GC, the 2024 GC, which is stated to be prepared according to this approach, consists of seven units: Nature of Geography (1), Spatial Information Technologies (2), Natural Systems and Processes (3), Human Systems and Processes (4), Economic Activities and Their Effects (5), Disasters and Sustainable Environment (6) and Regions, Countries and Global Connections (7) (MoNE, 2024b).

Table 5. Region-Oriented Learning Outcomes in the 2024 GC

Regions, Countries and Global Connections Unit	Learning Outcomes and Process Components	GEO.9.7.1. Ability to make inferences about a region based on the criteria used to define regions.
		a) Makes assumptions about the region and its boundaries.
		b) Lists patterns in the region and along its boundaries.
		c) Compares the region and its boundaries.
		ç) Makes a proposition about the region and its boundaries.
	d) Evaluates the region and its boundaries.	
	Content Framework Key Concepts	Regions and their boundaries
Region, functional region, formal region		

Source: MoNE, 2024

The understanding of region in the 2024 GC is reflected through learning outcome 9.7.1 in Unit 7 (Regions, Countries, and Global Connections) of the 9th-grade GC (Table 5). In the 2024 GC, this learning outcome aims to enable students to recognize different types of regions in Türkiye and around the world and to make inferences regarding the variability of regional boundaries and the transitions between them (MoNE, 2024b). The process components of this learning outcome emphasize the ability

to make inferences. Accordingly, making assumptions, listing the patterns formed by, comparing, and making propositions about regions and regional boundaries, and evaluating them constitute the process components of learning outcome 9.7.1 (MoNE, 2024b). When the 7th unit's content framework and the learning-teaching practices under the learning-teaching experiences are examined, it is seen that the region classification is made according to formal and functional regions as in the 2018 GC. In this context, it can be said that the 2024 GC continues the understanding of the region and the region classification put forward by the 2018 GC.

Discussion and Conclusion

In Türkiye, regional geography was first included in the GCs, which was prepared at the First Geography Congress and put into practice in 1942. With the 1942 GC, the teaching of Turkish geography in seven geographical regions was adopted. Regional geography had a strong influence on the discipline that continued until the second half of the 20th century (Bilgili, 2016; Guelke, 1977; Wade, 2006; Wood, 1999; Yavan, 2014). Therefore, the adoption of the approach of teaching the geography of Türkiye through geographical regions in the First Geography Congress is a result of regionalism, the dominant paradigm in academic geography at the time. Therefore, when the geographical thought of the time is considered, it can be seen that it is a contemporary approach. Arı (2013) states that regional geography was the dominant approach in this period and that Turkish geographers conducted studies in accordance with this approach. Erinc (1973) also defines this period as one in which Turkish modern geography did not diverge negatively from the world but rather entered a period of rise. Indeed, even after the quantitative revolution, the traditional regional geography approach continued to influence GCs for a certain period of time in many Western countries. The reduction of regional content in GCs first began in the United States towards the end of the 1950s. At the same time, this trend started to exert its influence in other European countries, particularly the United Kingdom, in the 1960s and 1970s (Avdić et al., 2020; Butt, 2020; Lambert & Morgan, 2010). Thus, intellectual and methodological developments in academic geography were aimed to be reflected in school geography as much as possible.

The rationale and logic behind establishing geographical regions at the First Geography Congress aligns with Vidal de la Blache's discourse on French regional geography education (de la Blache, 1908). According to Vidal, the solution to overcoming the difficulties experienced in geography education in France lies in analyzing French territories by dividing them into spatial units. This is because, according to him, perhaps the most important of the difficulties encountered in geography teaching has been the uncertainties in defining countries. Therefore, it is argued that the primary objective of geography is to address similarities and differences in terms of country physiognomy. Thus, the geography educator will be able to see the relationships in phenomena and redefine the region they want to describe by drawing boundaries in accordance with the characteristics that define it (Andrews, 1986; Church, 2015). This approach, which has pedagogical purposes, provided geographers with a method to define regions that are homogeneous within themselves and to draw their boundaries. Textbooks prepared according to this model viewed France in the form of regions. Thus, regions are presented as units that define differences and similarities. In this way, the fact that each geographical unit includes both physical (landforms, climate, vegetation, geological structure, etc.) and human (population, agriculture, cities, industry, etc.) features has been a model that facilitates students' spatial synthesis (Lacoste, 2014). This system also aimed to nurture the national self-image of the country's population residing in villages and towns (Agnew, 2018; Holt-Jensen, 2017). The symbolic interpretation of local characteristics and their association with the concept of nationhood served as a tool for the construction of national identity. Therefore, the symbolic meanings carried by different regions of the country and the association of the characteristics of these regions with the whole nation became a way of establishing national unity (Agnew, 2018; Paasi, 1986).

Although the model encountered in Türkiye's seven geographical regions is similar to this, there are significant differences. For example, unlike France, Türkiye's regional boundaries do not correspond to the heritage of historical facts. On the other hand, human characteristics were almost never taken into

account when determining the regions; they were determined more based on morphological features. For this reason, the geographical regions and boundaries adopted during the First Geography Congress process were the subject of various discussions and objections, including those of the commission members who determined the regional boundaries, both during and after the congress (Arınç, 2013; Avcı, 2011; Balcı, 2018; Darkot, 1955, 1966; Erinç, 1945, 1958; Erinç & Tunçdilek, 1952; Erol, 1993; Gürsoy, 1950, 1957; Kökten, 1945; Özçağlar, 2003; Özey, 2006, 2016; Sözer, 1993; Tuncel, 2011; Yiğit, 1996, 2000, 2006).

The inability of Turkish geographers to follow the quantitative and epistemological revolutions by refraining from contemporary geographical approaches that developed worldwide after the second half of the 20th century until recent times caused the holistic, static, and homogenizing regional understanding of traditional regional geography to dominate the discipline for a very long time (Arı, 2013; Bekaroğlu & Barnes, 2021; Bekaroğlu & Yavan, 2018). The detachment of Turkish geographers from contemporary geographical thought, particularly after the 1970s, was also reflected in geography education. As a matter of fact, the approach of teaching the geography of Türkiye through traditional geographical regions without taking into account the changing understanding of the region within the intellectual development of the discipline has been a dominant approach that suppressed GC for many years. In contrast, the traditional understanding of regional geography, along with the evolution of geographical thinking, gradually disappeared from the GC of many developed countries, especially Anglo-American countries, from the late 1950s onwards, and by the 1980s it had largely lost visibility (Avdić et al., 2020; Butt, 2020; Lambert & Morgan, 2010). In this context, geography education in Türkiye has diverged from contemporary geographical thought along with Turkish academic geography. It can also be said that the fact that graduate geography education in Türkiye emerged only at the end of the 90s and that all GC throughout the history of the Republic were prepared by academic geographers was also effective in this divergence.

From the beginning of the 1970s, strong criticisms against positivism began to be made in academic geography, and in the 1980s, with the change brought by the increasingly reinforced globalization, regional geography in geography education began to be discussed again with a changing understanding of region (Nayak & Jeffrey, 2013). International declarations and reports published by geography associations, such as the International Charter on Geographical Education published in 1992 and Geography for Life: National Geography Standards published in 1994, which guide geography education in many countries around the world, have made the region, along with human-nature interaction, movement, place, and location, one of the five most important themes of geography education within a contemporary approach. On the other hand, especially in the last decade, with the increasing awareness of contemporary geography approaches in academic geography in Türkiye, various publications criticizing the current situation of Turkish geography have started to be produced (Arı, 2013, 2019; Bekaroğlu & Sarış, 2017; Bekaroğlu & Yavan, 2013, 2018; Bekaroğlu et al., 2019; Bilgili, 2016; Özgür, 2021; Özgür & Yavan, 2013; Tekeli, 2012; Yavan & Tüysüz, 2012; Yazan & Bekaroğlu, 2018). With the influence of these developments, the teaching of the geography of Türkiye based on 'geographical regions' was abandoned entirely with the 2005 GC. Additionally, for the first time, it was aimed to establish the place of the region within geography with a contemporary approach. In line with this objective, the GC has been updated to include the criteria used in forming regions, the fact that regions can be formed according to purpose, and the variability of regional boundaries. Thus, the traditional geographical understanding of regions, which denies their dynamism both spatially and temporally, was abandoned, and a contemporary understanding of regions was reflected in the GC.

Globally, GCs are developed in two different ways: based on systematic and regional approaches (IGU-CGE, 1992; Senegačnik, 2018; Steinberg et al., 2002). In countries that develop curricula with a systematic approach, regional geography content is mainly addressed through case studies or as examples within specific thematic units (Avdić et al., 2020). This approach was adopted with the 2005 GC, and regional geography content was included in one learning area (Global Setting: Regions and Countries) from the 9th to 12th grades. At this point, Gersmehl (2008) also compares regional and systematic geography to the two sharp blades of scissors, stating that when the blades are held together, they become much sharper and more functional. Accordingly, GC should be designed to include both

approaches and used in the teaching process. According to Gersmehl's (2008) scissors analogy, this design and teaching process can be realized in two ways: from regional to systematic and from systematic to regional. For example, highlighting a specific geographical feature in a place, questioning why it is there, researching and determining its possible causes, and then trying to find other areas where the possible cause is observed is a regional-to-systematic. On the other hand, examining a spatial element on a small-scale map showing a large area and then investigating how this spatial element interacts at the local level refers to a systematic-to-regional approach.

The 2018 GC is another important milestone in GC's understanding of regions. For the first time, formal and functional regions, which are the region types adopted in the literature, were included in GC. Thus, the region classification, which was not explicitly included in the 2005 GC, was included in the 2018 GC. However, it is predicted that it will take time for the formal and functional region classification to gain a place after the traditional geographical region-based teaching that took place at every level of education between 1942-2010. Indeed, the findings of the study "The Concept of Region in Geography Education" conducted by Koç and Aksoy (2012) also support this situation. According to the findings, although students from the geography department and pre-service geography teachers demonstrated high cognitive levels regarding traditional geographical regions, their cognitive levels concerning formal and functional region types were significantly low. Similarly, in the study conducted by Öztürk and Karabağ (2012) examining teachers' views on paradigms that are effective in the history of geographical thought, it was concluded that geography teachers' knowledge about paradigms is quite inadequate. Geography textbooks also support this situation. When the 9th-grade textbooks on the historical development of geography are examined, it is observed that the historical process is included until the modern geography period and contemporary geography and approaches (quantitative geography, humanist geography, poststructuralist geography, new regional geography, critical geography) that started in the second half of the 20th century are not included (Baranaydin et al., 2023; Türkez et al., 2023). Accordingly, both the results of these two studies and geography textbooks show that the level of awareness of teachers, pre-service teachers and textbook authors towards contemporary geography approaches is inadequate. This is mainly due to the fact that a significant part of what teachers have learned during their undergraduate education has lost its validity to a great extent and that teachers do not/can not follow academic developments in line with the expanding boundaries of the discipline (Butt, 2020). Therefore, it is inevitable that teachers who cannot comprehend this dynamic understanding of region, which was introduced with the 2018 GC and sustained with the 2024 GC, will maintain the traditional understanding of geographical regions. Indeed, Fridrich (2013) states that despite the removal of regional geography from the Austrian geography and economics curriculum in 1985/86 due to didactic and pedagogical concerns, regional geography is still taught by teachers and somehow integrated into the curriculum, indicating an inconsistency between the official curriculum and actual teaching practices.

The approach of geography teachers and pre-service teachers to the concept of region is vital for reflecting formal and functional region classification in practice. However, when the course contents of higher education geography undergraduate programs are examined, it is observed that traditional geographical regions courses are still common in the vast majority of them (Bilgili, 2016). This situation brings along a contradiction in itself. Geographical regions were created to teach the geography of Türkiye in primary and secondary education at the First Geography Congress under the leadership of the MoNE of the time. However, while the traditional geographical region understanding has been abandoned in both the primary and the secondary education curricula today, it still largely persists in higher education undergraduate programs. However, the traditional Hartshornian approach to regional geography has disappeared from undergraduate programs in many countries (Halseth, 1998; Rees & Legates, 2013). This contradiction is the biggest obstacle to reflecting the new and dynamic regional understanding brought by the 2018 GC on the practice. It is challenging for pre-service geography teachers, who have been trained with the understanding of geographical regions created with a paradigm that has been abandoned in Western geographical thought since the second half of the 20th century, to comprehend the understanding of region that started with the 2005 GC, entirely shaped with the 2018 GC and sustained with the 2024 GC during their teaching process.

Suggestions

In the present study, in the context of changing paradigms with the evolution of geographical thought, the historical transformation of the understanding of the region in the GC implemented from the early Republican period to the present day was examined. In line with the findings and results of the study, research topics that can contribute to the literature are suggested below;

- According to the study findings, there is no understanding of the classification of regions in the GC implemented in the 1924-1941 period. However, according to the minutes and reports of the First Geography Congress, different regional classifications were used in practice during this period. On the other hand, the conception of region and regional classification of this period are not included in the minutes and reports of the Congress. Therefore, it is suggested that examining the secondary school geography textbooks used in the 1924-1941 period and revealing what different regional conceptions and classifications were used during this period is an important research topic that complements the present study.
- The understanding of geographical regions, which was created under the influence of the traditional regional geography paradigm, was effective on GC for a very long time until 2004. The extent to which the new understanding of geographical region brought by the GC implemented in 2005 and onwards after more than sixty years of traditional geographical region understanding is reflected in the practice and textbooks through geography teachers is suggested as a second research topic.

References

- Agnew, J. (2018). Evolution of the regional concept. In A. Paasi, J. Harrison, & M. Jones (Eds.), *Handbook on the geographies of regions and territories* (pp. 23-33). Edward Elgar Publishing.
- Akimoto, H. (2015). Reconsidering regional geography education in Japan. In Y. Ida, M. Yuda, T. Shimura, S. Ike, K. Ohnishi, & H. Oshima (Eds.), *Geograph education in Japan* (pp. 65-74). Springer.
- Andrews, H. F. (1986). The early life of Paul Vidal de la Blache and the makings of modern geography. *Transactions of the Institute of British Geographers*, 11(2), 174-182. <https://doi.org/10.2307/622004>
- Arı, Y. (2013). Yeni yüzyılda Türkiye’de coğrafya: Fırsatlar ve tehditler. *Beşeri Coğrafya Dergisi*, 1(1), 6-13.
- Arı, Y. (2017). Çevresel determinizmden politik ekolojiye: Son 100 yılda Dünya’da ve Türkiye’de insan-çevre coğrafyasındaki yaklaşımlar. *Doğu Coğrafya Dergisi*, 22(37), 1-34. <https://doi.org/10.17295/ataunidcd.269463>
- Arı, Y. (2019). Yenilik ve bilimsel gelişme: Türk coğrafya tartışma listesinin (coğrafya) içerik analizi (1997-2012). *International Journal of Geography and Geography Education*, (39), 95-120. <https://doi.org/10.32003/iggei.518929>
- Arıncı, K. (2013). Coğrafi metodoloji açısından bölgesel coğrafya, bölge bilimi ve coğrafi bölgeler. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi*, (60), 13-24.
- Artvinli, E., & Kaya, N. (2010). 1992 Uluslararası Coğrafya Eğitimi Bildirgesi ve Türkiye’deki yansımaları. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (22), 93-127.
- Ashutosh, I. (2017). The geography and area studies interface from the second world war to the cold war. *Geographical Review*, 107(4), 705-721. <https://doi.org/10.1111/gere.12243>
- Association of American Geographers. (1984). *Guidelines for geographic education: Elementary and secondary schools*. Association of American Geographers.
- Avcı, S. (2011). Birinci Coğrafya Kongresi ve Türkiye’nin coğrafi bölgeleri hakkındaki tartışmalara dair bir not. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi*, (57), 95-99.
- Avdić, B., Mirić, R., & Drešković, N. (2020). Regional geography and geographical education: Changes in global trends in modern school geography. *Geografski Pregled*, (42), 9-20. <https://doi.org/10.35666/23038950.2020.42.09>
- Balcı, A. (2018). Türkiye’nin coğrafi bölgelere ayrılmasına ilişkin yaklaşımları belirlemeye yönelik nitel bir araştırma. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (37), 30-48. <https://doi.org/10.14781/mcd.388279>
- Balibar, E., & Wallerstein, I. (2000). *İrk, ulus, sınıf: Belirsiz kimlikler* (N. Ökten, Trans.). Metis Yayınları.
- Baranaydın, M., Aydın, Y. & Tekbaş, G. (2023). *Ortaöğretim coğrafya 9 ders kitabı*. Gün Yayıncılık.
- Bassin, M. (1987). Race contra space: The conflict between german geopolitik and national socialism. *Political Geography Quarterly*, 6(2), 115-134. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0260-9827\(87\)90002-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0260-9827(87)90002-4)
- Bauab, F. P. (2011). A Geografia Geral (1650) de Bernhardus Varenius: A modernidade da obra. *Raega-O Espaço Geográfico Em Análise*, (23), 191-220. <https://doi.org/10.5380/raega.v23i0.24837>
- Baulig, H. (1959). Géographie générale et géographie régionale. *Cahiers de Géographie Du Québec*, 3(6), 47-52. <https://doi.org/10.7202/020163ar>
- Bednarz, S. W., Bettis, N. C., Boehm, R. G., Downs, R. M., Marran, J. F., Morrill, R. W., & Salter, C. L. (1994). *Geography for life: National geography standards*. National Geographic Society.
- Bekaroğlu, C. E. (2016). Modern dünya sisteminin bilgi yapıları bağlamında coğrafya disiplini için bir dışsal tarih okuması. *Toplum ve Bilim Dergisi*, (136), 117-146.
- Bekaroğlu, C. E., & Barnes, T. (2021). Dictatorships and universities: The 1980 Turkish Military Coup d’état and Turkish geography. *Political Geography*, 91(10481), 117-146. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.polgeo.2021.102481>

- Bekaroğlu, C. E., & Sarış, F. (2017). Türkiye’de fiziki coğrafya: Değişen disiplinler pratiğinin ampirik bir analizi. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (35), 40-54. <https://doi.org/10.14781/mcd.291143>
- Bekaroğlu, C. E., & Yavan, N. (2013). Modern Türk coğrafyasının tarihsel gelişiminde batılı coğrafya okullarının etkisi: Ampirik bir analiz. *Beşeri Coğrafya Dergisi*, 1(1), 51-66.
- Bekaroğlu, C. E., & Yavan, N. (2018). Türk coğrafyacılığında dört gelenek: Ampirik bir analiz. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (37), 79-93. <https://doi.org/10.14781/mcd.386126>
- Bekaroğlu, C. E., Yavan, N., & Anlı, Ö. F. (2019). Türk coğrafyacılığında jenerasyonlar: Disiplinin tarihine kohortçu bir yaklaşım. *Coğrafi Bilimler Dergisi*, 17(1), 55-77. <https://doi.org/10.33688/auchbd.502638>
- Best, J. W., & Kahn, J. V. (2005). *Research in education*. Pearson.
- Bilgili, M. (2016). Sosyal bilimler felsefesi açısından Türkiye’deki üniversitelerde bölgesel coğrafya öğretimi. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (33), 114-134. <https://doi.org/10.14781/mcd.95974>
- Bowen, G. A. (2009). Document analysis as a qualitative research method. *Qualitative Research Journal*, 9(2), 27-40. <https://doi.org/10.3316/QRJ0902027>
- Burton, I. (1963). The quantitative revolution and theoretical geography. *Canadian Geographer/Le Géographe Canadien*, 7(4), 151-162. doi:10.1111/j.1541-0064.1963.tb00796.x
- Butt, G. (2020). *Geography education research in the UK: Retrospect and prospect*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-25954-9>
- Church, R. J. H. (2015). The French school of geography. In G. Taylor (Ed.), *Geography in the twentieth century*. Routledge.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2018). *Research methods in education*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315456539>
- Couper, P. (2015). *A student’s introduction to geographical thought*. SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (4th ed.). SAGE Publications.
- Cresswell, T. (2013). *Geographic thought a critical introduction*. Wiley-Blackwell.
- Darkot, B. (1955). Türkiye’nin coğrafi bölgeleri hakkında. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi*, (13-14), 141-149.
- Darkot, B. (1966). *Türkiye’de coğrafi bölgelerin teşkilinde kriterlerin araştırılması*. İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi Mimarlık Fakültesi Şehircilik Kürsüsü Yayını.
- de la Blache, P. V. (1908). *La France: Tableau géographique*. Librairie Hachette.
- Dikshit, R. D. (2011). *Geographical thought: A contextual history of ideas*. PHI Learning Private Limited.
- Entrikin, J. N. (2011). Region and regionalism. In J. A. Agnew & D. N. Livingstone (Eds.), *The SAGE handbook of geographical knowledge*. SAGE Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446201091.n26>
- Erinç, S. (1945). Kuzey Anadolu kenar dağlarının Ordu-Giresun kesiminde Landşaft şeritleri. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi*, (7-8), 119-140.
- Erinç, S. (1958). Bölge sınırlandırmasının esasları. In *II. İskân ve Şehircilik Haftası Konferansları* (pp. 69-94). Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi Yayınları.
- Erinç, S. (1973). *Cumhuriyet’in 50. yılında Türkiye’de coğrafya*. Başbakanlık Kültür Müsteşarlığı Cumhuriyetin 50. Yıldönümü Yayınları.
- Erinç, S., & Tunçdilek, N. (1952). The agricultural regions of Turkey. *Geographical Review*, 42(2), 179-203. <https://doi.org/10.2307/211384>
- Erol, O. (1993). Türkiye’nin doğal yöre ve çevreleri. *Ege Coğrafya Dergisi*, 7(1), 13-41.
- Fitzgerald, W. (1943). The regional concept in geography. *Nature*, 152(3869), 740-741. <https://doi.org/10.1038/152740a0>
- Fraenkel, J. W., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. McGraw-Hill Book Co.

- Fridrich, C. (2013). Von der befremdlichen persistenz der länderkunde im unterrichtsgegenstand geographie und wirtschaftskunde - ergebnisse einer empirischen untersuchung. *GW-Unterricht*, (132), 17-27.
- Gall, M. D., Gall, J. P., & Borg, W. R. (2007). *Educational research: An introduction* (8th ed.). Pearson.
- Gersmehl, P. (2008). *Teaching geography*. Guildford Press.
- Gilbert, A. (1988). The new regional geography in English and French-speaking countries. *Progress in Human Geography*, 12(2), 208-228. <https://doi.org/10.1177/030913258801200203>
- Gregory, D. (1988). *Geographical imaginations*. Blackwell.
- Gregory, D., Johnston, R., Pratt, G., Watts, M., & Whatmore, S. (2009). Region. In *The dictionary of human geography*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Guelke, L. (1977). Regional geography. *The Professional Geographer*, 29(1), 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0033-0124.1977.00001.x>
- Gürsoy, C. R. (1950). Samsun gerisinde Karadeniz intikal iklimi. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, 8(1-2), 113-129. https://doi.org/10.1501/Dtcfder_00000000273
- Gürsoy, C. R. (1957). Türkiye'nin coğrafi taksimatında yapılması icabeden bazı tashihler. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi Dergisi*, 15(1-3), 219-229. https://doi.org/10.1501/Dtcfder_00000000721
- Haggett, P. (1969). *Locational analysis in human geography*. Edward Arnold Publishers.
- Halseth, G. (1998). Re-situating regional geography in an undergraduate curriculum: An example from a new university. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 22(3), 335-345. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03098269885741>
- Hanson, N. R. (1958). *Patterns of discovery*. Cambridge University.
- Hart, J. F. (1982). The highest form of the geographer's art. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 72(1), 1-29. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8306.1982.tb01380.x>
- Hartshorne, R. (1939). The nature of geography: A critical survey of current thought in the light of the past. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 29(3), 173-412. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2561063>
- Hartshorne, R. (1959). *Perspective on the nature of geography*. The Association of American Geographers.
- Harvey, D. (2015). *Kozmopolitik ve özgürlük coğrafyaları* (Z. C. Başeren, Trans.). İstanbul Bilgi Üniversitesi Yayınları.
- Harvey, M. E., & Holly, B. P. (1981). Paradigm, philosophy and geographic thought. In M. E. Harvey & B. P. Holly (Eds.), *Themes in geographic thought* (pp. 11-37). Routledge.
- Holt-Jensen, A. (2017). *Coğrafya tarihi felsefesi ve temel kavramları* (E. Bekaroğlu, Ö. F. Anlı, H. Turut, & S. Tuysuz, Trans.). İdil Yayıncılık.
- International Geographic Union, Commission on Geographical Education. (1992). *1992 International Charter on Geographical Education*. <http://www.igu-cge.org/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/1.-English.pdf>
- International Geographic Union, Commission on Geographical Education. (2007). *2007 Lucerne Declaration on Geography Education for Sustainable Development*. <https://www.igu-cge.org/2007-declaration/>
- International Geographic Union, Commission on Geographical Education. (2015). *2015 International Declaration on Research in Geography Education*. <https://www.igu-cge.org/2015-declaration/>
- Johnston, R. (2005). Geography-coming apart at the seams?. In N. Castree, A. Rogers, & D. Sherman (Eds.), *Questioning geography: Fundamental debates* (pp. 9-26). Blackwell Publishing.
- Johnston, R., & Sidaway, J. D. (2005). *Geography & geographers: Anglo-American human geography since 1945*. Oxford University Press.

- Kant, I. (1999). *Pratik aklın eleştirisi* (İ. Kuçuradi, D. Gökberk, F. Akatlı, & M. Tuncay, Trans.). Türkiye Felsefe Kurumu.
- Kant, I. (2002). *Prolegomena gelecekte bilim olarak ortaya çıkabilecek her metafiziğe* (İ. Kuçuradi & Y. Örnek, Trans.). Türkiye Felsefe Kurumu.
- Karasar, N. (2016). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemi kavramlar ilkeler teknikler*. Nobel Yayın Dağıtım.
- Koç, H., & Aksoy, B. (2012). Coğrafya eğitiminde bölge kavramı. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (25), 319-339.
- Kökten, İ. K. (1945). Kuzeydoğu Anadolu prehistoryasında Bayburt çevresinin yeri. *Ankara Üniversitesi Dil ve Tarih-Coğrafya Fakültesi*, 3(5), 465-505. https://doi.org/10.1501/Dtcfder_0000000661
- Kurtkaya, S., & Ünlü, M. (2023). Coğrafyada paradigmalara öğretmen yaklaşımları. *International Journal of Geography and Geography Education (IGGE)*, (48), 21-36. <https://doi.org/10.32003/igge.1230841>
- Lacoste, Y. (2014). *Coğrafya her şeyden önce savaş yapmaya yarar* (S. Sezer, Trans.). Ayrıntı Yayınları.
- Lambert, D., & Morgan, J. (2010). *Teaching geography 11-18: A conceptual approach*. McGraw-Hill Open University Press.
- Lee, D. M. (2023). How do narrative-based geospatial technologies contribute to the teaching of regional geography to preservice geography teachers?. *Journal of Geography*, 122(4), 93-101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00221341.2023.2221244>
- Livingstone, D. N. (2011). Environmental determinism. In J. A. Agnew & D. N. Livingstone (Eds.), *The sage handbook of geographical knowledge*. SAGE Publications. <https://doi.org/10.4135/9781446201091.n28>
- Maarif Vekâleti. (1924). 1924 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. Maarif Vekâleti Yayınları.
- Maarif Vekâleti. (1938). 1938 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. Maarif Vekâleti Yayınları.
- Maarif Vekâleti. (1941). *Birinci Coğrafya Kongresi (6-21 Haziran 1941) raporlar, müzakereler, kararlar*. Ankara: Maarif Vekilliği Yayınları.
- Maarif Vekâleti. (1942). 1942 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. Maarif Vekâleti Yayınları.
- Martin, G. J. (2005). *All possible worlds: A history of geographical ideas*. Oxford University Press.
- Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods*. SAGE Publications.
- Minca, C. (2001). *Postmodern geography: Theory and praxis*. Blackwell.
- Ministry of National Education. (1957). 1957 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (1971). 1971 Coğrafya dersi taslak öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (1973). 1973 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (1982). 1982 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (1983). 1983 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (1992). 1992 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2005). 2005 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2010). 2010 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2011). 2011 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2014). 2014 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2017). 2017 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. MEB Yayınları.
- Ministry of National Education. (2018). 2018 Coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. <http://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/ProgramDetay.aspx?PID=336>
- Ministry of National Education. (2024a). 2024 Türkiye yüzyılı maarif modeli öğretim programları ortak metni. <https://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/>

- Ministry of National Education. (2024b). 2024 Türkiye yüzyılı maarif modeli coğrafya dersi öğretim programı. <https://mufredat.meb.gov.tr/>
- Minshull, R. (2017). *Regional geography: Theory and practice*. Routledge.
- Montello, D. R. (2003). Regions in geography: Process and content. In M. Duckham, M. F. Goodchild, & M. F. Worboys (Eds.), *Foundations of geographic information science* (pp. 173-189). Taylor & Francis.
- Nayak, A., & Jeffrey, A. (2013). *Geographical thought: An introduction to ideas in human geography*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315847528>
- Nir, D. (1987). Regional geography considered from the systems' approach. *Geoforum*, 18(2), 187-202. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-7185\(87\)90005-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/0016-7185(87)90005-4)
- Nir, D. (1990). *Region as a socio-environmental system: An introduction to a systemic regional geography*. Kluwer Academic Publishers. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-009-0483-5>
- Oberhauser, A. (1995). Towards a gendered regional geography: Women and work in rural appalachia. *Growth and Change*, 26(2), 217-244. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2257.1995.tb00169.x>
- Öngör, S. (1963). Siyasi coğrafya ve jeopolitik. *Ankara Üniversitesi SBF Dergisi*, 18(1), 301-317. https://doi.org/10.1501/SBFder_0000000688
- Özçağlar, A. (2003). Türkiye'de yapılan bölge ayrımları ve bölge planlama üzerindeki etkileri. *Coğrafi Bilimler Dergisi*, 1(1), 3-18.
- Özey, R. (2006). *Coğrafi bölgelerin siyasi bölgeler olarak algılanması ve sonuçları* [Paper presentation]. IV. Ulusal Coğrafya Sempozyumu, Ankara. https://tucaum.ankara.edu.tr/wp-content/uploads/sites/280/2015/08/semp4_3.pdf
- Özey, R. (2016). Bölgesel coğrafya serüveninde yanılgılar. *Marmara Coğrafya Dergisi*, (34), 98-106.
- Özgen, N. (2012). Bilim olarak coğrafya ve evrimsel paradigmaları. *Ege Coğrafya Dergisi*, 19(2), 1-25.
- Özgüç, N., & Tümertekin, E. (2000). *Coğrafya: Geçmiş, kavramlar, coğrafyacılar*. Çantay Kitabevi.
- Özgür, E. M. (2018). Türk beşeri coğrafyasında yenileşme eğilimleri: Değişim aktörlerinin perspektifinden bir değerlendirme. *International Journal of Geography and Geography Education*, (38), 142-170. <https://doi.org/10.32003/iggei.440888>
- Özgür, E. M. (2021). Türk beşeri coğrafyasında ihmal edilmiş bir paradigma: Hümanist coğrafya. *Ege Coğrafya Dergisi*, 30(1), 205-224. <https://doi.org/10.51800/ecd.892187>
- Özgür, E. M., & Yavan, N. (2013). Türk coğrafyacılarının iç hesaplaşması: Neden başaramadık? Nasıl başarabiliriz?. *Beşeri Coğrafya Dergisi*, 1(1), 14-38.
- Öztürk, M. (2007). Coğrafya: Gelişimi, içeriği, eğitimi. In S. Karabağ & S. Şahin (Eds.), *Kuram ve uygulamada coğrafya eğitimi* (pp. 1-53). Gazi Kitabevi.
- Öztürk, M. (2012). Coğrafya öğretmenlerinin postmodern coğrafya algıları. *Eğitim ve Bilim*, 37(166), 262-274.
- Öztürk, M., & Karabağ, S. (2012). Öğretmen görüşlerine göre coğrafyada paradigmlar. *Mustafa Kemal Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 9(20), 421-444.
- Paasi, A. (1986). The institutionalization of regions: A theoretical framework for understanding the emergence of regions and the constitution of regional identity. *Fennia-International Journal of Geography*, 164(1), 105-146. <https://doi.org/10.11143/9052>
- Paasi, A. (1991). Deconstructing regions: Notes on the scales of spatial life. *Environment and Planning*, 23(2), 239-256. <https://doi.org/10.1068/a230239>
- Paasi, A. (2002). Place and region: Regional worlds and words. *Progress in Human Geography*, 26(6), 802-811. <https://doi.org/10.1191/0309132502ph404pr>
- Paasi, A. (2009). Regional geography. In R. Kitchen & N. Thrift (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of human geography* (Vol. 9, pp. 214-227). Elsevier. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-008044910-4.00736-7>

- Peet, R. (1985). The social origins of environmental determinism. *Annals of the Association of American Geographers*, 75(3), 309-333. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8306.1985.tb00069.x>
- Peet, R. (1998). *Modern geographical thought*. Blackwell.
- Rees, P. W., & Legates, M. (2013). Returning “region” to world regional geography. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 37(3), 327-349. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03098265.2013.769089>
- Senegačnik, J. (2018). Classification of regional and thematic approaches in school textbooks on the geography of Europe. *Acta Geographica Slovenica*, 58(2), 123-134. <https://doi.org/10.3986/ags.3408>
- Shaw, D. J. (2008). Bernhard Varenus’ geographia generalis and the rise of modern geographical studies in Russia. In M. Schuchard (Ed.), *Bernhard Varenus (1622-1650)* (pp. 271-287). Brill. <https://doi.org/10.1163/ej.9789004163638.i-351.95>
- Sözer, A. N. (1993). Herbert Louis’ nin “Landeskunde der Türkei” adlı yapıtı üzerine bazı düşünceler ve notlar. *Ege Coğrafya Dergisi*, 7(1), 1-12.
- Standish, A. (2018a). The place of regional geography. In M. Jones & D. Lambert (Eds.), *Debates in geography education*. Routledge.
- Standish, A. (2018b). What to teach? Conceptualising a geography curriculum. *Journal of Geographical Research*, (68), 73-88. https://doi.org/10.6234/JGR.201805_%2868%29.0004
- Standish, A. (2021). Geography. In A. S. Cuthbert & A. Standish (Eds.), *What should schools teach?*. UCL Press. <https://doi.org/10.2307/j.ctv14t475s.15>
- Steinberg, P. E., Walter, A., & Sherman-Morris, K. (2002). Using the internet to integrate thematic and regional approaches in geographic education. *The Professional Geographer*, 54(3), 332-348. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0033-0124.00334>
- Stern, D. I. (1992). Do regions exist? Implications of synergetics for regional geography. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 24(10), 1431-1448. <https://doi.org/10.1068/a241431>
- Šabić, D., Golić, R., Vujadinović, S., & Joksimović, M. (2018). Present and future of new regional geography in the education school’s system and scientific discipline’s position at the University of Belgrade. *Zbornik Radova-Geografski Fakultet Univerziteta u Beogradu*, 66(1), 39-51. <https://doi.org/10.5937/zrgfub1866039S>
- Świątek, A., & Osuch, W. (2020). Regional geography education in Poland. In *(Teaching) regional geography: Proceedings of 27th central european conference* (pp. 173-186). Masaryk University Press. <https://doi.org/10.5817/CZ.MUNI.P210-9694-2020-14>
- Şahin, B. (2020). *Uluslararası Coğrafya Birliği’nin perspektifinden coğrafya eğitimi*. Pegem Akademi. <https://doi.org/10.14527/9786257228398>
- Şahin, B. (2022). Coğrafya eğitiminin beş teması. In S. Karabağ & S. Şahin (Eds.), *Coğrafya eğitiminin temel eksenleri*. Pegem Akademi.
- Tekeli, İ. (2012). Türkiye’de coğrafyacıların çok paradigmatlı bir bilim dünyasında yaşamayı öğrenmesi gerekiyor. In *TÜCAUM VI. Coğrafya Sempozyumu bildiriler kitabı* (pp. 348-354). Türkiye Coğrafyası Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi.
- Tomaney, J. (2009). Regional. In R. Kitchen & N. Thrift (Eds.), *International encyclopedia of human geography* (Vol. 9, pp. 214-227). Elsevier.
- Tuncel, M. (2011). Birinci Coğrafya Kongresi’nde Türkiye coğrafi bölgelerinin isimlendirilmesi, sınırlarının tespiti ve günümüze etkileri. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi*, (57), 1-10.
- Türkez, K., Karakoç, M., Balşen, N., Pektaş, T., & Özdoğan, İ. (2023). *Ortaöğretim coğrafya 9 ders kitabı* (S. Zaman, Ed.). MEB Yayınları.
- Tüysüz, S., & Yavan, N. (2012). Bölgesel coğrafya yaklaşımı ve Türk coğrafyasındaki etkileri üzerine kritik bir değerlendirme. In *TÜCAUM VI. Coğrafya Sempozyumu bildiriler kitabı* (pp. 390-405). Türkiye Coğrafyası Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi.
- Unwin, T. (1992). *The place of geography*. Routledge.

- Wade, C. (2006). A historical case for the role of regional geography in geographic education. *Journal of Geography in Higher Education*, 30(2), 181-189. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03098260600717232>
- Wood, G. (1999). On the future of regional geography. *Geographica Helvetica*, 54(4), 199-207. <https://doi.org/10.5194/gh-54-199-1999>
- Yavan, N. (2014). Batı coğrafyası geleneği üzerine. In C. E. Bekaroğlu & A. Özdemir (Eds.), *Bir disiplinin iç dünyası modern Türk coğrafyası üzerine söyleşiler*. İdil Yayıncılık.
- Yazan, S., & Bekaroğlu, C. E. (2018). Türk coğrafyacılığının disipliner ilişkileri üzerine ampirik bir araştırma. *Coğrafi Bilimler Dergisi*, 16(1), 37-67. https://doi.org/10.1501/Cogbil_00000000190
- Yıldırım, A., & Şimşek, H. (2018). *Sosyal bilimlerde nitel araştırma teknikleri*. Seçkin Yayınları.
- Yiğit, A. (1996). Türkiye'nin doğu bölgelerinin yeniden belirlenmesi hakkında düşünceler. *Fırat Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 8(1), 357-376.
- Yiğit, A. (2000). Türkiye'de daha kullanışlı coğrafi bölgeler oluşturma gerekçeleri ve öneriler. In 9. *Ulusal Bölge Bilimi/Bölge Planlama Kongresi bildiriler kitabı* (pp. 514-528). KTÜ.
- Yiğit, A. (2006). Geçmişten günümüze Türkiye'yi bölgelere ayırma çalışmaları ve yapılması gerekenler. In 4. *Ulusal Coğrafya Sempozyumu: Avrupa Birliği Sürecindeki Türkiye'de Bölgesel Farklılıklar bildiriler* (pp. 33-44). Türkiye Coğrafyası Araştırma ve Uygulama Merkezi.