

**Social Sciences:
Theory, Methodology and Practice**

**Editors
Prof. Yüksel Kocadoru, Ph.D.**

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Prof. Yüksel Kocadoru, Ph.D.

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Address: Natoyolu Cad. Fahri Korutürk Mah. 157/B, 06480, Mamak,
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Phone: +90 312 390 1 118

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e-mail: platanuskita@gmail.com

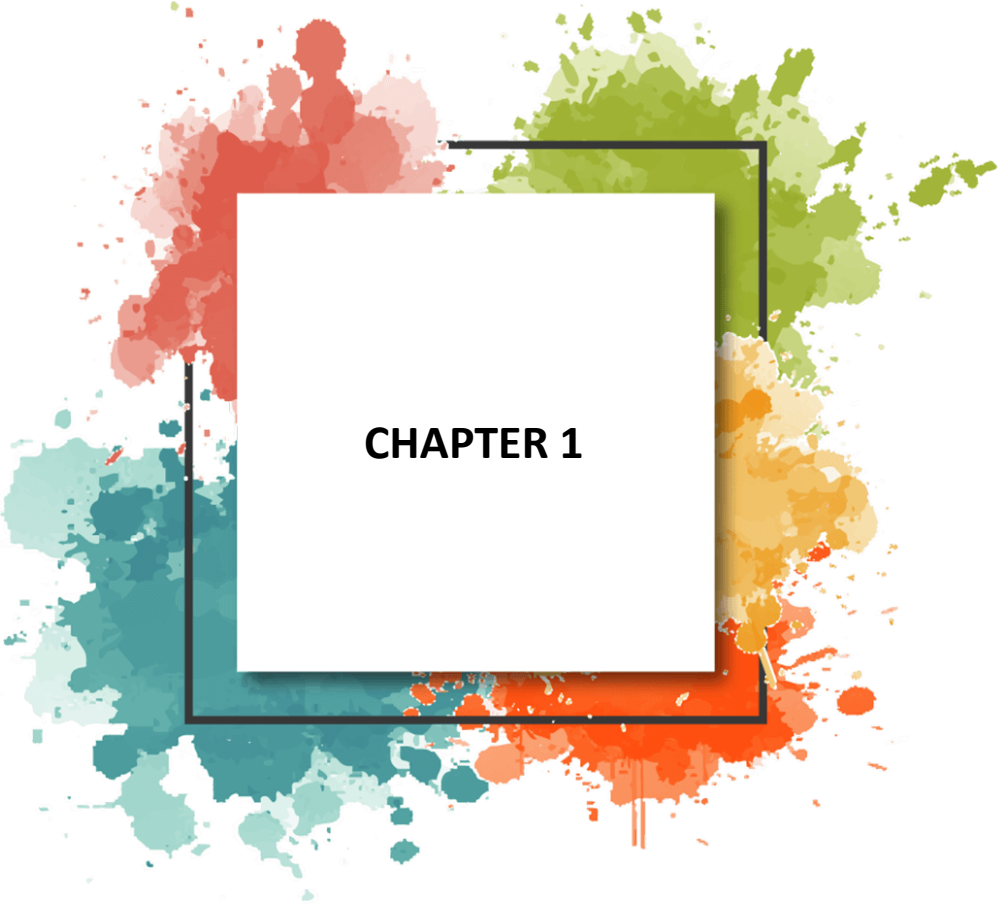


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CHAPTER 1

Fictitious Conflicts and Authentic Connections: Revitalized Civil-Military Concord via Schiff Theory

Burak Beyaz¹ & Erdal Kılıç²

1. The Evolution of Civil-Military Relations

To address the topic of civil-military interactions, it is essential to define the categories of citizens and soldiers. A civilian is an individual who is not affiliated with the armed forces or any armed organizations of any nation under international law. Civilians are those who abstain from participation in armed combat, and their rights and security are partially protected by several international conventions. Different professional organizations occasionally use the term "civil" in a metaphorical sense to refer to individuals outside their own groups. A soldier is an individual serving in the military, with a rank that ranges from private to marshal. They are individuals subject to military service obligations (non-commissioned officers and privates) and those who enlist in the armed services under specific legislation and don an official uniform. The principal responsibility of soldiers is to safeguard their nation's territory from internal and foreign threats. Addressing two distinct notions, often conflated in contemporary discourse, along with the definitions of "soldier" and "citizen," is advantageous. These pertain to the principles of civil-military relations and civil-military cooperation. The notion of civil-military relations has been examined concerning the armed services' participation in or impact on national politics throughout history. Civil-military relations refer to the hierarchical and interactive dynamics between the military, which possesses the ability to wield violence on behalf of the state, and the citizens who delineate and regulate the boundaries of this authority. Civil-military relations have been considered a challenge to regulating military authority's propensity for coups or repressive power with respect to civilian authority.

The notions of soldier and citizen, frequently conflated in contemporary discourse, warrant further exploration of distinct conceptions. Civil-military ties and civil-military cooperation are interrelated ideas. The notion of civil-military relations has historically addressed the subject of armed forces intervening in or influencing a nation's politics. Civil-military relations encompass the state's

¹ Öğr. Görevlisi, Kara Harp Okulu, Savunma Araştırmaları Bölümü,
ORCID: 0000-0002-2788-2205

² Dr. Öğr. Görevlisi, Kara Harp Okulu, Savunma Araştırmaları Bölümü,
ORCID: 000-0002-9308-5028

employment of violence, wherein the soldier wields power and delineates the parameters of this authority, reflecting the hierarchical and interactive dynamics among civilians. Civil-military relations represent a contentious subject, characterized by the military's propensity for coup attempts against civilian authority, all within the context of maintaining the dominance of repressive power (Finer, 1975:189)

We can demonstrate the concept of civil-military collaboration through a simple historical example. may be acquired. Historically, citizens aided the military in certain regions, provided sustenance for the army, and met additional needs during the conflict. The needs of both the military and the civilian populace were addressed throughout the conflict. It was in the process of being drafted at the time of his release. Four Senior authorities currently uphold civil-military cooperation. National The Security Council comprises civilian and military members and concentrates on national security. in situations where civilian and military authorities collaboratively oversee the procedure. The National Security Policy Document, collaboratively developed by civilian and military authorities, exemplifies the notion of civil-military collaboration grounded in national security, welfare, and survival. (Gürpınar, 2013:76) Five Civil-military cooperation entails a collaborative endeavor that encompasses integration and joint efforts in defense planning. It seeks to enhance the capability. (Szarejko, 2014:141)

The rise of civil-military relations as a distinct topic of study in the 20th century In the end, "the power of soldiers within both the military and the political world" shapes how they interact with each other and has the ability to create laws, as shown by researchers looking into the necessary rules and guidelines for this area of study. The state's organization and the circumstances among citizens have been the focus of study. It is widely recognized that the state The organization is the sole authorized body permitted to employ force (Peri, 2006:6). This Consequently, the state owns a forceful apparatus, which must prevail over the equipment. Consequently, brute force arises. Civilians who abstain from violence and individuals sanctioned by the state are accountable for exercising the monopoly of violence in response to criminal acts. A dispute has emerged. (Bröckling, 2008:24)

Although it was recognized that civic power granted the requirements for a state to engage in war or establish peace, the command and control of pre-war and wartime activities resided with the armed forces (Caforio, 2006:106). The deployment strategies and command structures of the armed services were also influencing these connections. The adoption of voluntary conscription, along with the expansion of the demographic gap, has resulted in an augmented cultural barrier between people and troops. In other words, individuals who enlist in the

military possess similar sentiments and beliefs. The same ideologies and organizational framework among these individuals provide a notable civil-military dichotomy inside the armed forces, since they sociologically distinguish themselves from civilian society (Çatak, 2017:18). Nonetheless, particularly alongside the revolution and evolution exhibited by industrial society globally, a mutual discord and distinction have arisen between citizens and military people (Caforio, 2006: 61). Cath Downes' proposal about the reform and adjustment of the armed services' institutional frameworks is of considerable significance. This concept necessitates the delegation of some military units to civilian specialists, with their administration conducted by these professionals (Caforio, 2006, s. 71).

Between 1950 and 1980, American political analysts examined the dynamics between civilians and military personnel, emphasizing the interaction between the political elite and the civilian populace, particularly the impact of military leadership on foreign policy (Caforio, 2006, s. 132).

2. Determinative Factors in Civil-Military Relations

In analyzing civil-military relations from the 1950s to the 1980s, the core components of the research are political culture and the institutional cultural levels. The fundamental elements analyzed in civil-military relations encompass the cultural gap between civilians and the military, the professionalism of the armed forces, the separation between the army and society, and the political activities and influences of military personnel. Studies on civil-military interactions from 1950 to 1980 contend that issues predominantly arose in such nations by analyzing these factors. Firstly, nations where military culture supersedes civilian culture and institutionalization is minimal; secondly, nations experiencing enemy occupation or facing a significant risk of imminent conflict; and nations where the military and its personnel are regarded as more esteemed and prestigious by society than civilian officials and administrators (Kızıllarslan, 2018:5).

Charles Moskos designates the interval from 1950 to 1980 as the "Late Modern Era." Moskos identifies three characteristics concerning civil-military interactions throughout the late modern era, spanning from 1950 to 1980. These encompass professionalism, political standpoints, and degrees of institutionalization. In nations and cultures characterized by advanced political culture and institutionalization, the professionalism of the armed services is elevated. In such a system, the cultural disparity between the armed forces and their personnel and the civilian population has attained a significant degree, resulting in more harmonious and civilized civil-military interactions (Moskos et al., 2000:14-3).

Conversely, in governments characterized by poor political culture and institutionalization, the level of professionalism is correspondingly diminished due to these factors. In such nations, the military and society become closely intertwined. The proximity between military personnel and civilian politicians is leading to increased military involvement in politics, resulting in perilous interactions that foster conflict and turmoil. For instance, between 1950 and 1980, there were no coups or military interventions in highly institutionalized governments with robust political cultures, such as the USA and the USSR. In nations characterized by deficient political culture and institutionalization, resulting in diminished professionalism, such as those in Latin America, Africa, and the Middle East, military interventions and coup attempts are commonly observed (Kızılarşlan, 2018:3-4).

3. Positions of Civil Expertise and Professionalism

The military institution's attainment of professional status in society does not necessarily imply that the country's armies are comprised solely of professional armed forces institutions. Prior to the 18th century, Western governments fulfilled a significant portion of their military requirements by employing mercenaries recruited during emergencies and by conscripting civilian males through force (Bröckling, 2008: 285)

Prior to the Cold War era, military commanders were anticipated to deploy and oversee the armed forces. As technology and the diversity of technological assets on the battlefield expanded, resulting in a complex environment, physical strength was supplanted by the efficacy of technological apparatus. Consequently, during the late modern era, commanders were anticipated to function as technical managers. The circumstances of the contemporary postmodern era necessitate that leaders have the traits of scholarly or diplomatic soldiers (Moskos et al., 2000:19).

In nations characterized by minimal institutionalization and organizational culture, the military has embraced the mass army paradigm. In this arrangement, the military has deemed civilian expert structures within the armed forces as inconsequential. Officer personnel have executed tasks necessitating technical skill and specialized training (Kızılarşlan,2018:5).

Prior to the 17th century, the notion of a standing army was not comprehended in the contemporary sense. The Ottoman army comprised three principal units. These are the Kapıkulu soldiers, the timar cavalry, and the naval force. The sole unit in the Ottoman army that had the characteristics of a regular army was the Kapıkulu troops. The Kapıkulu soldiers consisted of individuals who were either captured or recruited from Christian homes and then raised in this context. Prior to the 18th century, the principal component of the army consisted of sipahis with

timars. The timar cavalry comprised troops who derived their sustenance from the lands allocated to them in exchange for their military duty during wartime (Halaçoğlu,1991:41).

This military organizational system indicates that professionalism in the officer profession, which served as a pathway for nobles, was not attainable prior to the 17th century. The professional inadequacy within the officer corps was mitigated by enlisting seasoned lower-ranking soldiers via mercenary recruitment. Subsequent to the introduction of compulsory military service, the training of officers became imperative due to the enlistment of inexperienced and uninformed personnel into the army. This circumstance resulted in the founding of specialized institutions in the 19th century to educate officers and assimilate them into the military. During this period, the conscripts for forced military duty originated from society, resulting in minimal separation between society and the lower-ranking soldiers (Huntington, 2006:28). In the militaries of governments characterized by strong institutionalization and cultural advancement, well-developed organizational frameworks have prominently included civilian expert personnel. The growing significance of equipment and systems in the defense sector, reliant on new technology, requires military personnel to be trained in both military expertise and technological management competencies (Kızılarşlan,2018:2). In the contemporary global landscape, particularly owing to advancements in technology, military structures have undergone transformations. Consequently, there has been a transition in the armed forces from mandatory military service to voluntary military service. This shift in trend has resulted in a divergence between the demographics of the armed services and society. The primary cause of this predicament is that the military now satisfies its personnel requirements from a limited demographic pool (Clemmensen et al., 2012:669-678). Consequently, to effectively fulfill assigned duties and attain career success, the armed services must cultivate a culture that is separate from that of society. Consequently, the expected conduct and ethos within the armed services will contrast with those in civilian life (Szayna et al., 2007).

According to the new professional soldier model examined by Caforio, the importance of the concepts of administration and technical expertise in the military profession has led to a reduction in the distance between military personnel and civilians. As a result of this situation, the soldier, who is a member of the army, will become closer to the civilian, who is a member of society, in terms of values (Cafario,2006)

The armed forces are a non-profit public organization. The duties and areas in which it operates are essential for the survival of the state to which it is affiliated. For these reasons, it is not possible for private institutions to carry out these functions. When looking at the structure of modern armed forces, the number of

civilian personnel is very small. Since the late modern period, the number of civilian personnel has tended to increase (Moskos et al., 2000)

The expectation of technical knowledge expertise has been an important reason for the formation of this trend. Due to the changes brought about by the postmodern era, civilian personnel constitute a significant part of the armed forces (Moskos et al., 2000:21). Consequently, military personnel must include not only aspects of aggression but also diplomacy and the capacity to comprehend the adversary's perspective (Kummel, 2006:432).

The distinctions between historical times and the types of warriors they create have not entirely transformed or vanished. In societies and nations with heightened perceptions of internal and foreign dangers, it is imperative for armed services members to preserve the structural characteristics of the preceding era while simultaneously embracing the military typology of the present age (Moskos et al., 2000: 268).

4. A NOVEL PERSPECTIVE ON CIVIL-MILITARY RELATIONS: SCHIFF AND ADAPTATION THEORY

The military is an entity under the authority of the executive branch, tasked with the defense of the nation. In governments adhering to modern democratic principles, it is perceived primarily as an institution functioning within the parameters of the military forces' tasks and obligations, rather than as one engaged in the political sphere. In less developed or emerging nations that assert democratic governance, the military forces are noted to play a substantial role, not only in the execution of their designated duties but also as a formidable political decision-maker. The armed forces play a pivotal role in directing and overseeing the nation's development, as well as its political and economic affairs. This attribute positions it as a potent institution in both civilian governance and decision-making processes (Öztürk, 2006:30).

Post-Cold War, inquiries over the execution of governance and its authority prompted confrontations between civilian leaders and military forces, resulting in a conflict between the two entities. Furthermore, scholars have undertaken research on this matter and established frameworks. The post-Cold War world order became a topic of contention. This circumstance manifested in distinct and diverse forms. From the era of the Second World War to the 2000s, nations favored the approach of democratic administration. During this period, the "Democratic Peace Theory" emerged as a beneficial state strategy for the United States. The primary tenet of this philosophy is that democratic governments ought not to engage in conflict with one another. During this period of transformation, the examination of civil-military relations became a paramount concern, particularly following the preference of governments with a historical tutelary

mentality for democracy as their governance model. Throughout this timeframe, the most notable The developing theory was the separation hypothesis, which differentiated between civilian and military organizations (Anderson, 1998:7). The theory of separation is primarily grounded in the example of the United States. This theory articulates the distinction between military forces and civil authority structures, positing it as a viable model for other nations to replicate. In opposition to this approach, Rebecca L. Schiff's accommodation theory seeks to create a relationship that eliminates the necessity for separation.

Rebecca L. Schiff's integration theory, unlike the US-centric separation theory, facilitates the amalgamation of the armed forces with national society, including its citizens, representing one of the diverse forms of civil-military relations. Schiff's approach also includes the U.S.-centric civil-military relations theory. Rebecca L. Schiff illustrates that, akin to the multifaceted nature of democracy, several forms of civil-military relations can arise within the framework of a nation's cultural and historical context. Rebecca L. Schiff's notion of congruence centers on the reconciliation of three social partners within the framework of four indicators. The determinants include the sociological composition of the officer corps, the political decision-making process, the personnel recruitment strategy, and the military style of the armed forces. Should an accord over these issues be attained among joint partners, a diminution in the military's interventionist posture towards civilian politics is evident. Rebecca L. Schiff's congruence theory is particularly important for delineating institutional and cultural circumstances in the context of civil-military relations (Öztürk, 2006).

Rebecca L. Schiff's adaption hypothesis concentrates on Israel and India. Consequently, the adaptation theory is regarded as a pioneering model for its initial focus on a distinct geography in contrast to the U.S. approach. Following the escalation of civil-military relations in the 1950s and 1960s, the concept of delineation between military forces and civilian authorities has emerged as the prevailing theory in the discourse on civil-military relations. During these intervals, some scholars concentrated on specific fixed spots. These challenges include military personnel sent overseas, substitution, the potential for military intervention, and coercion through the manipulation of circumstances. Certain scholars, conversely, have concentrated on the advantages of the military in their research, especially with the attainment of internal political stability and economic development for nations. Moreover, the majority of scholars contend that the potential threat posed by military forces to civilian authorities and civilians can only be mitigated through a stringent separation (Pye, 1968: 69).

During the period of this debate, theorists and theories of civil-military relations concentrated on the control of the armed forces by civilian political

authority (Huntington, 1991:4-16). In the current political climate, characterized by multiple interventionist perspectives, the most significant manifestation is the supremacy of the military within the civilian political sphere. Praetorianism refers to the scenario in which armed forces utilize force against civilian authority or assume an autonomous political role, particularly when the mechanisms of civilian control are either absent or have diminished in power, resulting in military personnel occupying the political sphere in lieu of civilians. This issue is regarded as a significant challenge in impoverished or emerging nations (Örs, 2010: 3). Rebecca L. Schiff's thesis of harmony pertains to a context in which civil authority, civilians, and the military coexist in concord and reconciliation (Bland, 1999: 10-11).

Rebecca L. Schiff posits that societal influences shape civil-military relations through cultural factors. In her theory of civil-military integration, she suggests that differentiation among the actors—citizens, the civilian elite, and the armed forces—may exist; however, such differentiation is not a requisite for the harmonious operation of these three elements. The communication and reconciliation among the institutions representing these three players is of greater significance in this context. Rebecca L. Schiff's alignment theory differentiates itself from previous civil-military relations ideas by include the nation's citizens alongside civic power and the military, so positioning it uniquely. This idea advocates for military assistance to civilians and supports military intervention in circumstances where civic power is inadequate to address requirements. In instances of natural disasters, when law enforcement agencies are accountable yet incapable of addressing the necessities, the military forces may autonomously make choices and execute them in conjunction with civil authorities and the populace. Rebecca L. Schiff's harmony theory posits that, unlike other civil-military relations theories that underscore the division between civil authority institutions and military forces, it aims to deliver a comprehensive analysis by concentrating on a nation's historical development and cultural context. (Schiff, 1995) The theory of concord examines particular institutions and cultural indicators, delineating the experimental conditions that shape civil-military relations, determining whether the armed forces, the executive branch of civil authority, and society confront issues individually or collectively to mitigate coup attempts (Anderson, 1998).

Rebecca L. Schiff's theory of alignment is based on the culture and institutional structure among actors. For this theory, Western countries categorized as developed nations can be shown as good examples within the framework of their understanding of democracy (Bland, 1999, s. 10-11). Among the works addressing the oversight of the military by civilians, Rebecca L. Schiff's 1995 theory of alignment stands out; it states that a cooperative

environment of mutual communication should be established between the armed forces, civilian political authority, and the citizens of the country. According to Rebecca L. Schiff's thought, while establishing this relationship, the separation of the armed forces from civil political institutions and the civilian citizens living in the country in terms of material aspects and fundamental belief goals cannot be seen as a necessity. Rebecca L. Schiff's integration theory considers the advanced integration of the armed forces with all members of society as a valid method in terms of civil-military relations (Schiff, 1995:7-24).

It has been demonstrated that the civil-military relations arguments expressed in the context of Rebecca L. Schiff's perspective are not suitable for every country. According to Schiff's theory, all countries are obliged to establish a level of agreement based on their historical experiences and the cultural characteristics they have developed. According to Rebecca Schiff's perspective, the existing theories of civil-military relations present a stark distinction between institutionalists and the separation of civilians and soldiers. Rebecca L. Schiff argues that this analytical method is inadequate in considering the historical and cultural characteristics of inter-institutional separation or integration, and she states that the theory of congruence addresses the cultural and historical experiences specific to a nation beyond these perspectives. In this context, the theory of civil-military relations examines the historical and cultural experiences of the state and determines whether it is more appropriate for the armed forces, civilian authority, and individual members of society to be separate or integrated (Schiff, 1995).

5. CONCLUSION

The significance of civil-military ties increased following the 19th century. The evolution of warfare post-Cold War and the world wars has rendered civil-military interactions a significant agenda issue. The notion of conflict possesses a history as ancient as humanity. The notion of battle has evolved alongside technical breakthroughs. This alteration has also modified the participants of the conflict. In ancient times, warfare was only conducted by soldiers. With technology advancement, citizens have also become participants in warfare alongside combatants. During conflicts, civilians have either been designated as targets or assumed the roles of those conducting the warfare. Nonetheless, the interaction between people and military, as well as the status of civilians, has become a topic of contention. Civilians have now assumed roles in warfare. The utilization of these players in warfare necessitates a discourse on civil-military interactions and collaboration. Unlike in the past, it is now impossible to shield citizens from wars and battlefields. Consequently, the optimal utilization of civilians in warfare has emerged as a subject of scholarly inquiry.

Civilized individuals coexist inside a society. The state rules and administers this community. The authority to declare war and implement such decision resides with states. In ancient times, states waged wars utilizing their official armies. Nonetheless, following the transformation of warfare in the 20th century, non-state entities have emerged on the battlefields. These non-state entities encompass mercenary, terrorist organizations, and similar groupings. The military vocation has likewise been influenced by this development. Mandatory military service and professional military service have been instituted in accordance with contemporary requirements. The civil-military interactions have varied between the two kinds of military service. To effectively analyze civil-military interactions, it is essential to scrutinize the notions of coup and civilian oversight between civilian authorities and the military. The governing power of the civilian administration endeavors to maintain control over the military. Nonetheless, the military and its personnel, who perceive an institutional obligation for the security and defense of the nation, have occasionally sought to influence the governance of the country with a similar sense of responsibility and deliberation.

Rebecca L. Schiff's notion of harmony pertains to the establishment of concord among the military, civilian elites, and population, rather than a conditional differentiation between military and civilian entities. The harmony produced by these three actors allows for a distinction among the elements, however such differentiation is not required for the attainment of harmony. The theory of harmony does not assert that civilian control over the military is obligatory; it underscores the significance of reciprocal conversation between institutions and sectors. This theory distinguishes itself from numerous others about civil-military relations by incorporating citizens as a third dimension in the relational framework, a concept known as the theory of concord. This theory broadens the scope of civil-military relations beyond institutional components by incorporating individuals who influence cultural dynamics in the process. Rebecca L. Schiff contends that societal culture shapes the civil-military connection. A theory of universality that neglects the distinct cultural norms influencing civil-military relations in various countries cannot be deemed universally applicable across all nations. Schiff asserts that averting military operations underscores the imperative for a consensus between political leaders and the populace.

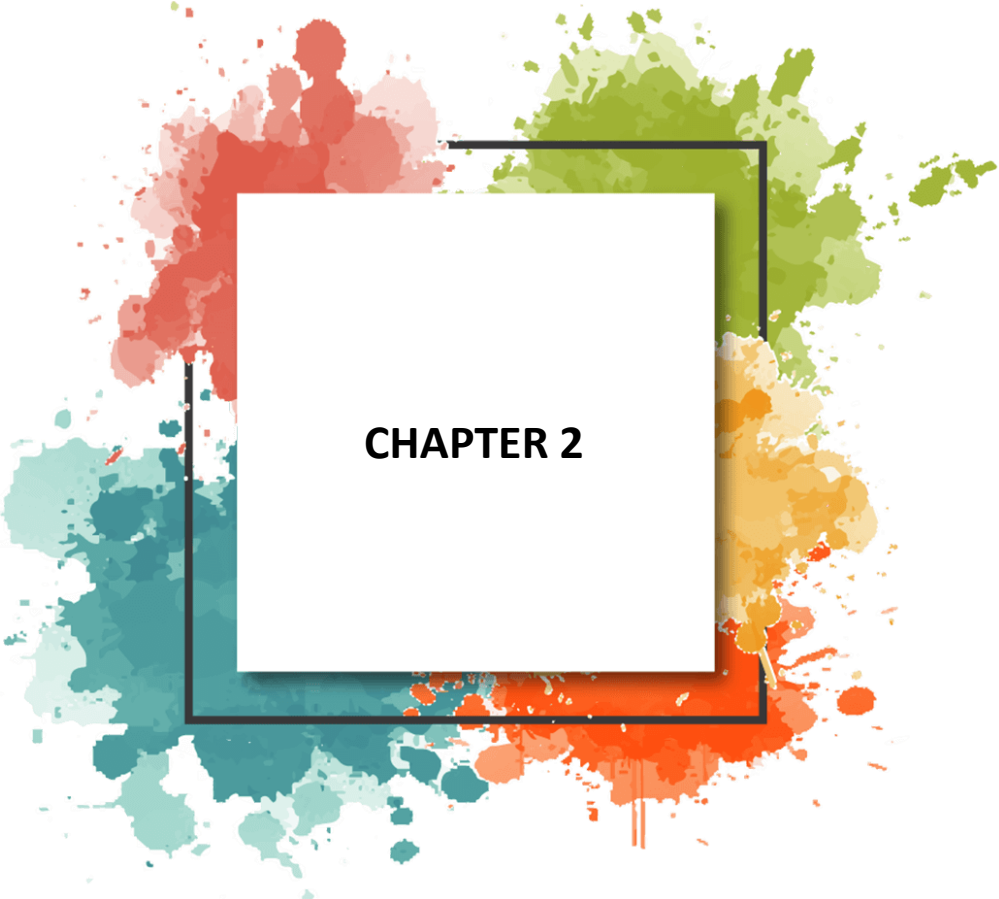
The notion of integration, by acknowledging the concept of culture and incorporating citizens into the civilian framework, might offer a more advantageous viewpoint on civil-military ties. Given the forecast that players from many cultures will collaborate in future conflicts, it is plausible to assert that the theory of integration will assume a more prominent position in civil-

military relations and collaboration. Furthermore, taking into account the historical contexts of civilizations, the idea of harmony may enhance cooperation between citizens and military personnel in future conflicts. The principle of harmony can effectively enhance coordination and collaboration between civilians and troops from diverse historical civilizations working together. The theoretical framework of coordination theory can be elaborated upon. The study may also be done in countries beyond the United States and Israel, which are the focal points for the theory of harmony. Furthermore, by analyzing the historical and cultural frameworks of various civilizations collectively, the theory of harmony can be explored to ascertain how disparate societies, engaged in collaboration, may be afforded a methodology and environment conducive to harmonious interaction through this collective examination.

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CHAPTER 2

Should Children's Eyewear Stores Be Opened?: An Evaluation from A Marketing and Health Management Perspective

Mevlut Karadag¹ & Ismet Sahin²

Introduction

In recent years, vision problems have become a widespread health issue among children worldwide. According to reports published by the World Health Organization (WHO), 19 million children worldwide have vision problems, many of which can be easily prevented or treated with glasses (WHO, 2019; WHO, 2023). The most common vision problem is myopia (nearsightedness), which typically begins around the age of eight and worsens during adolescence (Morgan & Rose, 2025; Cumberland et al., 2007). Hyperopia (long-sightedness) is more prevalent in younger children and typically resolves by the age of 10. Astigmatism (distorted vision) affects all age groups and does not change over time. Myopia is particularly prevalent among Asian children, especially in Southeast Asia, where it manifests at an earlier age and can be more severe. It is considered an epidemic in East Asia, Europe, and the United States, with its prevalence continuing to rise. Around 80–90% of children graduating from secondary school in Singapore, China, Taiwan, Hong Kong, Japan and Korea are myopic. This condition is less prevalent among children in Africa (Morgan et al., 2012; Rudnicka et al., 2016). It is estimated that by 2050, 50% of the world's population will be myopic, and the demand for children's optical services is predicted to increase (Holden et al., 2016). This increase is linked to environmental factors associated with urbanisation, such as spending long periods in indoor work environments and less time outdoors (Pan et al., 2012). While children living in cities are more exposed to myopia, there is growing evidence that spending time outdoors has a protective effect against it, independent of biological and genetic factors (Biswas et al., 2024).

Good vision significantly impacts education and quality of life. However, approximately 70.2 million children under the age of 14 are visually impaired or blind, primarily due to uncorrected refractive errors (Burton et al., 2021). While

¹ Assoc. Prof., Lokman Hekim University Vocational School of Health Services, Ankara, Turkey orcid.org/0000-0001-7288-1925

² Prof. Dr., Lokman Hekim University Vocational School of Health Services, Ankara, Turkey , orcid.org/0000-0003-0878-5669

information on school-age children is limited, global estimates suggest that 448 million children have a significant refractive error (International Agency for the Prevention of Blindness, 2023). This underlines the importance of early intervention in education. Therefore, health systems must be proactive in detecting and treating vision disorders in children. In Turkey, the Ministry of Health has introduced the 'National Vision Screening Programme' with the aim of early detection of vision defects, particularly in infancy and childhood, and increasing access to treatment. These screenings are a critical step for early diagnosis and intervention. Detecting vision problems early and applying appropriate treatment methods can have a positive effect on many areas of a child's life, from academic achievement to social interactions and overall quality of life. Indeed, the academic performance of children with uncorrected refractive errors is significantly lower than that of children with normal vision (Olatunji et al., 2019), while the educational achievements of children who benefit from eye health services improve after they start wearing glasses (Latif et al., 2022).

Choosing the right glasses is important for the early diagnosis and treatment of vision problems. There are many opticians around the world, each offering a variety of styles, brands and services.

However, different criteria apply when choosing glasses for children than for adults. Important factors include the ergonomic design of the spectacle frame, the suitability of the material for health reasons, and durability. A study conducted in India indicated that Indian students wanted glasses that were fashionable, stylish and durable (Narayanan et al., 2017). Therefore, providing children with suitable, high-quality frames that consider their preferences increases their compliance with wearing glasses. Additionally, most parents feel better when their children wear high-quality glasses. A study in India found that 8% of children wore adult frames (Gajiwala et al., 2021).

Eye examinations for children are a specialised field. Children's levels of cooperation and patience can differ from those of adults. Therefore, the importance of opening opticians that specialise in children's eyewear cannot be overstated. Children's opticians can facilitate this process by providing examination rooms designed with child psychology in mind and employing experienced staff. Furthermore, specialist shops for children can offer parents significant convenience. Parents may find it easier to supervise their children and select suitable glasses in a dedicated environment. By offering special designs and colour options, these shops can encourage children to enjoy wearing glasses.

This study examines in detail the importance of children's eyewear retail stores in terms of marketing and health management, offering strategic recommendations for sectoral development and the improvement of healthcare services. The findings of the study indicate that children's eyewear retail stores

facilitate access to vision care for children and can generate positive social impacts. It is considered that future research could fill the knowledge gaps in this area and further enhance the effectiveness of children's eyewear stores.

Features of Children's Glasses and How They Differ from Adult Glasses

Glasses are an important necessity for people with vision problems, and requirements can vary depending on age. Children's glasses are designed to suit their active lifestyles, offering safe and comfortable wear. As well as protecting children's eye health, these glasses attract attention with their colourful designs that reflect their style and personality. Glasses that suit children's tastes and are ergonomically designed help them to develop the habit of wearing glasses and eliminate the problem of adaptation (Chan et al., 2021). Adult glasses, on the other hand, generally have more classic and simple designs that are ideal for everyday use. Both types of glasses should be selected according to the user's needs and lifestyle.

Children are generally more active and energetic, so their glasses are made from durable lenses and frames. Children's glasses usually have polycarbonate lenses and flexible, hypoallergenic frames. This makes the glasses more resistant to falls and impacts, and the small, lightweight design ensures a comfortable fit for children's faces. This also helps children to wear their glasses for longer (AAPOS, 2025).

Children's noses may be smaller and less defined than adults'. Therefore, flexible nose bridges are used in children's glasses to reduce pressure on the nose and improve the fit of the bridge.

Children's glasses usually have colourful and attractive designs. This encourages children to like their glasses and wear them willingly.

Children's glasses may have anti-shatter properties. Furthermore, sunglasses for children should have UV protection to shield their sensitive eyes from the sun's harmful rays.

Çocuk gözlüklerinde genellikle ayarlanabilir burun pedleri ve kollar bulunur. Bu, gözlüklerin çocuğun yüzüne ve başına daha iyi oturmasını sağlar.

The Current and Potential Status of the Children's Eyewear Market

From a marketing perspective, the children's eyewear market is considered to have high growth potential. Demographic changes, growing health awareness and technological advances are all contributing to its expansion. Market research indicates that parents are placing greater importance on their children's visual health and are willing to invest in quality eyewear.

The children's eyewear market is a dynamic intersection between the health and fashion industries. It is expected to grow alongside demographic changes, increased health awareness and technological innovations.

Market size and growth trends

The children's eyewear market offers a wide range of products, from basic, affordable frames to high-performance sports glasses. Key product differences include frame material (flexible and durable plastics or titanium), lens technology (UV protection, blue light filtering and polarisation) and design aesthetics (character licences, vibrant colours and trendy styles). Many products are designed to withstand the demands of an active lifestyle, prioritising comfort, durability and safety. According to Archive Market Research (2025), the market is seeing increasing adoption of digital lens technology that reduces eye strain caused by prolonged screen use.

Although precise information on annual global spectacle sales is difficult to obtain as this figure is constantly increasing and varies depending on numerous factors, a review of the literature reveals that some estimates and statistics are available. For instance, the demand for children's spectacles is predicted to have grown by an average of 6.8% per year between 2019 and 2023 (Future Market Insights, 2024), while the global spectacle and lens market is expected to reach around £30.5 billion in 2024 (Grand View Research, 2024).

In recent years, the use of spectacles and sunglasses for fashion and health purposes has increased. However, annual sales figures can vary depending on the country, region and market segment. While it is difficult to provide an exact figure for the global sector, it is clear that it is a multi-billion dollar industry.

According to Archive Market Research's 2025 study, the global children's eyewear market is experiencing strong growth, driven by rising awareness of children's eye health and the increasing incidence of myopia among young children. The market size is expected to reach \$2.5 billion by 2025, with a predicted annual growth rate of 7% from 2025 to 2033. This growth is driven by several factors, including greater awareness of the importance of eye health, increased parental spending on their children's eye health, and the growing popularity of technologically advanced eyewear solutions designed for children. Furthermore, innovative products such as flexible and durable frames, stylish designs that appeal to children and lenses with blue light filtering technology to protect eyes from digital screen exposure are being introduced to the market (Archive Market Research, 2025).

In Turkey, the Social Security Institution covers certain costs related to spectacle frames/lenses for children under the Health Implementation Circular, and the relevant application is updated periodically. Furthermore, the National

Vision Screening Circular and its implementation guide define the principles of vision screening for primary care and school-age children. Following the screening, the referral chain is activated for examination, and the subsequent prescription and eyeglass procurement processes are carried out (HSGM, 2019). According to the latest data on the optical sector in Turkey, 40 million people wear glasses, and the total size of the eyeglass market is approximately USD 500 million and is growing at an annual rate of 5% (Istanbul Development Agency, 2013; IOGO, 2021). The children's eyewear segment is part of this domestic market, and considering the population structure, eye health awareness, and increasing needs in pre-school education, this segment is expected to have relatively faster growth potential in the coming years.

Consumer Behaviour

Parents' attitudes towards their children's visual health significantly impact the children's eyewear market. The Vision Council's report, 'Focused on Sights 2023: Parental Perspectives on Myopia', reveals that 62% of parents have received a treatment plan recommendation from an eye doctor for their children. The report also shows that parents' knowledge of myopia has increased, as has their awareness of risk factors and understanding of treatment options. Furthermore, the report notes that factors such as aesthetics and comfort are important in children's selection of eyeglasses, and therefore child-friendly designs and materials are preferred (The Vision Council, 2023). Consequently, parents are increasingly prioritising their children's eye health, leading them to spend more on glasses.

Challenges Facing The Market

The children's eyewear market faces various challenges, including product suitability for children, pricing strategies and accessibility. Price, in particular, continues to be a significant factor influencing the purchasing decisions of families with multiple children. Conversely, the eyewear market is becoming increasingly competitive, with established brands and new entrants competing for market share. Another challenge is obtaining the correct measurements for spectacles based on children's developmental stages. Additionally, children's reluctance to wear glasses, cultural stigmatisation, and misconceptions about children wearing glasses in their social circles can deter parents from purchasing them. Furthermore, children's glasses often need to be replaced due to growth spurts and accidental damage (Archive Market Research, 2025). Additionally, limited access to healthcare services in certain regions can reduce demand for children's glasses, which has a negative impact on market growth. To overcome these challenges, market researchers and industry experts emphasise the importance of innovative product development and marketing strategies.

Another constraint in the eyewear market stems from the ethical practices and regulations of different countries. For instance, the Turkish regulations concerning the sale, advertising and promotion of medical devices, specifically the prohibition of online sales of prescription lenses and frames to consumers, present a challenge to the optical market (Law No. 5193 on Optometry; Medical Device Sales, Advertising and Promotion Regulation Implementation Guide, 2021). These prohibitions mean that physical stores are mandatory for children's products. Furthermore, the Ministry of Trade's guidelines on the use of expressions in advertising and promotion for children's products, as well as the prohibition of 'organisational advertising', impose additional restrictions.

The importance of children's eyewear retail stores

From a healthcare management perspective, these stores play a significant role in providing accessible, high-quality eyewear services for children. They serve as a vital link in the early diagnosis and intervention process, offering services such as vision tests and helping to select appropriate eyewear as part of the healthcare provision. Therefore, children's eyewear stores are crucial for the early diagnosis and treatment of vision disorders. Furthermore, healthcare management strategies aim to integrate such stores into healthcare systems to improve access to eye health services.

Access to Healthcare

Children's eyewear shops can facilitate access to vision healthcare services, particularly for children living in low-income and rural areas. These shops help identify and treat vision impairments at an early age by providing regular vision screenings and appropriate eyewear prescriptions. The International Agency for the Prevention of Blindness (IAPB) 2022 report emphasises that good vision is a powerful tool for increasing educational success, seizing opportunities, social participation and economic productivity, noting that early intervention in children's eye health, regular eye examinations and the provision of quality spectacles are critical in this regard (IAPB, 2022).

Studies by Harvey et al. (2024) and Aguirre et al. (2023) found that school-based eye health programmes are a public health priority in low- and middle-income countries. However, the biggest obstacles to this are socioeconomic inequalities, limited access to services, inadequate spectacle supply chains and an insufficient number of sustainable services (Harvey et al., 2024; Aguirre et al., 2023). In light of these findings, establishing local, sustainable children's eyeglass shops could enhance the effectiveness of school-based programmes.

Studies have concluded that educational programmes on children's eye health alone are insufficient and that access to spectacles must be facilitated (Paudel et al., 2019; Ambrosino, 2023; Little et al., 2025).

Integration with healthcare systems

A review of literature on health information management shows that integrating children's eyewear stores into the healthcare system can be crucial for the early diagnosis and treatment of children's vision disorders. This reduces the need for repetitive tests and referrals, enabling faster, more coordinated service delivery. Furthermore, integration improves the patient experience by giving families easier access to information about their children's vision health, and it contributes to the overall effectiveness of the healthcare system. According to a report by the American Health Information Management Association (AHIMA), integrating children's eyewear stores with healthcare systems offers significant opportunities in terms of healthcare management strategies and public health objectives. (AHIMA, 2017).

Education is widely recognised as a fundamental human right, as well as being the basis for ensuring an adequate standard of living. However, difficulty seeing can lead to difficulty learning. Children process 80% of what they learn through sight. According to the IAPB (2022), millions of children worldwide have vision problems, most of whom live in low- and middle-income countries. Therefore, ensuring children's eye health is crucial for sustainable development and equal opportunities.

Children's eyewear stores can have a significant impact on public health. Addressing vision issues in early childhood can enhance academic performance and social development. Furthermore, these stores raise awareness of health issues and promote social awareness of vision health. A study by Nietzel et al. (2021) evaluating the impact of school-based vision programmes on academic achievement found that providing free spectacles was a simple, low-cost intervention that significantly improved students' literacy skills. Disadvantaged students were the group that benefited most from this intervention, highlighting the social justice dimension of vision health services. Ultimately, these findings strongly support the integration of school-based eye health programmes into education and health systems (Nietzel et al., 2021).

Results

Visual Impairment and Spectacle Use in Children

Visual impairment in children is a significant public health issue worldwide. According to reports by the World Health Organisation (WHO), visual impairment in childhood is one of the leading causes of preventable blindness and vision loss. The WHO emphasises the prevalence of visual impairment in children and the importance of early detection (WHO, 2019). The most common types of visual impairment are myopia, hypermetropia, and astigmatism.

Using spectacles is one of the most effective ways to treat visual impairments in children. Spectacles correct refractive errors, enabling children to see clearly and positively impacting their academic performance. The American Optometric Association (AOA) states that regular vision screenings and the appropriate use of spectacles can directly affect children's success at school (AOA, 2025).

Various studies have demonstrated the positive effects of wearing glasses on children's reading ability, academic success and social interaction. For instance, Neitzel et al. (2021) discovered that using glasses to treat myopia significantly improved children's academic performance. Similarly, wearing glasses has a positive effect on social interaction and self-confidence, as children can interact more effectively with their surroundings.

Strategic Importance of Children's Eyewear Stores

Children's eyewear stores can reach their target audience by using specialised marketing strategies. Studies have demonstrated that the in-store experience and product presentation significantly influence parents' purchasing behaviour, particularly with regard to their children. A study by Ebster, Wagner and Neumueller (2009) revealed that product visibility in-store, the child's freedom of movement and developmental stage monitoring strongly influence parents' eyewear purchasing behaviour. These findings suggest that children's eyewear stores could have a critical impact on parental purchasing behaviour by adopting visual presentation, child-centred store design, and educational product placement strategies (Ebster et al., 2009).

The design of children's eyewear stores also influences the purchasing behaviour of parents and children. While prioritising their children's visual health, parents also consider aesthetics and comfort. Research shows that colour and design in store layout strongly influence consumer behaviour (Yue & Foti, 2015). This effect is even more pronounced with children's products: colourful and eye-catching designs have been found to increase children's interest and influence their purchasing behaviour (Marshall et al., 2006). These findings demonstrate that children's eyewear stores are founded on a strong basis, not only in terms of access to healthcare, but also from marketing and customer experience perspectives.

For children's eyewear stores, effective brand positioning is key to differentiation and gaining a competitive advantage in the market. According to Evans (2015), brand messages that focus on health and safety can create a sense of trust and brand loyalty among consumers. Furthermore, corporate social responsibility projects, such as donations and events aimed at raising awareness of vision health in the community, have been observed to positively affect brand reputation, thereby strengthening consumer trust and loyalty (Castro-González et

al., 2021). Additionally, Rua and Ferreira's (2022) study clearly demonstrates the mediating role of brand positioning in creating competitive advantage, as well as the relationship between strategic differentiation and market share creation. Therefore, children's eyewear stores can establish a solid foundation of customer trust and loyalty by positioning themselves with a competitive brand strategy supported by socially responsible projects.

The contribution of children's eyewear stores to healthcare services

Children's eyewear stores that are part of the healthcare system can significantly improve access to vision healthcare services and ensure processes are carried out properly. The World Health Organization has demonstrated that various healthcare service models exist, including school-based, pharmacy-based, and primary healthcare centre-based models. These structures facilitate access by streamlining vision screening, refraction examinations, and eyeglass provision (Umaefulam et al., 2024). These data clearly demonstrate that integrating children's eyewear shops into healthcare systems can create an integrated, user-centred structure that promotes continuity and efficiency of services.

In rural areas and regions with limited access to services, children's opticians can significantly improve access to eye care. A randomised controlled trial conducted in a rural Chinese region showed that providing students with free glasses improved their mathematics performance by 0.15–0.22 standard deviations (Glewwe, Park & Zhao, 2017). Furthermore, a study by Pang et al. (2024) revealed that only around 43% of students with vision impairment wore the correct glasses, and those who did were significantly better off in terms of academic achievement and mental health. Additionally, Wang et al. (2024) demonstrated that low-cost, accessible eye health interventions can be implemented in rural areas using smartphone applications with their mobile screening engine. Together, these findings emphasise that shops, particularly children's eyewear shops, can become critical health access points for rural communities, providing eyewear and screening services locally and accessibly.

Children's eyewear shops can contribute to public health by raising social awareness about vision health and conducting health education campaigns. Such initiatives provide information about the importance of vision disorders and the value of early diagnosis. Social behaviour change interventions implemented within a community-based health education approach can positively change individuals' attitudes and behaviours towards eye health services. Yasmin and Ibrahim (2022) have shown that such social behaviour change initiatives can increase demand, particularly in underdeveloped or rural communities that do not have sufficient access to vision health services, and can lead to vision screening and early intervention. Thus, by integrating children's eyewear stores with public

health education programmes, it may be possible to ensure that the community has access to vision health services and develops a positive attitude towards these services.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Although opening children's eyewear stores has various advantages, it also presents certain challenges. However, given the importance of children's eye health and the need for appropriate eyewear, the proliferation of such stores is essential.

Parents' increased focus on their children's eye health further emphasises the necessity of such stores. Therefore, opening and developing children's eyewear stores could be an important step towards ensuring healthy eye development and a better quality of life for children.

To maximise the success of such stores, effective marketing strategies must be implemented and integration with healthcare services strengthened.

In light of the above information, the following recommendations have been developed to enhance marketing strategies, integration with healthcare services, sectoral development and the impact of eyewear use on children's academic achievement, social development and quality of life:

- ❖ Target audience analysis must be conducted and personalised marketing methods employed. Demographic and psychographic analyses of parents and children should be carried out to develop personalised marketing campaigns that are tailored to their needs and preferences. Brand awareness should be increased by creating fun, educational content aimed at children. Given the intensity of digital marketing and social media use today, interactive and informative digital content should be created to increase visibility. Interaction with parents and children should take place on social media platforms. The importance of wearing glasses should be emphasised through content such as infographics, educational videos, and customer testimonials. Awareness of eye health should be raised by collaborating with civil society organisations, schools, health institutions, and local and regional organisations. A reliable brand image can be established within the community by offering free vision screenings and adjustments to glasses.
- ❖ Referral networks for vision screening and treatment should be established through partnerships or protocols with hospitals, clinics, and health centres that focus on children's health. In collaboration with health professionals, families should be guided on the use of prescription glasses and follow-up care. Educational programmes should be organised

to raise awareness of the impact of vision health on children's overall health and education. Seminars and workshops should be held for parents, teachers, and healthcare workers to improve their knowledge and skills. Technological solutions, such as mobile applications and online appointment systems, should be developed for vision screening. This will improve accessibility, making services available to a wider audience. Virtual reality (VR) and augmented reality (AR) technologies could be used to offer children interactive and fun experiences regarding eyeglass selection. These recommendations provide a roadmap for children's eyewear retailers to strengthen their marketing strategies and integrate more deeply with healthcare services. This can enhance business success and contribute to the overall health of the community.

- ❖ To enrich the in-store experience for children and parents, innovative and interactive solutions should be developed. Selecting and purchasing glasses should be made fun and educational to encourage children to embrace wearing glasses. Service quality should be improved by using the latest technologies for vision screening and selecting glasses. Accessibility and user-friendly services should be expanded through online platforms and mobile applications. Community awareness should be raised by organising educational programmes and campaigns on the importance of eye health. In collaboration with health professionals, educators and families, children should be informed about vision health.
- ❖ Studies should be conducted to:
 - Examine the long-term effects of spectacle use on academic achievement, social development and quality of life in children;
 - Investigate the effects of spectacle use during adolescence and adulthood;
 - Evaluate the effectiveness of marketing strategies by assessing the impact of different channels and strategies on the target audience;
 - Analyse the effects of social media and digital marketing campaigns on customer behaviour. Studies examining the impact of collaboration between children's eyewear retailers and healthcare providers on access to healthcare and service quality, as well as evaluating the effectiveness of innovative service models such as mobile healthcare services and home screening, are also considered appropriate.

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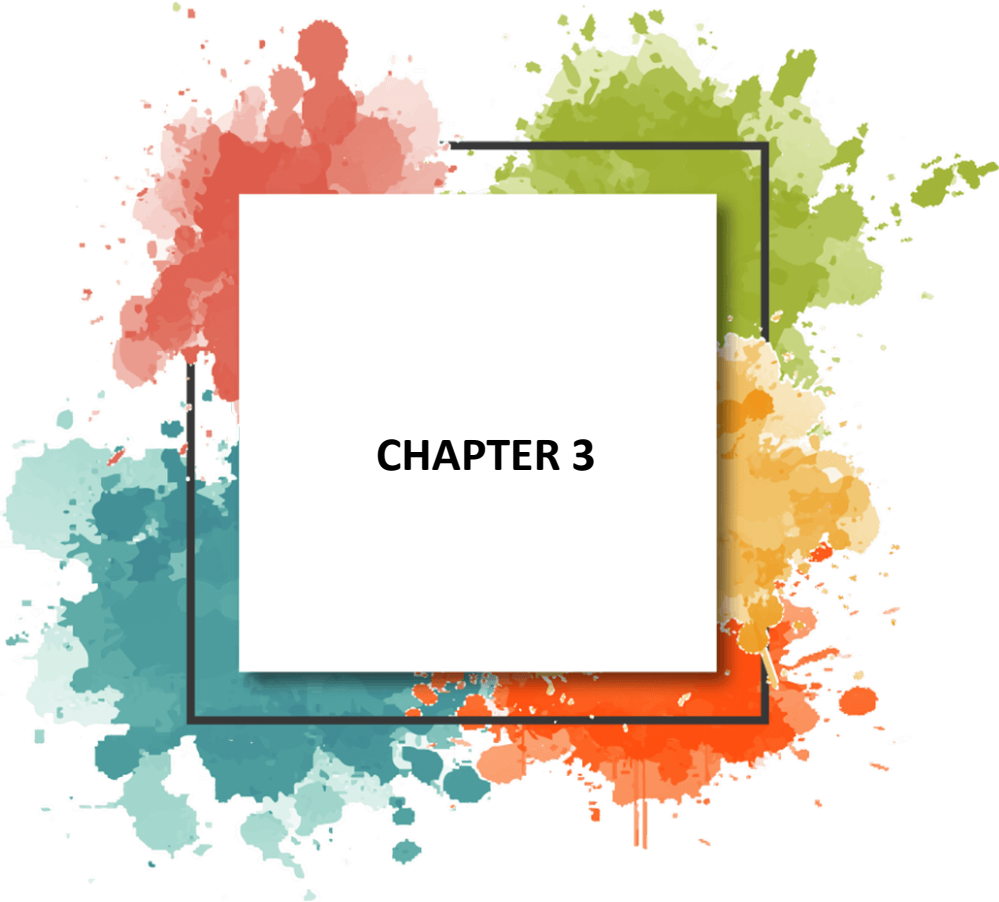
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CHAPTER 3

Organizational Identification

Semra TETİK¹

INTRODUCTION

With the rapid changes taking place today, there has been an increase in informal relationships within organizations. In terms of organizational behavior, the value of human psychology and psychological competencies is also increasing (Coşkun and Afşar, 2016). Organizations expect their employees to love their organizations and to have a sense of loyalty towards the organization; in other words, they expect their employees to embrace the organization to the extent that they identify with it as part of their individual identity. Employees with a high level of organizational identification will contribute more to their organizations (Eren and Çakır Titizoglu, 2014).

It is desirable for an organization's employees not to harbor negative feelings toward the organization, to love their organization, to have no intention of leaving their job, and to not harbor hostile feelings toward the organization. However, in the changing and evolving world of work, these are not sufficient; employees are expected to identify with the organization (İşcan, 2006). Organizational identification is based on social identity theory, which focuses on group membership, group processes, and intergroup relations. Within the scope of social identity theory, organizational identification is expressed as a form of social identity in which the individual defines themselves, particularly in the context of their membership in the organization (Myers et al., 2016; Sökmen, 2017).

Organizational identification is a specific form of social identification and is defined as the process whereby the individual's goals become increasingly integrated and aligned with the organization's goals (Nebioğlu and Tuna, 2022). Organizational identification emerges as a result of employees developing a sense of belonging to the organization and their personal goals aligning with their organization's goals. Thanks to this identification, employees can demonstrate higher motivation and performance by embracing the organization's values, mission, and culture (Saygılı et al., 2018). The presence of individuals with high organizational commitment and the positive emotional states that the work environment evokes in them are reflected in individual and organizational performance. Employees with high levels of organizational identification will contribute more to their organizations (Aljorani and Çetinkaya, 2022).

¹ Assoc. Prof. Dr., Manisa Celal Bayar University, ORCID: 0000-0001-6266-8178

One reason why the concept of organizational identification has become a central concept in the field of organizational behavior and has attracted the attention of management sciences is that it is a key psychological concept reflecting the relationship between the employee and the organization, and it also has the potential to explain and predict important attitudes and behaviors in the workplace. The growing literature on organizational identification is very important in terms of directing employees to side with the organization (Edward, 2005; Karayiğit, 2008).

1.THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

The concept of identification was first used by Sigmund Freud (1922). Freud defined identification as “in psychoanalysis, the first expression of an emotional bond formed with another person” (Çırakoğlu, 2010). The term identification was later used by Harrold Lasswell (1935), who conducted studies in the field of political science, as a psychological, sociological, and linguistic concept. Lasswell defined the concept of identification as “the process guided by emotional bonds formed with other people and the formation of a perception of similarity,” stating that identification can only occur through the abundance of shared relationships and symbols. The concept of organizational identification began with the work of Edward Tolman (1943), who defined it as “an individual's attachment to any group of which he feels a part” (Tokgöz and Seymen, 2013). Identification stems from an unconscious element. When it comes to organizational identification, the individual's identity will resemble that of the organization, and the individual will not be able to separate themselves from the organization (Güzel Özbek and Şengül, 2024).

The concept of organizational identification has been defined in various ways by numerous researchers. The concept of organizational identification was developed in the late 1980s by many researchers within various scientific disciplines such as social psychology, communication, and organizational behavior. It began to attract the intense interest of psychologists in the late 1990s (Taşlıyan et al., 2016). Foote (1951) defined organizational identification as “commitment to a particular identity and type of identity” (Coşkun and Afşar, 2016). Hall et al. (1970) defined organizational identification as “the process of increasing integration and alignment between the organization's goals and the individual's goals” (Çırakoğlu, 2010). Sass and Canary (1991) expressed organizational identification as “a process based on a shared language within the organization” (Tüzün and Çağlar, 2008). Dutton et al. (1994) defined the concept of identification as the degree of similarity between the concepts an individual uses to define themselves and the concepts they use to define the organization (Aljorani and Çetinkaya, 2022). Therefore, organizational identification is also

when individuals belonging to an organization feel like they are part of their organization (Gabler et al., 2014).

The basis of organizational identification is social identity theory, which focuses on group membership, group processes, and intergroup relations (Sökmen, 2019). Social identity is defined as “a part of the self-concept that arises from a person's membership in a group and the emotional and value-laden meaning they attach to that membership” (Tajfel, 1982; Albert et al., 2000). From this perspective, organizational identification can be defined as employees feeling like they are part of their organization and aligning their own characteristics with those of the organization (Baykal et al., 2018). In this context, organizational identification can be expressed as a form of social identity through which individuals define themselves, particularly in the context of their organizational membership. Thus, the individual perceives the organization's desires as their own and acts accordingly (Sökmen and Bıyık, 2016).

Although the concepts of organizational identification and organizational commitment are often used interchangeably in the literature, they are distinct concepts, and there are numerous studies examining the relationship between the two (Çelik and Yıldız, 2018). While the concept of identification refers to a sense of unity based on commonalities and similarities, the concept of commitment involves a relationship of interest, a material relationship (Güzel Özbek and Şengül, 2024). Organizational identification is the feeling individuals have of being part of a broader organizational identity. It is the beginning of the organization being personalized with the concept of “us” (Demirci and Marşap, 2022).

2. DIMENSIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

Although many researchers have attempted to develop different perspectives on the components of organizational identification, the first experimental study was conducted by Brown (1969). Brown (1969) examined identification in four dimensions: the attractiveness of the organization, the alignment of individual and organizational goals, loyalty to the organization, and the use of organizational membership as a reference in defining one's identity (Edwards, 2005; Kuru, 2025). The concept of organizational identification can be explained in four dimensions: cognitive, behavioral, emotional, and evaluative (Van Dick, 2001; Polat, 2025).

Cognitive Dimension: This dimension represents the extent to which an individual questions their membership in a particular group. This dimension represents the starting point of organizational identification (Van Dick et al., 2004). If a person feels that they belong to a particular group, transitioning to the other three dimensions will be easier (Kuru, 2025). This dimension is expressed

as ideas or beliefs about the level at which individuals define themselves based on a social reference. When examined from an organizational perspective, it is the cognitive definition of individuals as members of an organization (Davran, 2024). This dimension consists of the individual's knowledge, mental structure, ideas, goals, and designs regarding the specific group to which they belong. The individual's efforts and creative and innovative ideas, such as plans and projects on behalf of the organization, in terms of participation in the organization, indicate the level of conscious, i.e., cognitive identification with the organization (Yalın and Mızrak, 2021). Therefore, it has been stated that the cognitive dimension is a mandatory dimension, that it is necessary for the other dimensions to be applied, and that organizational identification can only be achieved in this way (Kuru, 2025).

Emotional Dimension: This refers to the level of emotional attachment and identification an individual has with the organization they belong to. It is the dimension in which the individual evaluates the characteristics of the organization and forms a positive or negative relationship with it (Smidts et al., 2001). Positive emotions and experiences also increase the individual's level of organizational identification. Feeling honored to be a member of the organization and the desire to work toward success within the organization explain the concept of emotional identification (Kuru, 2025). Emotional identification is created by the feelings associated with social reference and the importance given to this social identity. This dimension expresses the pride the individual feels from being part of the group to which they belong. It is important in creating a positive image of the group or developing a positive social identity (Davran, 2024). At this stage, the individual's establishment of an emotional bond with the organization and being part of this bond contributes to the individual's development (Duru, 2025).

Behavioral Dimension: This dimension refers to the extent to which an individual exhibits positive attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. This dimension is explained as the employee's participation in actions related to the group as a result of these positive feelings (Kuru, 2025). The behavioral dimension refers to the individual exhibiting behaviors that benefit the organization. It is the concrete expression of identification with the organization. It also shows the level of dedication and awareness of duties and responsibilities (Polat, 2025). In organizations with strong identification, initiative and loyalty are high among employees (Yalın and Mızrak, 2021). This increases employee motivation and positively affects the overall performance of the organization. It is believed that strategies that encourage organizational identification will strengthen this behavioral dimension among employees and contribute to the process of achieving organizational goals (Duru, 2025).

Evaluation Dimension: This can be expressed as the individual's awareness of the values accepted by society as positive or negative in relation to the group (Van Dick and Wagner, 2002). This dimension encompasses reminders related to values and attitudes towards the organization. It includes the employee's perceptions of whether the group they belong to is good or bad; their evaluations of reactions that lead them to think that another group is superior or weaker when comparing their own group to a different group (Ergür, 2025). Depending on the degree of belonging an individual feels toward their organization, they feel happy about positive news and developments related to the organization and feel uncomfortable about negative news and developments (Yalın and Mızrak, 2021).

3. THE IMPORTANCE OF ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION

The positive impact of organizational identification on organizational members and the organization itself has long been recognized. In today's world, where mergers and reorganizations erode employee loyalty, the concept of organizational identification has been revived and has prompted organizations to take action to influence their employees' identification (Mael and Ashforth, 1992; Çırakoğlu, 2010). Organizational identification is becoming increasingly prevalent in the field of organizational behavior today. Organizational identification stands out in management sciences. The concept of organizational identification is becoming increasingly important because it is a significant perception due to the strong bond between members and the organization, and it is a phenomenon that may define the behavior of many employees in the future (Canal, 2017).

Organizational identification is also an important concept for employees within an organization. Employees who identify with their organizations become more productive, want to do their jobs better, and as a result, both the employee and the organization benefit. Organizations want their employees to have high levels of identification in order for them to be successful (Aljorani and Çetinkaya, 2022). Organizational identification can also be considered a means of persuading employees within the organization. If the goals of the organization become the goals of the employees and they strongly identify with the organization, they are easily motivated to achieve those goals (Edwards, 2005; Canal, 2017). Furthermore, strong organizational identification is associated with better psychological well-being. Employees who experience this type of identification experience lower stress levels and higher overall life satisfaction (Riketta, 2005).

From an organizational perspective, organizational identification is important because it affects cooperation, effort, participation, decision-making in the organization's best interest, intrinsic motivation, task performance, job fit, knowledge sharing, coordinated actions, job satisfaction, intention to leave,

organizational citizenship behaviors, social support, creativity, and job stress (Ashforth et al., 2008). High organizational identification contributes to the organization and its goals through the contributions it makes to its employees. As a result of increased organizational identification among employees, there will be a proportional increase in employee motivation and performance. This increase will also lead to an increase in the organization's overall performance and productivity (Van Knippenberg and Van Schie, 2000; Duru, 2025). Employing employees with a high level of identification is considered very important in terms of strategic human resource management activities for businesses (Aslan and Uyar, 2018). It has been observed that the turnover rates of employees with high levels of organizational identification decrease as their levels of organizational cynicism decrease. Organizational identification is also important in terms of employees taking greater ownership of their organizations (Polat and Meydan, 2010).

Brown's (1969) research examining the importance of the concept of identification, what it affects, and what types of interactions it creates revealed that the level of identification is proportional to the interest the individual shows in the organization. Brown drew the following conclusions from this research (Polat, 2025). Organizational identification:

- It incorporates the concept of membership.
- It can influence people's general behavior or circumstances.
- It has an important predictive feature that allows us to estimate the state of people's performance, their work motivation, their voluntary contributions, and the level of other outcomes.
- It is related to situations that provide motivation.

In conclusion, organizational identification is a critical concept for the sustainability and long-term success of organizations and holds an important place in organizational behavior and management literature. Furthermore, organizational identification strengthens employees' social relationships and collaborations within the organization, which positively impacts the organization's overall performance (Öz, 2024).

4. ORGANIZATIONAL IDENTIFICATION MODELS

Recent studies on organizational identification have attempted to present an expanded identification model that includes improvements that more clearly show the ways in which individuals derive their identity from the organization (Çırakoğlu, 2010). Organizational identification models attempt to explain how identification differs in different situations and how individuals relate to the organization (Tüzün, 2006). There are three models of organizational

identification. These are: the structural model of identification in the organization developed by Scott and colleagues (1998); Reade's (2001) basic model for organizational identification; and the identification model developed by Kreiner and Ashforth (2004). These models are briefly described below (Hatipoğlu, 2022).

4.1. Scott, Corman, Cheney: Structural Identification Model

Scott, Corman, and Cheney (1998), adopting Gidens' (1984) theory explaining the identification process, integrated the entire identification process into three concepts: duality of structure, regionalization of structure, and situated activity (Scott et al., 1998). These dimensions are explained below.

Duality of Structure: Attempts to explain the relationship between the system and the structure. The concept of duality attempts to explain that identity must be considered as a structure and identification as a system, and that both must be addressed simultaneously (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2004). While identity attempts to explain who an individual is, identification focuses on the individual's behavior. Professional identity in this model refers to the respectability associated with a person's actions in terms of professional collaborations or types of work (Scott et al., 1998). Identity is defined as socially distinct behaviors that reveal a person's goals and commitment (Kağıtçıbaşı, 2004). Consequently, this duality encompasses the adoption of identities in the expression of identification in a structural sense. The identification is established through the adoption of identity. The commitment process is used to explain the duality of identity and identification (Scott et al., 1998).

Regionalism of Structure: Regionalism of structure is used to define the identities that individuals possess within their organizations and to understand the relationship with their identification. The concept of regionalism is seen as a larger form of social differences. Regionalism can be explained as ways of defining identity in defining the relationship between identity and organizational identification. In a sense, we can view societies as organizations that encompass many cultures within them. There is no integration between these cultures that make up societies. The regionality of the structure plays a role in integrating organizations and ensuring their identification (Alcan, 2018). With the regionalization of the structure, individuals will be able to express themselves more comfortably, and groups that know each other better will have the opportunity to integrate more healthily (Duru, 2025). The model attempts to draw attention to multiple identities and defines four regions to determine the level of compatibility and competition between these multiple identities: unique and overlapping regions, front and back regions, identity size, and identity usage time (Kuru, 2025).

Situational Action: Accepted as the final element of the model, situational action indicates that identification varies according to the situation and time, and that the degree to which individuals are affected by their situation occurs in parallel with their identification. When unexpected situations such as crises occur, employees' desire to unite and support the organization increases, thereby enabling organizational identification (Saraçoğlu and Aslan, 2019). This model aims to understand how identification can change depending on the situation and how individuals should act in certain situations. In other words, it emphasizes that identification is a flexible and situation-specific process. It offers an approach to understanding the complexity and variability of identification. It focuses on how individuals can identify in different situations and what level of identification they should adopt in which situations (Scott et al., 1998). When it is determined what types of actions arise from situations within the organization and to what extent these actions contribute to identification, potential crisis situations can be turned into an opportunity in terms of organizational identification (Duru, 2025).

4.2. Reade's Basic Identification Model

Based on social identity theory, Reade's (2001) basic identification model emphasizes that organizations are composed not only of individuals but also of complex and multi-layered groups. Contrary to the traditional understanding of organizational identification based on shared goals and values between the individual and the organization, this model argues that identification should be evaluated across the entire organization. In other words, in Reade's model, identification with the organization and identification with the group are considered the same (Reade, 2001; Kocakaya, 2024).

Reade's model examines this process in two basic stages: the formation of individuals' organizational identities and the maintenance of these identities (Altındış and Ağca, 2011). According to this model, the precursors of both intra-group identification and identification with the organization are the same. The difference between the two dimensions is that employees form emotional bonds because they believe they share the same fate as the group they belong to (Erguvan, 2024). Value-based identification consists of the values and beliefs of the individual on one side and the organization on the other. The commonality of these values and beliefs ensures the emergence of psychological attachment (Davran, 2024).

One of the most widely accepted methods in this field is social identity-based identification, which also encompasses individuals' sense of self. According to the model, members of work groups may exhibit different attitudes and behaviors toward other work groups. At the same time, work groups may also exhibit different attitudes and behaviors toward the organization. This situation is

referred to as “dual identification.” The study focused on whether there are different antecedents of identification with internal groups and with the organization as a whole. In the model, the antecedents that influence group identification and organizational identification are listed as organizational prestige and the organization's distinctive feature, manager support and recognition, and career development opportunities (Özkaya, 2022).

4.3. Kreiner and Ashforth: The Enhanced Identification Model

Kreiner and Ashforth state that organizational theorists' view of organizational identification has recently gone beyond the past perspective and that the subject is now approached from a broader and more complex angle (Çırakoğlu, 2010). The integration of the individual with organizational values results in organizational identification. Organizational identification is expressed as organizational membership and plays an important role in the relationship between the employee and the organization. Kreiner and Ashforth (2004) argued that identification is only one way for individuals to gain a sense of self in relation to the organization, but that in reality, individuals can define themselves in various ways through organizational ties, and developed a model to explain their views (Hatipoğlu, 2022). The model has four dimensions: strong identification, non-identification, ambivalent identification, and neutral identification (Tokgöz and Seymen, 2013).

Strong Identification: In this type of identification, the individual's continuity within the organization becomes permanent, creating the potential for future continuation. When an individual establishes a strong identification with the organization, it is expressed as the dimension created by the integration of the individual's own feelings to ensure the continuity of the organization (Polat, 2025). Strong identification is when the individual possesses the qualities required to continue in the organization and is willing to maintain their membership in the organization. When individuals have a strong sense of identification, their vital emotions become integrated with the continuity of the organization. Thanks to strong identification, both individual and organizational gains increase (Duru, 2025). With the bond of strong identification, the connections between managers and employees gain momentum, which brings about a significant level of success in organizational terms (Özdemir and Bekçe, 2021).

Non-identification: This refers to the lack of similarity between the individual and the organization. It means that the individual has little or no identification with the values, goals, or culture of that group (Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004). Non-identification is described as a situation where a person does not embrace the attitudes and principles of their organization. Lack of identification is an undesirable situation for organizations, arising from conflict between the

organization and the employee (Ashforth et al., 2013). In this situation, the individual may distance themselves from the organization or leave it. At this level, the individual experiences a sense of separation from the organization, and this situation reveals the opposite relationship between non-identification and organizational identification due to the individual's values not coinciding with those of the organization (Duru, 2025). An employee with a high level of non-identification can be a threat to the organization. However, it is not correct to generalize that every situation of non-identification is harmful to the organization. This is because non-identification is thought to play an important role in the emergence of other behaviors that benefit the organization (Alcan, 2018).

Indecisive Identification: This may refer to a situation where an individual experiences uncertainty regarding their sense of belonging, values, goals, or cultural context. This situation may cause the individual to not be in complete harmony with the group or organization and may result in fluctuating levels of commitment (Kocakaya, 2024). The complexity and uncertainty of today's organizational structures may also contribute to this situation. Considering that the connection between the individual's goals, values, and beliefs and the organization's variable situation may be loose, the individual may simultaneously identify and not identify with the organization. Such situations, where identification and non-identification occur simultaneously, are referred to as ambivalent identification (Kreiner and Ashforth, 2004; Duru, 2025). Ambivalent identification refers to the simultaneous emergence of identification and non-identification for an organizational employee. In this case, organizations need to correctly determine the direction of identification (Alcan, 2018).

Neutral Identification: This dimension describes a situation where an individual identifies with their organization to some extent but also does not identify with it to the same degree. This dimension attempts to explain why an individual cannot lean predominantly toward one side and experiences a gap between the two dimensions (Kuru, 2025). In this case, the individual focuses solely on their work without harboring any particular feelings toward the organization. Neutral identification is considered a suboptimal situation (Duru, 2025). This is because an employee who describes themselves as neutral towards their organization is expected to have a low level of commitment to the organization and a low level of integration with it, and therefore such an individual's contribution to the organization is also expected to be lower (Alcan, 2018). While negative behaviors arise when individuals do not identify with their organizations, neutral identification leads to parallel optimistic and pessimistic behaviors toward the organization. In this context, the individual continues to maintain a neutral stance without revealing whether they have an optimistic or

pessimistic attitude. In this case, if the individual is offered better conditions outside their organization, they have the opportunity to leave their organization (Polat, 2025).

CONCLUSION

Organizational identification is critical to the sustainable success and competitive strength of organizations. Therefore, organizations should develop various strategies and practices to increase their employees' levels of organizational identification (Fettahlioğlu and Koca, 2015). Organizational identification can maximize individuals' potential. Employees who lack organizational identification may view putting more effort into their work as unnecessary and have lower levels of motivation to succeed. To increase organizational identification, business managers must select appropriate tools and understand their employees' needs and motivating factors (Taşlıyan et al., 2016).

Individuals who identify with their organizations demonstrate a more supportive attitude toward their organizations and make decisions consistent with organizational goals. Strong identification ensures employee participation in the organization, along with organizational strategies, practices, and goals. Organizational identification results in the adoption of organizational goals and values, thereby preventing absenteeism, increasing participation in organizational activities, and reducing employee turnover. Among the many contributions of organizational identification, one important contribution is that employees who identify with their organizations are strongly committed to their jobs. As a result, employees with high levels of identification do not hesitate to exhibit extra role behavior in order to achieve organizational goals (Öztürk and Akın, 2021).

Organizational identification is a tool that enables and facilitates work in line with the expectations of businesses. If communication between the organization and employees is enriched with organizational identification, it can be expected that the level of organizational commitment that will be formed with the empowerment of the personnel will also change (Dinar and Türköz, 2024). Employees who identify with their organization feel that they are part of it and consider themselves to be one with the organization. In this way, employees make the organization's goals and objectives their own and make all the necessary sacrifices to achieve these goals. They increase their motivation in this direction and enjoy their work, becoming one with the organization and never considering leaving it under any circumstances (Yeşiltaş, 2012).

In conclusion, organizational identification refers to the situation where employees support the organization, act in concert with the organization in all circumstances, feel themselves to be part of the organization, and a strong bond is formed between the organization and its employees. Organizations produce a

series of outcomes due to the many effects of organizational identification on employees and the organization (Meal and Ashford, 1992; Duru, 2025). These outcomes are:

- Increased job satisfaction and motivation
- Improved job quality
- Strengthened organizational commitment
- Increased life satisfaction
- Encouragement of organizational citizenship behaviors
- Greater harmony and cooperation among employees
- Increased organizational performance
- Reduced conflict and stress
- Reduced intention to leave the job
- Increased organizational trust
- Creation of a supportive organizational climate
- Facilitation of innovation and change implementation
- Positive company image

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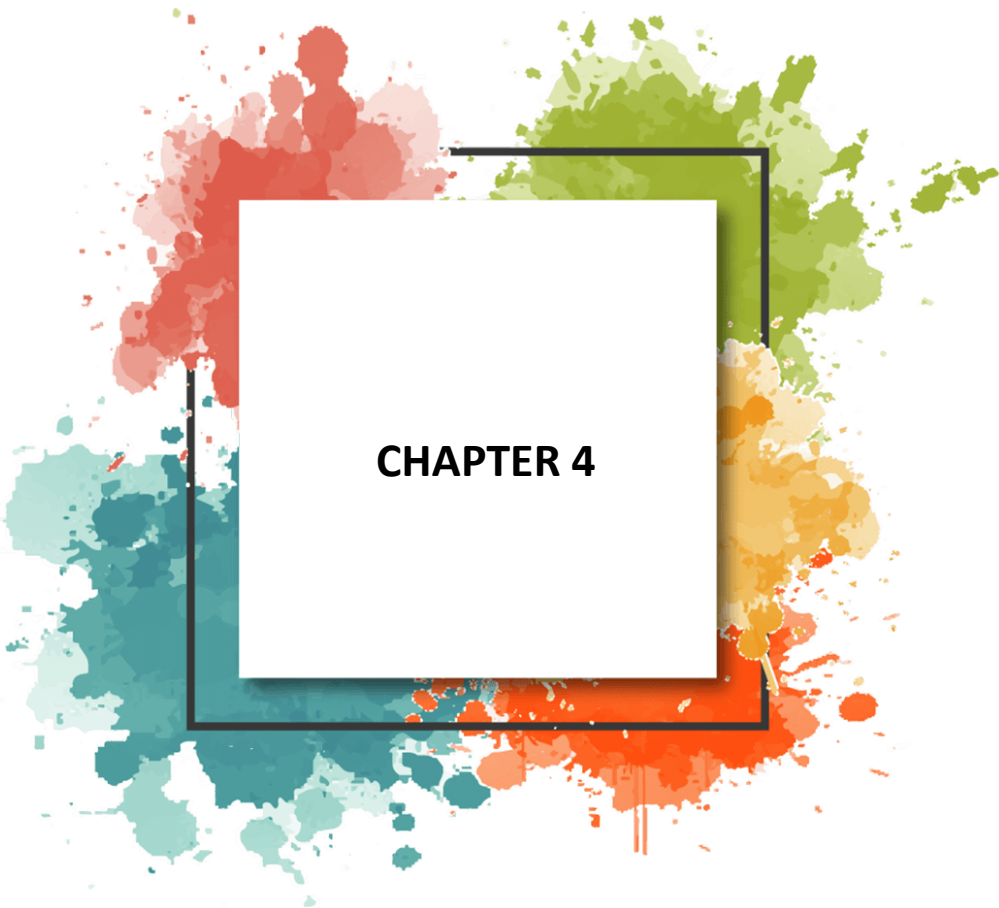
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CHAPTER 4

Historicism in Product Design: An Overview

Ferhan Egemen Sunal¹

Introduction

The concept of historicism occupies a pivotal role in intellectual, cultural, and artistic discourse. At its core, historicism emphasizes that all phenomena — political institutions, cultural forms, and even material objects — must be understood in relation to their historical development. Thinkers such as G.W.F. Hegel (1837/1956) and Leopold von Ranke (1824/1973) shaped the philosophical foundations of this perspective by insisting that history reveals unique and context-dependent truths rather than universal, timeless principles. Within the creative disciplines, historicism manifests not only as a way of interpreting history but also as a design strategy: the active incorporation of historical motifs, references, and symbolic forms into contemporary products.

In the realm of product design, historicism functions as a complex aesthetic and cultural practice. It ranges from direct stylistic revival for instance, the neo-classical forms of nineteenth-century decorative arts (Forty, 1986) to more subtle gestures of cultural continuity, such as the retro curves of 1950s-inspired home appliances. On one level, such design choices respond to consumer psychology, appealing to nostalgia and familiarity as mechanisms of persuasion (Brown, Kozinets & Sherry, 2003). On another level, they enact a deeper philosophical stance: positioning design as an ongoing negotiation between innovation and tradition, where the material world embodies memory and cultural heritage. The contrast with modernism makes the historicist tendency especially clear. Twentieth-century modernist designers, particularly those associated with the Bauhaus and International Style, insisted on abandoning overt all kinds of ornamentation including historical, in favor of rational functionality and aesthetic purity (Gropius, 1935; Pevsner, 1936).

This chapter aims to provide a comprehensive exploration of historicism in product design. It first establishes the theoretical underpinnings of historicism, tracing its philosophical and cultural lineage. It then outlines its historical trajectory across key moments: nineteenth-century eclecticism, modernist suppression, postmodern revival, and twenty-first-century reappropriations. Several case studies will illustrate how historicism has been deployed in practical applications. Finally, the chapter engages with the debates surrounding historicist

¹ Asst. Prof. Dr.,

design, including charges of superficiality, concerns about cultural authenticity, and questions about sustainability in an era of rapid consumption.

The central argument is that historicism in product design can be recognized as a dynamic cultural force that mediates between tradition and innovation. Through its capacity to embed historical meaning into material culture, historicism demonstrates that design is not merely future-oriented but deeply enmeshed in the rhythms of memory, identity, and continuity.

Theoretical Framework

Historicism as a concept carries both philosophical and aesthetic dimensions that are essential for understanding its role in product design. In philosophy, historicism denotes the view that human culture, thought, and practices are always historically conditioned, meaning that no phenomenon can be fully understood outside of its temporal context (Iggers, 1995). This perspective contrasts with universalist or ahistorical frameworks, which attempt to interpret cultural production through timeless principles. Hegel (1837/1956) argued that history embodies a rational unfolding of spirit, where each cultural product expresses the development of human consciousness within a given epoch. Ranke (1824/1973), though less idealist, insisted that each historical moment is unique and must be studied “as it really was,” emphasizing empirical specificity rather than abstract generalization. Together, these philosophical foundations position history not as a mere backdrop but as an active force in shaping cultural meaning.

When transposed into the arts and design, historicism emerges as an aesthetic strategy that actively engages with the past. In architecture, nineteenth-century Europe witnessed a proliferation of revival styles — Neo-Gothic, Neo-Baroque, and Neo-Classical — that sought legitimacy and cultural grounding through references to earlier traditions (Watkin, 1980). The Arts and Crafts movement, led by William Morris and John Ruskin, reflected a different kind of historicism: a romanticized return to medieval craftsmanship as a critique of industrial alienation (Naylor, 1971). These examples illustrate that historicism is not monolithic but multifaceted, capable of serving both conservative and progressive purposes depending on context.

Within design studies, historicism can be understood through the lens of material culture and semiotics. Products are not only functional artifacts but also bearers of cultural meaning, encoding values, narratives, and identities within their form (Forty, 1986). From this perspective, historicism in design operates as a semiotic strategy: the evocation of historical references to create symbolic resonance. For instance, a chair styled in the manner of eighteenth-century Rococo communicates luxury, tradition, and continuity, even when mass-produced in a modern factory. Likewise, a retro-styled smartphone application

mimicking an analog notebook conveys familiarity and comfort. Such practices exemplify how design becomes a vehicle for recontextualizing historical meanings in contemporary life.

A further theoretical dimension of historicism in design involves its relationship to collective memory. Halbwachs (1992) argued that memory is socially constructed, mediated through cultural symbols and material forms. Products with historicist elements participate in this process, reinforcing or reinterpreting collective identities through their design.

It is also important to situate historicism within debates about modernity and postmodernity. Modernist design principles, as advanced by figures such as Le Corbusier, Walter Gropius, and Adolf Loos, promoted a functionalist ethos that explicitly rejected historical ornamentation (Loos, 1913/1998). Ornament was deemed superfluous, even degenerate, in a rationally organized modern society. Historicism, in this framework, was seen as regressive, clinging to outdated cultural forms instead of embracing progress. Postmodern theorists, however, revalorized historicism. Charles Jencks (1977) argued that postmodern architecture and design embraced pluralism, symbolism, and historical quotation as legitimate forms of cultural expression.

From a design theory standpoint, historicism resists the modernist narrative of radical innovation, yet it also prevents design from lapsing into mere traditionalism by reinterpreting, rather than replicating, historical forms. This dialectical character explains historicism's persistence in product design despite repeated critiques. Products are rarely designed in a vacuum; instead, they exist within complex networks of cultural references, market pressures, and user expectations. By invoking history, designers situate products within these networks in ways that resonate both functionally and symbolically.

In sum, the theoretical framework of historicism highlights three interrelated dimensions: (1) its philosophical grounding in the idea that all cultural phenomena are historically conditioned; (2) its aesthetic practice of reviving or reinterpreting past styles in the arts and design; and (3) its semiotic and cultural function in constructing meaning and memory through material artifacts. These dimensions provide the conceptual tools for analyzing how historicism has evolved within product design and why it continues to hold cultural and commercial significance. The following sections will build on this foundation to trace historicism's historical trajectory, illustrate its operation in specific case studies, and critically examine its implications for contemporary design practice.

Historical Development

The trajectory of historicism in product design is neither linear nor uniform. It emerges in different historical contexts, from the industrial revolution's eclectic revivals to postmodern pastiche. Historicism has continually resurfaced as both a critique of and an alternative to modernist ideals of progress and functionality. This section traces historicism's development across four broad historical moments: the nineteenth century, the early twentieth century modernist rejection, the postmodern revival of the late twentieth century, and contemporary reappropriations in the twenty-first century.

Nineteenth-Century Historicism and Industrial Production

The nineteenth century witnessed the first large-scale fusion of historicism and industrial product design. The Industrial Revolution introduced mass production technologies that radically altered the conditions of design and manufacture. Yet rather than embracing a wholly new aesthetic vocabulary, much of nineteenth-century product design borrowed heavily from historical styles. Furniture, household goods, and decorative objects often featured Neo-Gothic, Neo-Renaissance, or Neo-Classical ornamentation (Forty, 1986).

This phenomenon had both cultural and economic roots. On one hand, historical ornament lent legitimacy to mass-produced objects by associating them with established cultural traditions. On the other, it allowed manufacturers to market new goods within familiar symbolic frameworks, reassuring consumers who were unsettled by rapid industrial change. For instance, ceramic manufacturers like Wedgwood revived classical motifs, while iron furniture producers adopted Gothic tracery and motifs associated with medieval craftsmanship. Critics of the period, however, were divided. Some saw historicist design as a debasement of historical authenticity, reducing styles to superficial ornament divorced from their original cultural context (Ruskin, 1849/1989). Others defended it as a necessary bridge between tradition and modernity, enabling industrial production to remain culturally grounded. This ambivalence set the stage for the modernist critique that would dominate the early twentieth century.

Early Twentieth-Century Modernism

The early twentieth century marked a deliberate and systematic rejection of historicism within design discourse. Modernist thinkers argued that ornament and historical allusion had no place in an industrialized, modern society. Adolf Loos's seminal essay *Ornament and Crime* (1913/1998) epitomized this critique, condemning ornament as culturally regressive and morally suspect.

Movements such as the Bauhaus in Germany, De Stijl in the Netherlands, and the International Style in architecture promoted design as the expression of modern materials, technology, and rational function (Droste, 1993). Products were to embody universality and timelessness rather than historical specificity. For example, the Bauhaus designed chairs, lamps, and tableware that emphasized geometric purity and functional efficiency, with no reference to past styles.

Postmodern Revival and Historicist Pastiche (1970s–1990s)

By the late twentieth century, modernism's dominance had begun to wane. Critics argued that its universalist claims were restrictive, ignoring cultural diversity and consumer desires for symbolic richness. Postmodernism emerged as a pluralistic counter-movement that actively embraced history, quotation, and eclecticism. Charles Jencks (1977) celebrated this as the “language of postmodern architecture,” while in product design, groups such as the Memphis collective (founded by Ettore Sottsass in 1981) epitomized historicist experimentation.

The Memphis Group's products, such as Sottsass's Carlton bookcase (1981), combined references to Art Deco, Pop Art, and tribal motifs in playful, ironic ways. These objects rejected functionalist minimalism, instead celebrating visual excess and historical allusion. Likewise, designers such as Michael Graves created consumer products (for example, his kettles for Alessi in the 1980s) that blended classical references with whimsical, colorful forms.

This revival of historicism was not merely aesthetic. It reflected broader cultural shifts toward pluralism, democratization of style, and skepticism of modernist grand narratives (Jameson, 1991). In consumer markets, postmodern historicism also had clear commercial appeal: it allowed brands to differentiate themselves through storytelling, heritage, and playful eclecticism.

Twenty-First-Century Reappropriations

In the twenty-first century, historicism in product design has taken new forms shaped by globalization, digital technology, and shifting consumer cultures. One prominent trend is retro design — the deliberate revival of mid-twentieth-century aesthetics in contemporary products. Automotive design provides striking examples: the relaunch of the Volkswagen Beetle (1997), the Mini Cooper (2001), and the Fiat 500 (2007) all relied heavily on nostalgic reinterpretations of iconic models. These vehicles retained recognizable silhouettes and stylistic cues from their predecessors while incorporating modern engineering and safety features.

Retro aesthetics also permeate consumer electronics and household products. Companies such as Smeg market refrigerators styled after 1950s appliances,

combining nostalgic visual cues with modern functionality. Similarly, branding strategies increasingly leverage heritage, reviving old logos, packaging, and advertising styles to signal authenticity and continuity in crowded consumer markets (Brown et al., 2003).

Contemporary historicism further intersects with sustainability and cultural identity. Some designers revive traditional craft motifs not only for aesthetic appeal but also to promote local heritage and resist homogenization under global capitalism (Clarke, 2018). Others argue that historicism, by reusing familiar forms, can contribute to sustainable design practices by fostering product longevity through emotional attachment (Chapman, 2005). These debates show that historicism remains a vital and evolving force in design theory and practice.

Case Studies

While theoretical perspectives and historical surveys establish the broad contours of historicism in design, case studies provide insight into its practical application. This section examines three exemplary cases: Philippe Starck's Juicy Salif lemon squeezer, retro automotive design exemplified by the Volkswagen Beetle, Mini Cooper, and Fiat 500, and the interplay of historicism and modernism in contemporary furniture design from companies such as IKEA, Moooi, and Vitra.

1. Philippe Starck's Juicy Salif (1990): Playful Historicism in Everyday Objects

Philippe Starck's Juicy Salif lemon squeezer, designed for Alessi in 1990, has become one of the most iconic — and controversial — design objects of the late twentieth century. At first glance, the product appears futuristic, with its tripod-like aluminum legs resembling a hybrid between an alien spacecraft and a kitchen utensil. Yet its visual language also evokes echoes of art-historical references. Critics have observed affinities with Italian Futurism and even with the Gothic spires of medieval cathedrals (Fiell & Fiell, 1999).

Starck himself framed the design as intentionally ironic and playful, challenging conventional expectations of product utility. Indeed, Juicy Salif is notoriously impractical for squeezing lemons efficiently. Its historicist significance lies not in literal stylistic quotation but in its ability to evoke multiple cultural references simultaneously, destabilizing distinctions between past, present, and future. In this way, Starck's object exemplifies postmodern historicism, where meaning emerges from eclectic citation and the deliberate collapse of functionalist seriousness.

2. Retro Automotive Design: Volkswagen Beetle, Mini Cooper, and Fiat 500

Beginning in the late 1990s, several manufacturers relaunched iconic car models in updated forms, relying heavily on retro design cues. The Volkswagen Beetle, relaunched in 1997, retained the distinctive rounded silhouette of the original 1938 design, itself deeply embedded in cultural memory through associations with postwar mobility and 1960s counterculture. Similarly, BMW's revival of the Mini Cooper in 2001 modernized performance and safety while maintaining the recognizable compact form and design elements of the 1959 British original. Fiat followed with the Fiat 500 in 2007, which echoed the charm of its 1957 namesake while incorporating contemporary technology.

These retro cars exemplify historicism as both cultural and commercial strategy. By reinterpreting historic designs, manufacturers tapped into nostalgia, national identity, and intergenerational memory, creating products that appealed to both older consumers with direct associations and younger consumers seeking retro-cool authenticity (Heath & Potter, 2005). The success of these models underscores historicism's effectiveness in revitalizing brands and fostering emotional attachment in markets often dominated by technical specifications.

3. Contemporary Furniture Brands

Furniture design offers another rich domain for examining historicism's evolving role. While modernism originally sought to eliminate historical allusion, contemporary furniture brands often embrace hybrid approaches that mix modernist functionality with historicist references.

IKEA, for instance, often incorporates elements of Scandinavian craft traditions into its otherwise minimalist products. The company's strategy reflects a form of "soft historicism," where heritage references operate less as overt ornament than as subtle evocations of cultural identity and continuity. This allows IKEA to balance global standardization with local resonance (Edwards, 2005).

Mooodi, a Dutch design company founded by Marcel Wanders in 2001, takes a more playful postmodern approach. Wanders's Knotted Chair (1996) combines cutting-edge carbon-fiber technology with the visual language of hand-knotted macramé, blending historical craft traditions with futuristic materials.

Critiques and Debates

Historicism in product design represents one of the most persistent and complex dynamics within modern material culture. Far from being a mere stylistic choice, historicism reveals how products participate in a cultural dialogue between past and present, memory and innovation, continuity and disruption. By drawing on historical references, designers create objects that

resonate not only functionally but symbolically, embedding meaning in ways that extend beyond immediate utility. The chapter has shown how historicism has evolved across different periods. Case studies — from Philippe Starck’s Juicy Salif to contemporary furniture brands — illustrate the diversity of historicist strategies. Whether ironic, nostalgic, or subtly referential, historicism enables products to embody cultural narratives that anchor them within collective memory.

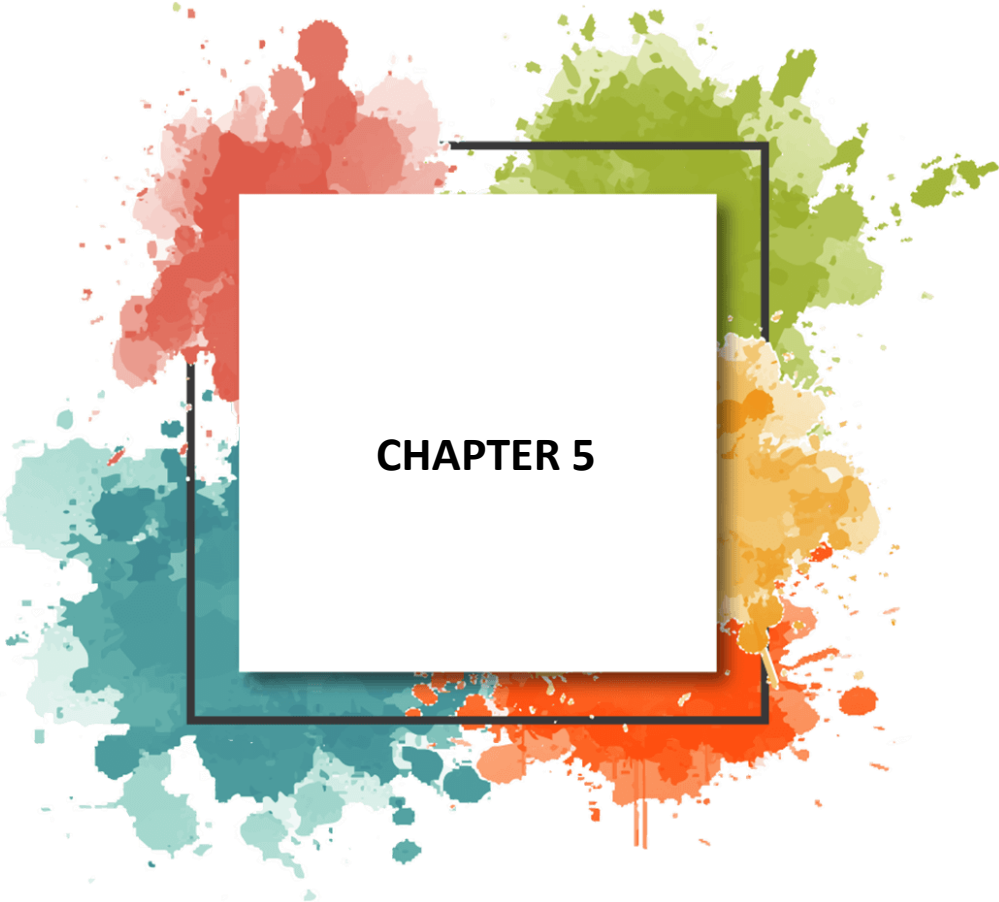
At the same time, historicism remains contested. Critics argue that it risks superficiality, reducing history to decorative quotation or exploiting nostalgia for commercial gain. Others suggest that it undermines innovation by privileging continuity over experimentation. Yet defenders point out that historicism can foster emotional durability, promote cultural identity, and mediate disruptive technological change. Rather than a weakness, its persistence indicates that design inevitably engages with history, whether consciously or not.

The central conclusion of this chapter is that historicism in product design is best understood not as a regression into the past but as a negotiation with it. It represents an adaptive strategy that allows designers and consumers alike to navigate the complexities of modernity by recontextualizing heritage within contemporary life. In doing so, historicism ensures that design is never purely forward-looking but always embedded in the rhythms of memory, identity, and continuity. By bridging the gap between tradition and innovation, historicist design makes visible the temporal dimensions of everyday objects, reminding us that the products we use are never divorced from history but are, in fact, its material expression.

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CHAPTER 5

Perceptions of Divorce in the Post-Truth Era: Turkey, The United States and A Global Perspective

Mehmet Meder¹

Introduction

Divorce... Two signatures on paper, a few sentences in the courtroom, quick steps out of the courthouse. From the outside, it looks like a simple procedure; but when looked at closely, all the emotions, values, and tensions of a society changing over time lie silently within those files. Every divorce is a couple's story, yes; but it is also a conversation a whole society has with itself: "What is family?", "What do we expect from marriage?", "What does happiness look like?"

Over the past fifteen years in Turkey, the landscape of divorce and marriage has changed significantly. The age of marriage has risen, education has become more widespread, cities have grown, working life has become more challenging, and social media has come to dictate the rhythm of daily life. The Turkish Statistical Institute's (TÜİK) marriage and divorce statistics tell us that divorce has become more visible alongside this transformation: there has been an increase, but this increase is not like the "sudden explosion" scenes most people see on screen. Rather, it is a curve that rises slowly, with a short wavelength but a clear direction. The fact that the rates in large cities, especially in the Marmara and Aegean regions, exceed the national average cannot be explained by simplistic explanations such as "moral decay," as often claimed by religious groups. In reality, structural factors such as urbanisation, work-life balance, rent and livelihood pressures, increased education and female employment, legal awareness and access to support mechanisms play an important role here. In other words, it is not a matter of a single cog breaking; it can also be described as an entire mechanism slowly shifting to a different rhythm.

The story is even more interesting on the US side: divorce rates, which peaked in the 1980s, are declining in the long term, according to CDC (2024) and NCFMR (2023) data. To interpret this decline simply as "people are happier now" would be a very inadequate understanding. In fact, there is a culture of "preparing for marriage" that is closely linked to more selective marriages, longer courtship and cohabitation periods, and levels of education and income. Seen in this light, marriage, especially among the middle and upper classes, is becoming an

¹ Prof. Dr., Pamukkale University, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
ORCID: 0000-0002-7783-1131

institution that is "less common but more stable". Meanwhile, there is another phenomenon frequently highlighted by the NCFMR: while divorce rates are falling among younger generations, "grey divorce" among those aged 50 and over is increasing. In other words, the trend is not a single line; it shows us a pattern that fluctuates according to age, class and geography.

We see similar diversity on a global scale. The OECD Family Database and Our World in Data graphs show that divorce has increased in many countries over the last thirty years; however, the meaning of this increase is not the same everywhere. In Scandinavian countries, thanks to strong welfare states and gender equality policies, divorce is perceived more as a "normative transition" than a "crisis"; social support mechanisms soften the economic and psychological burden of separation. In Eastern Europe and some Latin American countries, however, economic fluctuations and fragile social policies can increase the risk of poverty after divorce. In Asia (e.g. Japan and South Korea), cultural norms, work pace and expectations regarding elderly care affect both marriage decisions and tensions within marriage in different ways. Therefore, more important than the question "Is divorce on the rise?" is this: "What is the context of the increase, and what are the consequences for whom?"

Then there is the gap between perception and data. We live in the post-truth era; this concept, chosen as Oxford's "word of the year" in 2016, reminds us that emotions and identities are faster and more powerful than numerical facts. Headlines on news channels proclaiming that "the family is falling apart," personal narratives reaching millions on social media, stories of separation in popular TV series... All of this sharpens social perception, and sometimes distorts it. The picture we often see in Pew Research or local public opinion polls is this: even if the rates are falling, people think they are rising; when the rates are rising linearly, people think there is an explosion. Because data speaks slowly; stories shout.

This article was written to bring that screaming story and the slow-speaking data to the same table. We will compare Turkey and the US within a global framework. In doing so, we will keep two things in mind: First, the numerical trends, i.e., what picture emerges by year, region, and age group. Second, how that picture is interpreted: how do the media, social media, cultural norms, and political debates frame this picture in the public mind? Here, we will ask not only "how many people got divorced?" but also "what does divorce tell us?"

Our roadmap is clear. In the first section, we will establish the theoretical framework: modernisation, demographic transition, individualisation, structural-functional family theory, conflict and feminist approaches, Durkheim's anomie, Giddens' "transforming intimacy"; as well as the media's power to set the agenda, the "spiral of silence" and "echo chambers". Then, in the methodology

section, we will present the data sets and their limitations. The data sets we will use are based on data provided by official institutions such as TÜİK, CDC/NVSS, NCFMR, OECD and OWID. Building on this, we will examine differences in definitions between countries; what indicators such as the crude divorce rate reveal and what they do not reveal. Findings will then be evaluated: Turkey's regional pattern, the long-term decline in the US and the detail of "grey divorce" within it, OECD comparisons, and examples from Asia and Eastern Europe will be included in this evaluation. Subsequently, in the discussion section, we will examine the data through theory: "What does the increase indicate, what does the decline conceal?", "Where does inequality fit into this picture?", "How does the media distort perception?". Finally, in the conclusions and recommendations section, we will evaluate data-driven communication, media literacy, family counselling and social support mechanisms, child-centred policies, and fair and accessible legal processes.

In short, this study does not settle for the question "Is divorce on the rise?"; it asks "Why, for whom, under what conditions, with what consequences?" As the questions multiply, the answer becomes clearer: Divorce is neither merely the name of the crisis nor merely liberation. Divorce is a mirror of the times. As we look into that mirror, we will try to see both the numbers and the human faces.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Understanding divorce is not merely about counting how many people have ended their marriages. Every piece of data tells a story; this story is intertwined with that society's values, norms and economic structure. Sociological theories offer us different lenses through which to interpret this story. In this study, we will focus on eight main approaches. In this first section, we will examine structural-functionalist theory, conflict theory and feminist theories.

1. Structural-Functionalist Approach: The Social Cement of the Family

Talcott Parsons (1955) defined the family as the cornerstone of society in post-war America. He attributed two critical tasks to the family: the socialisation of children and the emotional stabilisation of adult personalities. According to Parsons, the family was an interface that enabled individuals to adapt to the "social system".

According to this theory, divorce is not merely the separation of two individuals, but also an indication that these functions are not being fulfilled. However, functionalism has its weaknesses as well as its strengths. Feminist sociologist Jessie Bernard (1972) argued that Parsons' ideal family model was specific to the middle-class, white, heterosexual nuclear family and rendered inequalities within the family invisible. Nevertheless, the functionalist perspective helps us interpret the rise in divorce as a "process of social

adaptation": as social functions shift to different institutions, the structure of the family also changes.

In Turkey, with urbanisation and the spread of the education system, the family has lost some of the functions described by Parsons. Children's socialisation process is now largely determined by schools, the media and digital culture. In the US, this transformation occurred much earlier; the nuclear family model became the norm, and marriages became more individualistic and focused on emotional satisfaction. Consequently, marriages where emotional satisfaction is lost are more likely to end.

2. Conflict Theory: The Re-establishment of Power Balances

Karl Marx defined the family as an extension of social production relations. In *The Origin of the Family, Private Property, and the State* (1884), Engels argued that the family is a mechanism for the transfer of property and legitimises the exploitation of women's labour. Conflict theory views the family not as a loving refuge but as a stage for the struggle for power and resources.

Ralf Dahrendorf states that this struggle is not only class-based but also occurs at the micro level, i.e., within the family. Randall Collins (1975) examines interactions within the family at the "micro-conflict" level and emphasises that marriage is a continuous bargaining process.

From this perspective, divorce is not only about personal incompatibility but also about shifting power balances. Women's rising educational levels, increased participation in the workforce, and expanded legal rights transform bargaining power within the family. In Turkey, the 2001 Civil Code reform equalising the property division regime reduced women's economic concerns after divorce. In the US, the increase in women's university graduation rates was one of the most important factors triggering the divorce boom in the 1970s (Cherlin, 2020).

Conflict theory interprets divorce not as a sign of social collapse, but as a result of the renegotiation of inequalities. This can be read as a powerful explanation for understanding the spikes in divorce rates, particularly during periods of changing gender roles.

3. Feminist Theories: Liberation, But at What Cost?

Feminist theory views divorce as a means of women's liberation. For liberal feminists, divorce is about women gaining control over their own lives. Radical feminists define the family as a means of perpetuating the patriarchal order; divorce is a necessary step in breaking this order.

However, feminist theory also reminds us that divorce alone does not guarantee gender equality. Uunk (2004) has shown that the risk of poverty after

divorce is twice as high for women as it is for men. According to an OECD (2023) report, women's income loss after divorce averages 20%, while men's is 10%. While this gap is limited by social assistance in welfare states such as Sweden and Norway, the risk of impoverishment for women and children is higher in Turkey and the United States.

Postmodern feminists emphasise that divorce has different consequences for different classes, ethnic groups, and sexual identities (Butler, 1990). Therefore, the feminist approach argues that it is not only necessary to facilitate divorce but also to strengthen post-divorce social support mechanisms.

4. Modernisation and the Second Demographic Transition: Long-Wave Transformation

William Goode (1963) was one of the first sociologists to emphasise that modernisation transforms family forms. According to him, industrialisation, urbanisation, and education processes dissolve the extended family and make the nuclear family dominant. In this process, marriage becomes an institution based not only on economic cooperation but also on emotional satisfaction and romantic love.

Lesthaeghe and Van de Kaa (1987) define this transformation with the concept of the "Second Demographic Transition" (SDT). According to this theory, the increase in divorce, low fertility, births outside marriage, and cohabitation are all part of the same package. In European countries, the rate of cohabitation has increased rapidly since the 1980s, fertility has fallen to between 1.3 and 1.7, and divorce rates have risen.

In Turkey, the traces of this transition began to emerge in the 2000s. TÜİK data (2024) shows that between 2010 and 2024, the age of marriage increased by 3 years, the fertility rate fell to 1.88, and the divorce rate rose from 1.62 to 2.19. This indicates that Turkey is in the middle stage of the demographic transition. In the US, this transition occurred much earlier; while the out-of-wedlock birth rate was 5% in the 1960s, it is now over 40%. Interestingly, divorce rates declined after this "normalisation" process. This shows that the demographic transition is a dynamic process and that divorce rates can stabilise once societies reach a new equilibrium.

5. Individualisation and the Risk Society: Marriage as a "Life Project"

Ulrich Beck and Elisabeth Beck-Gernsheim (1995) argue that in the age of individualisation, people design their own life stories as "projects." Marriage is no longer a social obligation but a personal choice. This choice continues only as long as it provides individual satisfaction.

From this perspective, divorce is seen as a way for individuals to redesign their life projects. This can be an emancipating process; however, according to Beck's "risk society" theory, modernisation also produces new risks. Some of these include living alone after divorce, the increase in single-parent families, economic vulnerability, and the risk of loneliness.

The rise in "grey divorce" in the US, meaning divorces among those over 50, is indicative of a mature stage of individualisation. People are exercising their right to write a new life script in the second half of their lives. In Turkey, however, the process of individualisation is still progressing slowly; the tension between social norms and individual preferences remains more pronounced.

6. Durkheim's Theory of Anomie: Periods of Weakened Norms

Émile Durkheim (1897) explains that the dissolution of social order leads to a weakening of norms and a loss of direction among individuals, a concept he terms "anomie." This situation also affects marriage and divorce behaviour. When norms weaken, individuals question the institution of marriage and turn to alternative forms of relationships.

Fluctuations in divorce rates in Turkey during the 2018 economic crisis and the pandemic years paint a picture consistent with the concept of anomie: during periods of rapid change, social norms are shaken, and individuals' decisions become more uncertain. The sexual revolution and women's movement in the United States in the 1960s and 1970s led to a peak in divorce rates. The subsequent decline in divorce rates in the following years indicates that new norms have taken hold and individuals have regained their balance.

7. Giddens and Bauman: Changing Privacy and the Fragility of Relationships

Anthony Giddens (1992) argues that the nature of relationships in modern society has changed fundamentally. According to him, modern couples establish a type of relationship he calls a "pure relationship." This relationship continues only as long as both parties are satisfied; it is based on mutual negotiation and is egalitarian. Giddens argues that this type of relationship increases individual freedom but also heightens the fragility of relationships.

There is data in the US that corroborates this approach. According to a Pew Research (2023) report, the rate of cohabitation before marriage has reached 60% over the last twenty years. This makes marriages more selective and partially reduces the risk of divorce through a pre-marital screening process. The long-term decline in divorce rates can be seen as a result of Giddens' concept of "pure relationships": marriages are becoming fewer but more stable.

Zygmunt Bauman (2003), however, paints a more pessimistic picture. According to him, modern relationships are "liquid love." People quickly become close, quickly drift apart; bonds are more fragile and temporary. Bauman's perspective is particularly meaningful in the age of social media. Online dating apps, quickly consumed relationships, and an increasing sense of loneliness significantly support this metaphor of fluidity.

A similar trend is slowly emerging in Turkey. The spread of dating culture, particularly in large cities, is leading to relationships becoming shorter and more experience-oriented. This situation reminds us that divorce is not just a legal process but also a process of individual reconstruction.

8. Media, Algorithms, and the Post-Truth Era

The media is perhaps the most powerful shaper of perceptions about divorce. McCombs and Shaw's (1972) *agenda-setting* theory demonstrates that the media decides which issues are important. The more frequently a topic is in the news, the more important it is perceived to be by society. Elisabeth Noelle-Neumann's *spiral of silence* theory, on the other hand, suggests that those who disagree with the majority remain silent, which can lead to a one-sided social perception.

In the post-truth era, this process has become even more complex. The filter bubble effect, as defined by Eli Pariser (2011), reveals that people are fed only content that confirms their own views on social media. This polarises perceptions of divorce. One group views divorce as a "wave of freedom," while another group sees it as "social collapse."

The effect of algorithms' "algorithmic amplification" is also significant: platforms highlight content that generates engagement. Divorce stories are often dramatic and therefore shared more widely, reinforcing the perception of a "divorce explosion." While popular culture in the US – Netflix series, talk shows – produces a language that normalises divorce, in Turkey, television programmes often present divorce as dramatic, even criminal.

This framework explains why the gap between data and perception is so large. People listen more to the emotional power of stories than to the slow and dispassionate language of numbers. Therefore, even if divorce rates remain stable, the perception that divorce is "increasing" in society may become entrenched.

Interim Conclusion: Overview of the Theoretical Framework

When these eight approaches are considered together, divorce is not merely a legal procedure, but a reflection of social values, economic power balances, and the media ecosystem. Structural-functionalist theory tells us what the family represents, conflict and feminist theories tell us about power relations,

modernisation and the Second Demographic Transition process tell us about the historical context, Beck and Giddens tell us about the effects of individualisation, Durkheim tells us about the role of social norms, Bauman tells us about the fragility of relationships, and media theories tell us how perceptions are shaped. This theoretical groundwork will provide a meaningful context for the data presented in the subsequent sections of the article.

FINDINGS — TURKEY

Divorce rates in Turkey have been steadily rising for a long time. The Turkish Statistical Institute's (TÜİK) *Marriage and Divorce Statistics 2023* bulletin reveals that the number of couples divorcing rose from 173,342 to 187,343 in one year, and the crude divorce rate reached a historic high of 2.19‰ (TÜİK, 2024). This figure is no longer a "temporary fluctuation" but evidence that a new norm has taken hold in the institution of marriage. This picture suggests that divorce is no longer an exceptional event in Turkey but has become a permanent social phenomenon.

Regional distribution adds another dimension to the picture. Antalya (3.29‰), İzmir (3.09‰) and Karaman (3.04‰) have the highest rates, while Hakkâri (0.45‰), Şırnak (0.55‰) and Muş/Siirt (0.60‰) have the lowest rates (TÜİK, 2024). This gap cannot be explained solely by the discourse of "moral decay" or "erosion of traditional values"; structural factors such as urbanisation, female employment and education levels play a significant role. This difference shows that modernisation is proceeding at different speeds across Turkey and that divorce is one of the most visible consequences of these differences.

The picture becomes even more striking when looking at the duration of marriages: one-third of divorces occur within the first five years of marriage (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2024). This data suggests that the first years remain the most fragile stage of marriage and that economic pressures, housing stress, and adjustment issues particularly intensify conflicts during this period.

Caarls and de Valk's (2018) spatial diffusion model shows that divorce first spreads in urban and economically developed regions, then spreads to neighbouring regions. The shift from the acceleration in the Aegean and Marmara regions in the 2010s to Central Anatolia and the Mediterranean in the 2020s fits this model perfectly. This suggests that divorce is not a "regional shock" but a social innovation spreading in waves, and therefore the trend is likely to spread across the country in the coming years.

The increase in women's education and labour force participation is also a significant determinant. Research shows that divorce rates are higher in regions with high female employment, which also changes bargaining power within marriage (Caarls & de Valk, 2018). This development facilitates the earlier and

more decisive termination of unhappy marriages rather than being a factor that encourages divorce.

The pandemic years created a brief grey area in the data: court closures temporarily reduced divorces in 2020, but the backlog of postponed cases accelerated the increase in 2021–2022. The 2.19‰ level reached in 2024 indicates that the trend has returned to its pre-pandemic trajectory and that the long-term increase is continuing (TÜİK, 2024). This suggests that the combination of economic fluctuations and emotional stress has accelerated divorce.

It is no coincidence that Antalya, Izmir and Karaman occupy the top three spots. Seasonal labour mobility and migration patterns in Antalya have diversified relationships while also making them more fragile. Izmir's high education and urbanisation rates have shifted expectations from marriage towards a more "relationship-centred" approach; this, in turn, accelerates separation when harmony breaks down. In rapidly industrialising small cities like Karaman, the tension between modernisation and the traditional family structure creates pressure that increases divorce rates (Caarls & de Valk, 2018). These examples remind us that divorce rates are not merely statistics but also a reflection of the new lifestyles brought about by urbanisation.

Looking at the age profile, the average age of divorce is in the early 40s for men and late 30s for women (TÜİK, 2024). This shows that divorce is no longer specific to younger age groups but has become a serious possibility in middle age as well. In summary, the increase in Turkey is not like a storm, but rather like the changing of the seasons; it is progressing slowly, steadily, but permanently.

FINDINGS — USA

The US story is almost the opposite of Turkey's: we observe a marked decline over the long term. CDC/NCHS data show that the divorce rate, which was 5.2/1000 in the 1980s, fell to 2.4/1000 in 2022 (CDC/NCHS, 2024). This picture should be interpreted as a sign that divorce in the United States is no longer a "common crisis," but rather a period in which selective marriages have become the norm.

NCFMR data supports this picture: the "divorce per married woman" rate, which peaked at 22.6 per 1,000 in 1980, is now around 14.5 per 1,000 (NCFMR, 2023). This decline indicates that the US has entered a period of structural equilibrium since the 1990s and that marriage has become an increasingly selective institution.

The doubling of divorces among those aged 50 and over, known as "grey divorce," over the past thirty years (Brown & Lin, 2012; Brown & Lin, 2020) is

not merely a demographic data point but also an indicator of intergenerational value shifts. This increase suggests that even in later life, individuals have a growing desire to build a new life and higher expectations of satisfaction from relationships.

Interstate differences similarly reflect socio-economic and cultural differences. Rates are high in states with a tradition of "quick divorce," such as Nevada, while they are quite low in states such as Massachusetts and Vermont (NCFMR, 2023). These differences reveal that divorce is not merely an individual decision but also a phenomenon influenced by the legal environment and social norms.

The likelihood of divorce is lower among university-educated couples and higher among low-income and low-educated groups (McLanahan, 2004; 2020). This picture suggests that marriage is increasingly becoming a "middle-class norm" and that lower-income groups are becoming more vulnerable.

The pandemic period created a laboratory effect, with a sharp decline in marriage and divorce rates, followed by a recovery after 2022. This recovery shows that marriage is still a valuable institution, but one that is filtered and established in a more stable manner.

The table below provides a clearer view of the divorce data between Turkey and the US and the associated commentary.

Indicators	Turkey Statistical 2024)	(Turkish Institute,	United (CDC/NCHS, NCFMR, 2023)	States 2024;	Comment
Crude Divorce Rate	2.19 % peak)	(historical	2.4 per thousand (down from 5.2 in the 1980s)		While Turkey follows an upward trend, the US has seen a steady decline over the long term.
Trend	58% increase over the last 15 years		50% decrease over the last 40 years		Turkey is in the rising phase of its second demographic transition, while the US is in the equilibrium phase.
Highest Region/State	Antalya (3.29 ‰)		Nevada, Arkansas	Oklahoma,	Regions with high immigration or flexible divorce laws rank high in both countries.

Indicators	Turkey (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2024)	United States (CDC/NCHS, NCFMR, 2023)	Comment
Lowest Region/State	Hakkâri (0.45 ‰)	Vermont, Massachusetts	Regions with more traditional norms show lower divorce rates.
By Length of Marriage	33% of divorces occur within the first 5 years	Gray divorce (50+) accounts for 25% of all divorces	In Turkey, early-stage fragility is prominent, while in the US, the search for a new beginning after middle age is prominent.
Education and Class Differences	As female employment increases, the divorce rate rises	The divorce rate among university graduates is 30% lower	Both countries show that divorce is related to social inequalities.
Pandemic Impact	Decline in 2020, compensatory increase in 2021-22	Decline in 2020, recovery in 2022	Economic and social shocks create short-term fluctuations in both countries.

Based on the above narrative, we can say that these differences show that the institution of the family has evolved along different paths in each society.

DISCUSSION

Divorce is one of the most sensitive indicators of social change. When the divorce data for Turkey and the US over the last forty years are placed side by side, two different curves emerge: an upward trend in Turkey and a downward trend in the US, albeit with a change in quality. We believe that modernisation, individualisation, feminist theory and media theories must be considered together to understand this picture. This multi-layered approach allows us to view divorce not merely as a statistic, but as a living mirror of society's changing values.

1. The Rising Curve in Turkey and Regional Patterns

The regional differences and divorce rates detailed above, based on TÜİK (2024) data, show that Turkey's crude divorce rate of 1.62‰ in 2010 indicates that the country is still in the rising phase of demographic transition and that urbanisation plays a transformative role in family structure.

The fact that 96% of divorce reasons are "incompatibility" indicates that marriages are now sustained on the basis of emotional satisfaction rather than social pressure (TÜİK, 2024). The divorce rate within the first five years is 33.7%. This is strong evidence for Giddens' concept of the "pure relationship": marriage is now a form of relationship whose sustainability depends on love and satisfaction. This suggests that divorce is beginning to be seen not as a social failure but as a natural result of the search for individual fulfilment.

Economic Crisis and Pandemic Impact

The 2018 currency crisis and subsequent high inflation increased tensions within families, leading to an 8% increase in divorce rates in 2019, particularly in large cities (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2020). In 2020, the closure of courts due to the pandemic temporarily reduced divorces, followed by a rapid increase in 2021–2022 due to a "catch-up effect" (TÜİK, 2023). This fluctuation recalls Durkheim's concept of anomie: periods of crisis when norms are suspended temporarily destabilise the institution of the family. This observation suggests that economic fluctuations are a source of social stress that triggers divorce decisions.

2. Declining Trend in the US, Selective Marriages

CDC/NCHS (2024) data shows that the divorce rate, which was 5.2/1000 in 1980, fell to 2.4/1000 in 2022. NCFMR (2023) data also shows that the divorce rate per married woman has fallen by 36%. This decline indicates that marriage in the US is becoming an increasingly "filtered" institution, with only the most compatible couples choosing to marry.

However, this decline is unequal: the divorce rate is 30 per cent higher among African American communities than among white communities, while it is lowest among Asian American communities (CDC/NCHS, 2024). Educational attainment emerges as a key factor: the divorce rate among university graduates is 30 per cent lower than among high school graduates. This picture suggests that divorce is also a visible indicator of social inequality and therefore has an important justice dimension in social policy debates.

Nevada, Oklahoma, and Arkansas are the states with the highest divorce rates; Vermont and Massachusetts have the lowest rates (NCFMR, 2023). Furthermore, divorces among those aged 50 and over, known as "grey divorce," have doubled since 1990 and now account for a quarter of all divorces (Brown & Lin, 2012). This development reveals that divorce is no longer just a process experienced by young people, but also by middle-aged and older individuals, and that expectations from relationships persist throughout life.

3. Global Perspective: Comparison with Europe and Asia

Global data confirms that Turkey is in the rising phase of demographic transition, while the United States is in the equilibrium phase. Northern European countries (Sweden, Norway, Denmark) have the highest divorce rates; cohabitation and non-marital birth rates are high, which reduces the social stigma of divorce (Eurostat, 2023). Eastern Europe experienced a rapid increase after 1990 and has now entered a period of equilibrium. East Asia (Japan, South Korea) stands out with a sharp decline in marriage rates and a steady increase in divorce (Raymo et al., 2015). This picture shows that the institution of the family is not universally disintegrating; each society is undergoing transformation within its own cultural and historical context, and therefore divorce should not be treated as a uniform "problem" or "crisis," but as a phenomenon with different meanings in different contexts.

4. Individualisation, Risk and the Reconstruction of Norms

As mentioned above, Beck and Beck-Gernsheim (1995) emphasise that individuals in modern societies design their lives as their own projects. Individualisation in Turkey is painful: while personal happiness is prioritised on the one hand, the family continues to be seen as the foundation of social order on the other (Parsons, 1955). This tension makes the increase in divorce rates not only a matter of individual choice but also a scene of cultural conflicts.

Durkheim (1897) states that the weakening of norms leads to the fragility of social order. The 2018 economic crisis and the fluctuations during the pandemic period are typical examples of these anomic conditions. A similar temporary decline followed by recovery was observed in the 2008 financial crisis in the US (Cohen, 2014). This observation suggests that while crises may temporarily slow divorce, they do not reverse the long-term trend, which maintains the dominant direction of social change.

5. Gender and Feminist Perspective

The increase in women's labour force participation rate in Turkey from 23% in the 2000s to 36% in 2023 has been a decisive factor in divorce decisions (TÜİK, 2023). This indicates that the "exit option" emphasised by feminist theory has become more accessible and that women's capacity to leave unhappy marriages has strengthened.

In the US, OECD (2023) data shows that women experience a 20% loss in income after divorce, compared to 10% for men. Feminist theory therefore views divorce not only as a matter of individual freedom but also as a matter of social justice (Uunk, 2004). This perspective reminds social policymakers that they

must prioritise economic security and child welfare measures for single-parent households.

6. The New Nature of Relationships: Giddens and Bauman

Giddens (1992) states that modern marriages take the form of "pure relationships" and end when satisfaction disappears. The fact that 96% of divorces in Turkey are due to incompatibility seems to support this concept. This suggests that marriages are no longer sustained solely by social pressure but by the continuity of emotional satisfaction, and that individuals are less compelled to remain in unhappy relationships.

Bauman's (2003) description of the "fluid" nature of modern relationships aptly explains how these bonds are formed quickly and dissolved just as rapidly. Social media and dating apps accelerate this process, increasing the fragility of these bonds. This observation suggests that we live in a social order where relationships are formed and dissolved more quickly, and that divorce has become a natural consequence of this new relationship rhythm.

All these findings and theoretical discussions show that divorce is no longer solely the result of individuals' personal decisions, but rather a joint product of social modernisation, economic fluctuations, and cultural norms. When Turkey's rising curve is considered alongside the balanced structure of the United States, it is possible to say that divorce is a transformation progressing at different speeds in different societies but pointing in the same direction. This framework reminds us that we should not view divorce as merely a "crisis" or merely a "story of liberation," but rather as playing a central role in the changing value map of modern societies.

7. Media, Perception and the Post-Truth Era

Social perceptions regarding divorce often overshadow the data. Research shows that 70% of the Turkish public believes that divorce is "increasing very rapidly" (Kaya, Kamil & Eren, Gizem, 2020). However, TÜİK data reveals that the increase is steady and linear. This gap between perception and reality confirms McCombs and Shaw's (1972) agenda-setting theory: the media shapes perception by deciding what we talk about. Programmes broadcast during prime time in Turkey ("Esra Erol'da", "Didem Arslan'la Vazgeçme") present divorce cases in dramatic language and frame divorce as a "social crisis". This dramatisation, as proposed in Noelle-Neumann's (1974) spiral of silence theory, causes voices that view divorce as a normal life event to be pushed into the background. In short, screens reinforce the narrative of crisis and silence normalisation.

Social media further reinforces this perception. On Twitter/X and TikTok, the hashtags #divorce and #newlife reach millions of views, making divorce stories visible. While these contents normalise divorce on the one hand, they amplify the perception of a "divorce explosion" on the other. Algorithmic amplification (Pariser, 2011) leads users to repeatedly see similar content and creates echo chambers. Thus, even if divorce rates remain stable, the perception of a "perpetual crisis" is maintained. This situation demonstrates that in modern societies, emotional resonance and recurring images shape behaviour more than reality.

The picture is similar in the US. Sixty per cent of Pew Research (2023) participants believe divorce is on the rise, yet CDC/NCHS data points to a long-term decline. Popular culture and social media feed this perception: Netflix productions (*Marriage Story*), HBO series (*Divorce*), talk shows, and the #DivorceTok hashtag on TikTok generate millions of pieces of content centred on divorce. These narratives both normalise divorce and increase its visibility.

This is precisely where the concept of post-truth comes into play. Truth often takes a back seat to emotional impact. The public perception of divorce rates is shaped more by news headlines, dramatic television scenes, and viral social media content than by data. People tend to believe what they see, the stories shared, and what is discussed in their social circles. This transforms divorce from merely a demographic phenomenon into a social narrative constantly reproduced by the media.

8. International Comparison

Turkey and the US represent two different historical stages in divorce trends. While divorce rates in Turkey have increased by 58 per cent over the last 15 years (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2024), they have fallen by 50 per cent in the US since 1980 (CDC/NCHS, 2024). This difference reflects not only the figures but also the differing meanings that the two societies attribute to the family: Turkey is still on the "rising curve"; the US has reached the "equilibrium stage".

Demographically, Turkey is in the rising phase of the Second Demographic Transition (Lesthaeghe, 2010). The Marmara and Aegean regions, where female employment is increasing and urbanisation is intensifying, are the leading regions of this transition. In these regions, marriage has evolved into a relationship that must fulfil expectations of emotional satisfaction and personal development, rather than being merely an economic union. In contrast, the low divorce rates in Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia reveal both the economic development gap and the continued strength of traditional family norms. This picture suggests that divorce in Turkey is progressing at different rates across regions and that there are several parallel curves with different social dynamics rather than a single "national" curve.

In the United States, the process has reached a more stable phase. Cohabitation rates reaching 60% (Cherlin, 2020) have made marriage a more selective institution entered into at a later age. States such as Nevada, Oklahoma, and Arkansas have the highest divorce rates, while states such as Massachusetts and Vermont have relatively low rates (NCFMR, 2023). This geographical distribution shows that not only do the numbers differ, but cultural values also vary, and divorce has become a "class" issue. The difference in education is also noteworthy: the divorce rate among university graduates is approximately 30% lower. This suggests that marriage is increasingly becoming a "middle-class norm" and a more stable relationship form among educated groups. The increase in divorces among those over 50 ("grey divorce") in the US is a new social phenomenon that draws attention (Brown & Lin, 2012). This increase shows that, with longer life expectancy, individuals expect more satisfaction from relationships after middle age and are less inclined to remain in unhappy marriages.

As mentioned above, this situation suggests that divorce has become a permanent social reality in Turkey, while marriages have become more selective in the US.

Globally, Northern Europe is one of the regions with the highest divorce rates; high rates of cohabitation and births outside marriage have almost eliminated the social stigma of divorce (Eurostat, 2023). In Western European countries, divorce rates plateaued after the 1990s, family forms diversified, and non-marital cohabitation became commonplace. This situation shows that the concept of family has now become more flexible. Eastern European countries experienced a rapid increase after 1990 and have now reached a more balanced level.

Latin America presents an interesting transition scene on the global divorce map. In Brazil, the divorce rate increased approximately fourfold between 1984 and 2020, with legal changes in 2010 accelerating the divorce process and reinforcing this trend (IBGE, 2021). In Mexico, the divorce rate has increased by more than 60% over the last decade (INEGI, 2023). This rise is indicative not only of legal ease but also of changing social values. This experience in Latin America shows that divorce is not a phenomenon unique to Western European modernity; it emerges in its own cultural rhythm in every geography undergoing social modernisation.

East Asia presents a different story. Divorce rates in Japan and South Korea have doubled since the 1990s but still lag behind Western countries (Raymo et al., 2015). A significant policy intervention in China in recent years has added a new dimension to this picture: the "cooling-off period" policy, which came into effect in 2021, introduced a mandatory 30-day waiting period for divorces by mutual consent. Following this regulation, some provinces saw a 33-42 per cent

drop in divorce registrations (Dong, 2025; Zhang & Wang, 2024). This demonstrates that state policies can significantly slow divorce trends and that family structure is shaped not only by individual preferences but also by legal regulations. However, Dong (2025) and Zhang & Wang (2024) emphasise that only long-term monitoring studies can determine whether this effect is permanent or merely the result of delayed divorce requests; therefore, the next five years will be critical in assessing the true impact of this policy.

When all these data are taken together, it appears likely that Turkey will enter a plateau period over the next decade, similar to that experienced by Western Europe in the 1980s. This means that the rate of increase in divorce will slow down but will become a permanent social norm. In the US, divorce rates are expected to remain flat, but marriage rates among low-income groups are expected to continue to decline (McLanahan, 2020). This picture suggests that family structure will become increasingly class-based and that marriage may become an "institution of the elite." The global picture removes divorce from being a one-way process of increase or decrease; it reminds us that we must view it as a dynamic of social change that emerges at different speeds and in different forms depending on the context.

CONCLUSION

This study has once again demonstrated that divorce is not merely an individual decision; it is one of the most visible mirrors of changes in social structure, economic waves, and cultural norms. Comparisons made in Turkey, the US, and on a global scale show that divorce takes on a different meaning and pace in each society.

In the case of Turkey, rising divorce rates indicate that, on the one hand, modernisation, urbanisation, and women's educational and employment gains are transforming the social fabric; on the other hand, individuals' expectations of marriage have become more relationship-centred. This finding is directly consistent with Beck and Beck-Gernsheim's (1995) thesis of individualisation: individuals now construct their lives as a "personal project" and choose to end an unhappy marriage rather than continue it.

The long-term downward trend in the US can be explained by marriage becoming a more selective institution and the establishment of the "pure relationship" model described by Giddens (1992). Here, marriage continues only as long as it provides emotional satisfaction; when this satisfaction is sustainable, relationships become more enduring, which lowers divorce rates. However, as McLanahan (2020) points out, this selectivity creates inequality across social classes; low-income groups become more vulnerable in both marriage and divorce processes.

At this point, Bauman's (2003) concept of "liquid modernity" offers an important reminder: relationships are becoming increasingly fragile, more transient, and dissolve more quickly. This helps us understand the cultural dynamics behind both the steady increase observed in Turkey and the "grey divorce" phenomenon in the United States. Durkheim's (1897) concept of anomie is still relevant: norm-shaking events such as economic crises and pandemics can weaken the stability of the family institution, leading to spikes in divorce rates.

The differences observed at the global level are consistent with Lesthaeghe's (2010) Second Demographic Transition theory. Northern European countries have reached the plateau phase of this transition and shed the stigma of divorce; Eastern Europe has stabilised after a rapid increase. In East Asia, however, the increase continues, and state policies (such as the mandatory reflection period in China) attempt to slow this process.

One of the most important findings of this study is the difference between divorce rates and perceptions of divorce. In both Turkey and the US, the public believes that divorce is increasing faster than it actually is, due to dramatic media narratives and the algorithmic selectivity of social media. This situation can be explained by McCombs and Shaw's (1972) agenda-setting theory and Noelle-Neumann's (1974) spiral of silence theory: while the media determines which phenomena become visible, different perspectives remain in the background.

Therefore, rather than viewing divorce solely as a "crisis" or a "story of liberation," it must be assessed within the context of individualisation, social inequality, and welfare state policies. Rising divorce rates in Turkey indicate that the family institution is being redefined with new functions and expectations rather than the dissolution of the family structure. To mitigate the negative effects of this process, it is important to strengthen psychosocial support mechanisms, implement child-centred legal regulations, and provide economic support to single-parent households.

For the US, the problem is no longer "excessive divorce" but the class concentration of divorce. Strengthening child support systems for low-income families, expanding premarital education, and reducing social inequalities can limit the destructive effects of divorce.

Globally, the future of divorce will not be solely a matter of population statistics; it will also be shaped at the intersection of social values, media ecosystems, and state policies. We are moving towards a future where the stigma of divorce is diminishing, but family diversity is increasing. Therefore, divorce should not be viewed solely as a sign of social disintegration or solely as a symbol of liberation; it is an inevitable part of modern society. Bauman's emphasis on liquid modernity contributes to our understanding of the accelerating cycle of

divorce, while Durkheim's concept of anomie continues to explain why this cycle becomes more visible in times of crisis.

Ultimately, divorce should be viewed not merely as an individual decision or a sign of crisis, but as a key window into understanding the transformation of modern societies. This perspective is one of the most important foundations that will guide the design of future social policies in Turkey, the US, and globally.

POLICY RECOMMENDATIONS

This study has revealed that divorce is not merely a demographic phenomenon but a multidimensional process arising from the interaction of social structure, economic cycles, and cultural norms. Policy recommendations should therefore be approached in line with this multi-layered perspective.

In the Turkish context, the first step should be to expand family counselling and psychosocial support mechanisms nationwide. Accessible support for both couples and children during the divorce process reduces its debilitating effects and mitigates negative consequences on children's development. Women's economic security emerges as a critical factor: employment incentives and social assistance that reduce the risk of poverty, particularly in single-parent households, will lessen families' vulnerability. Updating joint custody and alimony regulations through child-centred legal reforms will reduce intra-family tension and protect parent-child relationships. Furthermore, projects that increase women's education and employment opportunities in Eastern and Southeastern Anatolia can pave the way for healthier divorce processes by strengthening gender equality.

The fundamental issue for the US is to prevent the class-based concentration of divorce. Expanding income support programmes and accessible childcare services for low-income families can mitigate the impact of the economic shock following divorce. Pre-marital and marital education programmes should be supported by modules that develop communication and conflict resolution skills in particular. Considering the increase in the phenomenon of "grey divorce", support programmes should be developed for individuals over the age of 50, focusing on retirement planning and psychosocial needs.

At the global level, the creation of comprehensive and up-to-date databases tracking divorce trends is a critical need for policymakers. Establishing a "Family and Divorce Observatory" that combines Eurostat, OECD and UNDESA data would provide a strong foundation for comparative analysis and effective social policy design.

The fact that China's "cooling-off period" regulation, implemented in 2021, significantly reduced divorce rates in its first years shows that similar

interventions could be discussed in countries experiencing rising divorce rates, such as Turkey. However, such policies require striking a delicate balance between individual freedoms and the state's social order objectives.

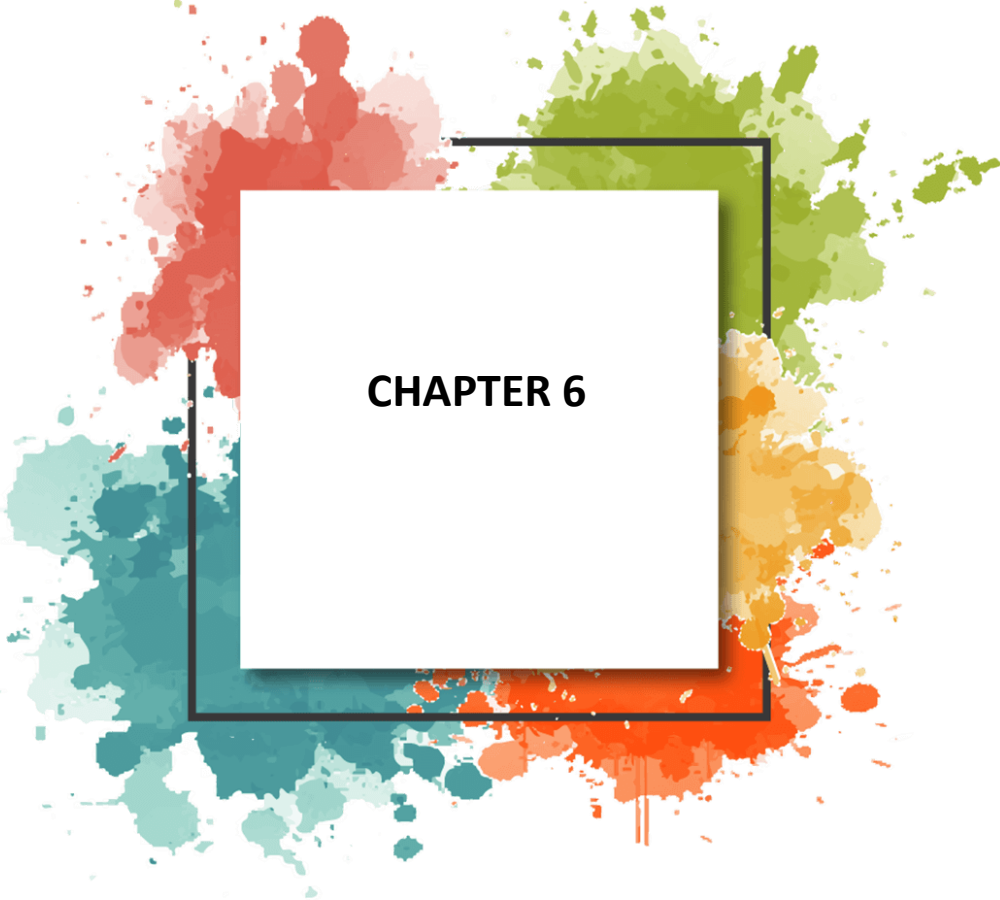
Consequently, both in Turkey and the US, as well as globally, divorce should be viewed not merely as an individual decision but as a focus of social policy. Measures that prioritise the best interests of children, provide economic security, and strengthen media literacy can reduce the social costs of divorce. Thus, while protecting individual freedoms as indicated in Beck and Beck-Gernsheim's individualisation thesis, social stability can also be ensured. This will make it possible not only to prevent divorce but also to design healthy divorce processes.

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CHAPTER 6

A Study On the Language Use of Micro Influencers: Sentiment Analysis

Meltem Sargın⁸

Introduction

With the advancement of technology, a new form of communication has emerged: digital communication. This new phenomenon, which has had an impact on many areas such as advertising, marketing, journalism, and education, has led to significant changes in traditional forms of communication, particularly in the production of spoken and written text, thanks to the possibilities offered by multimedia. While the ease of accessing information has facilitated research and learning, news has begun to spread instantly, advertising and marketing methods have changed, and many people who could once be described as “ordinary” have gained fame through technology and the internet. This paradigmatic change and transformation in the field of communication continues at full speed.

The rapid development of technology and changes in communication have also given rise to new concepts, which in turn have brought new terms into the spotlight. One of these is the term “influencer,” which is used to describe certain individuals who are active on social media. This term, which does not yet have an equivalent in the Turkish Language Association Dictionary (Türk Dil Kurumu Sözlüğü), is defined in the Tureng online dictionary as “a person who can influence a certain audience through their social media channels.” Although a corresponding term has been found in academic studies based on its meaning as “online etkileyici” (Çetintürk, 2024), this term has not replaced the word “influencer”. Today, developments in the field of technology are occurring so rapidly that it is difficult, if not impossible, for the terms coined in this context to gain acceptance due to the establishment of their equivalents in foreign languages (mostly English) (Sargın, 2023, p. 298). For this reason, the term “influencer” is widely used in the context of current Turkish social media.

As can be understood from the above definition, influencers are individuals who operate through social media and appeal to a specific audience, influencing and directing their preferences on certain topics (goods and services). Canöz, Gülmez, and Eroğlu (2020, p. 75) describe influencers' interaction with their followers as follows: “These individuals, who are conditioned to make recommendations about any brand, product, or service, have a loyal following, and their followers trust, believe in, and benefit from their experiences.”

⁸ Assist. Prof. Dr., Dokuz Eylül University, Faculty of Letters, Department of Linguistics
ORCID: 0000-0003-1298-4142

Influencers do not make recommendations to their target audiences for free; they earn income through sponsored posts, affiliate commissions, product sales, giveaways and contests, advertising partnerships, training, and consulting. Influencer marketing, which has become a highly sought-after and popular profession today, is even seen as a career by some: even young children being asked what they want to be when they grow up express their desire to become influencers. This popularity brings competition, with influencers constantly striving to increase their follower counts, outpace other influencers, and stay relevant. For this reason, they try to be the center of attention in many areas, such as their physical attractiveness, unique lifestyles, and the way they interpret events and phenomena (Sepetçi and Birsen, 2023, p. 124).

The recognition that influencers have gained through social media is reminiscent of American painter, publisher, and filmmaker Andy Warhol's wide known words, "Everyone will be famous for 15 minutes" (1968). Today, almost everyone can become famous through social media, but this fame can be very short-lived. Like everything else produced by technology, fame is a phenomenon that can be quickly consumed and can rapidly disappear. Its continuity is only possible through constant effort. Therefore, influencers must produce content every day, sometimes multiple times a day, to keep their followers engaged.

The content produced by influencers on social media can be in different forms such as visual-auditory videos, images or photographs, or even written texts. The linguistic choices made in these texts determine the overall tone of the text, in other words, its style. One way to determine the tone of these texts is sentiment analysis. In recent years, studies examining influencers' posts through sentiment analysis have attracted attention. Rodríguez-Ibáñez, Casáñez-Ventura, and Castejón-Mateos (2023, p. 5) emphasize the intensity of studies on sentiment analysis on social media platforms, noting that 8,349 patents were obtained on this subject between 2016 and 2021 and 2,306 academic articles were published within 15 years. Text analyses conducted through sentiment analysis are related to both systemic linguistics and discourse analysis and contribute to these linguistic fields.

Also known as 'idea mining', sentiment analysis is considered to be a subfield of natural language processing (NLP) and is a text analysis method that focuses on identifying and extracting subjective information from texts (Stine, 2019, pp. 288-289). Analyses conducted through computer software appear to be quite practical in terms of enabling work on large corpora in a short time and are preferred in many fields. A literature review shows that studies on sentiment analysis are largely concentrated in the fields of finance, marketing, and advertising. Tokçae (2021) lists 43 studies conducted between 2012 and 2020 in Turkish literature on different text types through sentiment analysis. In 19 of these studies, Twitter posts were used as texts.

In this study, based on the idea that it could provide insight into how emotions are expressed, manipulated, and shaped by social norms through language in the digital age, the aim is to analyze and interpret the posts of micro-influencers on Instagram through the ChatGPT artificial intelligence model. The use of ChatGPT alone in emotion analysis studies is quite new, with examples in Western literature dating back to 2023. Although there are a few ChatGPT- supported studies in Turkish literature, no research has been found that uses only ChatGPT. From this point of view, it is thought that this study can make contribution to the related literature because it differs from other studies in terms of the corpus used (Instagram posts) and the tool for analysis.

Theoretical Background Sentiment Analysis

Sentiment analysis can be defined as the computational examination of opinions, emotions, and attitudes expressed in texts. It involves analyzing textual data to classify the emotions conveyed by the author. According to Liu, sentiment analysis is “a field of study that analyzes people’s opinions, sentiments, evaluations, appraisals, attitudes, and emotions towards entities such as products, services, organizations, individuals, issues, events, topics, and their attributes” (2012, p. 7). This definition emphasizes that sentiment analysis goes beyond simple polarity classification to include more nuanced emotional states and attitudes.

The sentiment analysis process involves some typical stages, including data collection, preprocessing, feature extraction, and sentiment classification. These steps, which Tan, Lee, and Lim (2023) refer to as the “traditional method,” can be summarized as follows:

1. **Data Collection:** The first step is to collect textual data from sources such as social media, customer reviews, or survey responses. This data is used as input for analysis (Kumar, Khan, and Chang, 2025, p. 6).
2. **Preprocessing:** Text data is often unstructured and noisy, so it needs to be preprocessed to clean and standardize it. Common preprocessing techniques include tokenization, stop word removal, stemming, and lemmatization (Haddi, Liu, and Shi, 2013, p. 27; Singh, Kumar, and Kumar, 2024, p. 743).
3. **Feature Extraction:** Features are extracted to represent the content of the text in a structured format. This process includes bag-of-words models, term frequency-inverse document frequency (TF-IDF), or word embedding methods such as Word2Vec and BERT (Singh et al., 2024, p. 744).
4. **Sentiment Classification:** The final step is to classify the sentiment of the text. Machine learning algorithms such as support vector machines (SVM) and Naive Bayes, as well as deep learning models such as recurrent neural

networks (RNNs) and transformers, are commonly used for this purpose (Patel and Tiwari, 2019, p. 109).

The emotion classification performed in accordance with the above steps is not a classification that includes all emotions possessed by humans, but rather a polarized classification based on word meanings, divided into positive and negative categories. Words and word clusters that do not belong to either pole are labeled as neutral.

Since technology is developing very rapidly, these steps and the technological tools used may change every day. Since this study utilizes ChatGPT, steps 3 and 4 above are performed by artificial intelligence, which is expected to greatly facilitate the work of researchers in social sciences who do not have detailed knowledge of computer science (e.g., coding).

When it comes to the application areas of sentiment analysis, a wide range of studies have been conducted. Some of the most common examples include the following:

Business and Marketing: Companies can use sentiment analysis to monitor customer feedback, assess brand reputation, and improve customer satisfaction. For example, analyzing product reviews can help businesses identify the powerful and weak aspects of the products they offer.

Politics: In political science, sentiment analysis is used to assess opinion of the general public about policies, candidates, and events. Sentiment analysis also plays an important role in predicting election results and understanding voter behavior.

Healthcare: In healthcare, sentiment analysis is used to analyze patient feedback, monitor people's mental health through social media posts, and improve patient care.

Social Media Monitoring: Social media platforms generate large amounts of data every day. Sentiment analysis helps organizations track trends, identify crises, and respond to public sentiment in real time.

In conclusion, sentiment analysis is a powerful tool for comprehending human emotions and opinions expressed in text, leveraging advanced NLP techniques and machine learning algorithms to derive actionable insights from unstructured (natural language text) data.

Corpus

The corpus of this study was compiled from publicly accessible posts by micro-influencers active on Instagram. Influencers with between 1,000 and 100,000 followers are referred to as micro-influencers. Influencers are generally classified according to their number of followers, as shown in Table 1:

Table 1. Influencer rankings based on follower count.

Influencer ranking	Follower count
Nano influencer	1,000-10,000
Micro influencer	10,000-100,000
Macro influencer	100,000-1,000,000
Mega influencer	1,000,000 +

It is stated that micro-influencers generally have a smaller but more loyal follower base and that their posts have higher engagement rates (Kay, Mulcahy, and Parkinson, 2020). This situation shows that their messages may be more effective on their followers. In addition, micro-influencers are generally perceived as more sincere and trustworthy, and unlike influencers with larger followings, they are able to establish a more personal connection with their followers (Kwiatek, Baltezarević, & Papakonstantinidis, 2021). These characteristics suggest that their discourse may be influential on social norms and individual behavior, making them a suitable group for study. Based on this point, for this study, a total of 9,192 words were (manually) obtained from the posts of nine micro-influencers, three for each niche (field) of food, fashion, and travel. The hashtags and emojis in the posts were removed (manually) and only the text portions were used. The micro-influencers whose posts were used in the study along with their niches, follower counts, and the word counts of their post texts, are shown in Table 2:

Table 2. The influencers, follower counts, and number of words in posts.

Niche	Influencer	Follower count	# of words in posts
FOOD	@adagulsoyy	38,600	1048
	@cansuccirakoglu	50,100	1017
	@selinldeniss	46,400	1020
FASHION	@dressfashionablyy	21,000	1001
	@modahangisi	43,900	1006
	@ilosloves	24,200	1003
TRAVEL	@seyahatozgurlestirir	13,000	1069
	@kesfedirem	23,800	1014
	@goklerinnuru	29,400	1014
			Total 9192

The corpus created as described above was processed using the following methods and processes to obtain qualitative and quantitative findings.

Method and Process

In this study, a two-stage method was followed using a corpus linguistic approach. In the first stage, a text corpus was created from the Instagram posts of micro-influencers selected as described above under the heading “Corpus.” Corpus linguistics, a field of applied linguistics, is defined as a methodology that aims to analyze large collections of spoken and written texts prepared to represent specific language domains using computer technology (Keck, 2013, p. 1). The corpus linguistic approach enables systematic analysis of large numbers of texts, thereby objectively identifying the linguistic patterns and themes that emerge in the posts. In particular, studies conducted on large corpora save time and effort.

In the second stage, sentiment analysis was applied to the corpus created. Through sentiment analysis, it was determined whether the expressions in the posts were positive, negative, or neutral, thus revealing the emotional tendencies of the texts. Qualitative and quantitative findings were obtained as a result of this

analysis. ChatGPT was used for sentiment analysis instead of the tools used in traditional methods. Fatouros et al. (2023) report that their sentiment analysis in the field of finance using ChatGPT showed approximately 35% better performance than finBERT, a well-known sentiment analysis model in this field, and was 36% more correlated with market reports. For this reason and due to its practicality, ChatGPT was preferred for this study. The 4o version of ChatGPT was used.

By using these two methods together, both the linguistic features and emotional content of micro-influencer posts were evaluated. Similar methodological approaches have been shown to yield effective results in the literature (e.g., Alnawas and Arıcı, 2018).

As explained in the section above, influencer posts stripped of hashtags and emojis were pasted under the headings of food, fashion, and travel, including the influencers' usernames, to create a file. This file was uploaded to ChatGPT (on April 15, 2025) and given the following prompt:

“I want you to perform sentiment analysis. There are influencers in the file. It will be separate for each one. There are 9 people with approximately 1,000 words of data in the file. Can you analyze them one by one by name?”

ChatGPT, after answering “Yes, I have reviewed your file in detail. Currently, the content of the top three influencers (e.g., @adagulsoyy, @cancuccirakoglu, @selinldeniss) is fully visible. Each one contains approximately 1,000 words of data. I will now begin conducting separate sentiment analyses (ratios of positive, neutral, and negative sentiments, as well as overall tone) for each influencer. I will start with @adagulsoyy first, then continue with the other influencers in order. If you're ready, I'll get started.” started analyzing and quickly listed the findings it had obtained.

Findings

The findings presented by ChatGPT as a result of its sentiment analysis contain both qualitative and quantitative information for each influencer. The results of the analysis conducted for all influencers' posts in the corpus include the following subheadings: general content, positive sentiment ratio, neutral sentiment ratio, negative sentiment ratio, and general tone. The quantitative results of the analysis are shown in Table 3:

Table 3. Quantitative findings obtained from the analysis.

Niche	Influencer	Follower count	# of words in posts
FOOD	@adagulsoyy	38,600	1048
	@cansuccirakoglu	50,100	1017
	@selinldeniss	46,400	1020
FASHION	@dressfashionablyy	21,000	1001
	@modahangisi	43,900	1006
	@ilosloves	24,200	1003
TRAVEL	@seyahatozgurlestirir	13,000	1069
	@kesfedirem	23,800	1014
	@goklerinnuru	29,400	1014
			Total 9192

As can be seen, influencers' posts contain a largely positive language use, ranging from 65% to 90% in terms of emotion. Neutral language use ranges from 10% to 35%, while negative language use is not found in 5 out of 9 influencers, and ranges from 2% to 5% in the others. Although the prompt given to ChatGPT did not request that it provide results in percentage terms, the fact that it did so, provided qualitative examples, and made comments on the overall tone of the text indicates that it had previously been trained in sentiment analysis and had performed such tasks.

To illustrate the qualitative and quantitative information provided by ChatGPT as a result of sentiment analysis, it may be helpful to look at the highest percentage of positive, neutral, and negative influencer posts. The following examples (translated word for word from Turkish into English) were taken directly from ChatGPT's response:

Example (1)

@dressfashionablyy – Sentiment Analysis

General content: Clothing recommendations, product suggestions, outfit ideas; a language that reflects trends with lots of repetitive phrases.

Positive emotion ratio: %90

Expressions conveying intense positive emotions such as “I fell in love,” “I’m crazy about it,” “it’s wonderful,” “I love it,” “it’s perfect for summer,” and “it has a wonderful vibe” are frequently used.

Neutral emotion ratio: %10

Product links, combination descriptions, and store information contain little emotional expression and have an informative tone.

Negative emotion ratio: %0

There are no critical or negative statements.

Overall tone: There is an overly positive, enthusiastic, and repetitive emphasis on liking the products. The aim is to get followers to like the products and engage with them.

Example (2)

@modahangisi – Sentiment Analysis

General content: Analysis of TV series characters' and celebrities' outfits, brand information, prices, and collaborations.

Positive sentiment ratio: 65%

There is a moderate positive tone, such as “I really like the outfit,” “great brand,” “which one is your favorite?,” and “so cute.”

Neutral sentiment ratio: 35%

The language is informative and impartial, focusing on brand information, prices, and references from TV shows.

Negative sentiment ratio: 0%

There is no direct criticism or negative attitude, and even potentially controversial topics are left neutral.

Overall tone: Presented in an information-focused, slightly positive style. More impartial than other fashion influencers, with a narrative style close to “news language.”

Example (3)

@kesfedirem – Sentiment Analysis

General content: Travel-focused, sincere, and emotional posts mixed with daily life and personal insights.

Positive emotion ratio: 75%

Expressions such as “I am grateful,” “sweet memories with wonderful people,” “I rejuvenated myself with a pleasant trip,” and “a more motivated and sustainable routine” create positive content.

Neutral emotion ratio: 20%

Informative notes, city and travel information, flight memories, etc. Negative emotion ratio: 5%

Honest expressions about exhausting periods, such as “Can you tell I haven't slept for three days?” and “I locked myself in the house.”

Overall Tone: Heartfelt, personal, hopeful, and transformative. The style is motivational and empathetic toward the reader.

As can be seen, ChatGPT has presented information that was not included in the prompt but is important for research in an analytical manner, organized under subheadings, without the need for a new prompt.

Discussion and Conclusion

In the quantitative findings obtained from the sentiment analysis employed in our study, the fact that the use of language indicating positive sentiment is significantly higher than other criteria is considered an expected result when viewed in terms of text type. It is thought that the high proportion of positive tone in the posts produced by micro-influencers is a result of the persuasion and encouragement strategies employed. Since the primary goal of influencers is to market various goods and services, they aim to establish a close relationship with their followers by using sincere, everyday language. The fact that negative linguistic choices are not found in more than half of influencers is also considered to serve the same purpose, and this situation is expressed by ChatGPT as “No complaints, negative evaluations, or negative language are used” or “There is no direct criticism or negative attitude, and even potentially controversial topics are left neutral.” Even the very low percentage of negative expressions is interpreted as “polite, constructive, and experiential negativity” or “does not convey a negative emotion beyond a few minor negative observations.” The qualitative and quantitative findings obtained for each influencer were ultimately analyzed by ChatGPT to determine the overall tone of the posts.

Looking at the qualitative findings of the study, it can be seen that the analysis is not only based on words, but it also uses word clusters and sentences as units of analysis. Additionally, the example it provides for negative sentiment, “the color wasn't perfect,” demonstrates that it does not immediately label the word ‘perfect’ as positive when it sees it, but rather identifies that it is negated by the verb “wasn't,” thereby performing context-sensitive analysis. The example “Very rarely, there are expressions that contain negative connotations but are

turned into positive ones, such as ‘it scattered but it wasn't a problem.’” similarly demonstrates that ChatGPT can identify a situation that is negative but can be accepted as positive due to context.

Furthermore, the phrases “excessively positive” used in ChatGPT's general tone analysis in Example (1) and “slightly positive” and “constructive and experiential negativity but soft tone” found in other findings show that it can grade qualities beyond a polar (positive-negative) assessment in sentiment analysis.

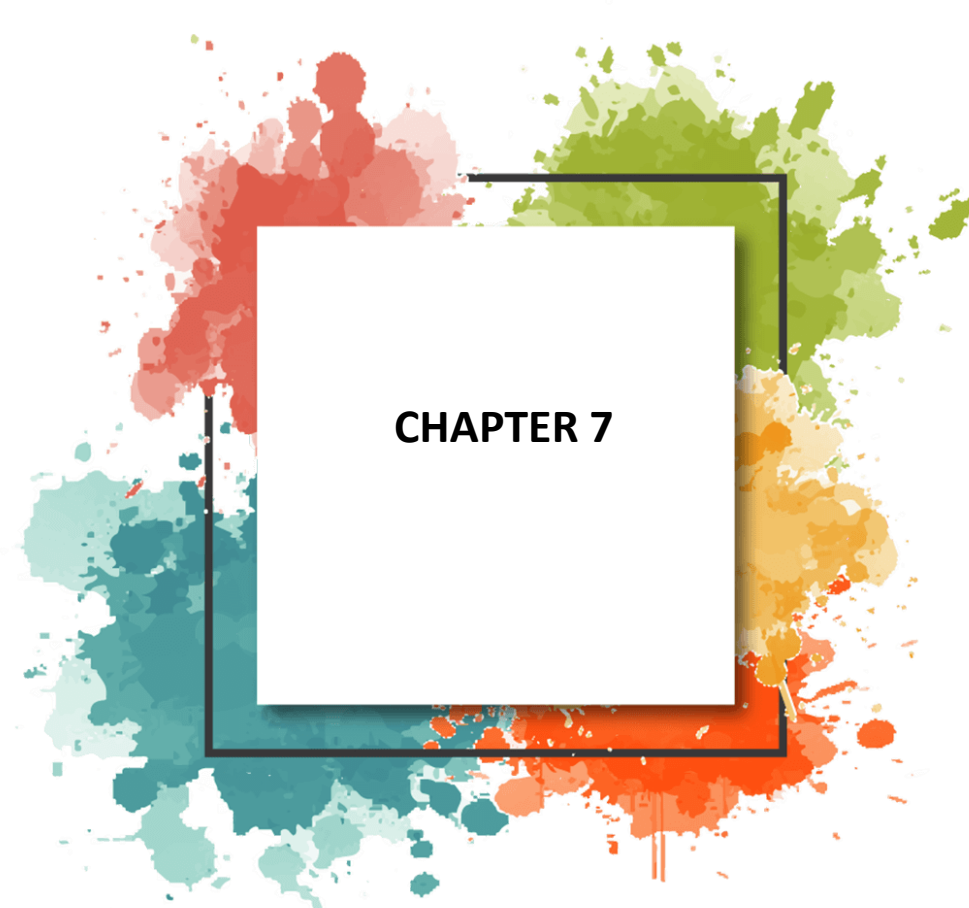
In conclusion, the findings of the study suggest that the language used in micro-influencers' posts is overwhelmingly positive, serving the purpose of persuading followers, establishing rapport with them, maintaining their interest, and increasing the number of followers. The fact that this information was obtained through sentiment analysis using ChatGPT demonstrates that it is possible to utilize artificial intelligence in text analysis. As a result, it is evident that ChatGPT successfully performs sentiment analysis. With this feature, it is understood that ChatGPT can be utilized in text and discourse studies, especially when working on large corpora, and that this will save researchers time and effort.

As further research, it is thought that sentiment analysis can be performed on comments made on influencer posts, and that posts can be compared with comments. In addition, sentiment analysis can be applied to different types of text, especially political texts, to reveal the attitudes of political figures, and moreover, such texts can be edited to sound in the desired tone.

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CHAPTER 7

The Rule of Law and The Fight Against Corruption: Impacts On Welfare – A Comparison Between Turkiye and Finland

Yağmur Akarsu¹

INTRODUCTION

In addition to individual well-being, the sustainability of social well-being is not limited to economic indicators alone but also depends on strong institutional structures, the rule of law, democracy, and anti-corruption mechanisms. Particularly in developing countries, economic growth enables welfare to be distributed fairly, fosters a sense of trust among individuals, and increases levels of social happiness. In addition, the rule of law and the will to fight corruption also affect individuals' happiness (North, 1990). The tourism sector, for instance, also relies on a stable and trustworthy environment to thrive, as a nation's competitiveness is dependent on its industries' capacity for innovation and growth (Büyük & Gümüştekin, 2017), which is particularly important in fields such as thermal tourism (Büyük & Akkuş, 2022). In this context, it is observed that welfare indicators are more positive in countries where the law is administered fairly, corruption is absent, and accountability and transparency are high (Kaufmann et al. 2010).

The rule of law demonstrates that all organs of the state and individuals must comply with pre-established rules. It also reflects individuals' trust in legal regulations (O'Donnell, 2004). This indicator enables the provision of social welfare by ensuring individual freedoms. In this context, uncertainty prevails in countries where the rule of law is weak, and citizens' trust in the state diminishes, leading to social unrest (Acemoglu and Robinson, 2012).

One of the greatest indicators threatening the rule of law is corruption. In this context, actions such as bribery, favoritism, and embezzlement not only cause economic losses but also damage individuals' trust in the state (Nye, 1967).

Many economists argue that linking well-being with income alone and ignoring other factors prevents happiness economics studies from reaching entirely accurate conclusions. This idea is based on the notion that well-being is a more comprehensive concept and can be influenced by multiple factors. Studies on happiness or subjective well-being rely on the concepts of utility and well-being, rather than rational or irrational economic behavior, to determine economic behavior (Maslow, 1943; Stiglitz et al., 2009; Clark, 2018). From this

¹ Lecturer, Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Orcid: 0000-0002-9277-5019

perspective, individuals in societies where the rule of law prevails and corruption is low will have higher levels of both economic and subjective well-being (Helliwell et al., 2023).

Strong institutional structures, transparency within these structures, and the prevention of corruption not only support economic growth but also actively contribute to the principles of justice, trust, and equality, thereby fostering social welfare. In this context, the rule of law and corruption indicators are fundamental variables that should not be disregarded in welfare analyses. Based on this, the study will compare the rule of law, corruption, and welfare levels in Finland, which has had the highest level of happiness for many years, and Türkiye, which has a medium level of happiness.

In conclusion, the rule of law and the fight against corruption are critical to the sustainability of social welfare. Therefore, institutional indicators must be taken into account in welfare analyses, and recommendations developed in light of these findings should guide public policies and aim to achieve outcomes that enhance social welfare.

THE RULE OF LAW, CORRUPTION, AND WELL-BEING INDICATORS IN TÜRKİYE AND FINLAND

In measuring the well-being levels of individuals and societies, indicators such as income, consumption, and economic growth have been used as a basis. But these indicators have proven insufficient over time in explaining both individuals' life satisfaction and societies' well-being. At this point, studies have shown that the strength of institutional structures in the places where individuals live is also associated with an increase in their subjective well-being (Bjørnskov et al. 2010; Tay et al. 2014; Spruk, Kešeljevic, 2016; Villanueva et al. 2022). Djankov et al. (2016) highlighted the importance of institutional factors on happiness by linking individuals' low life satisfaction to high perceptions of corruption and weak government performance. Similarly, Altman, Flavin, and Radcliff (2017) show that democratic institutions significantly increase individuals' life satisfaction. Helliwell, Huang, and Wang (2020) emphasize in their study that government quality and the rule of law have a decisive impact on happiness. In this context, the concept of the happiness economy draws attention to the impact of institutional factors such as the rule of law, corruption, voice and accountability, and political stability, as well as economic factors, on individuals' subjective well-being. Therefore, comparing the rule of law, corruption, and welfare indicators in the cases of Türkiye and Finland is important for understanding the institutional dimension of the economics of happiness.

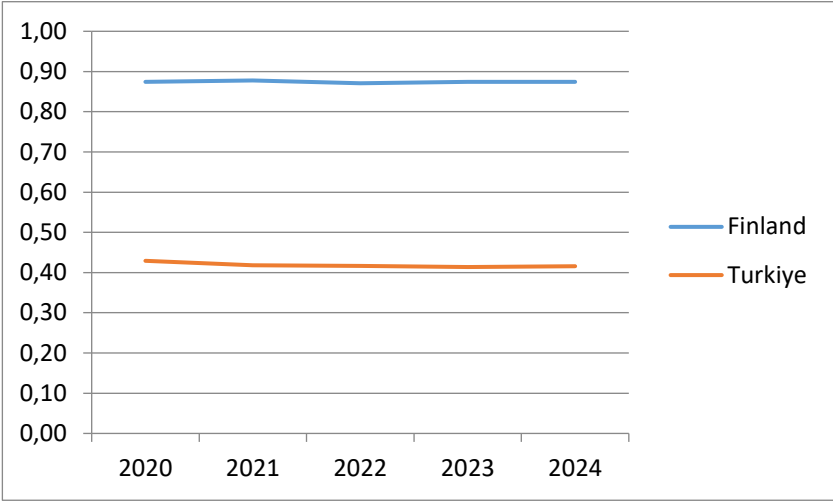
Table 1: Happiness, Corruption, and Rule of Law Indicators in Türkiye and Finland (2020–2024)

	<u>Türkiye</u>		<u>Finland</u>		<u>Türkiye</u>		<u>Finland</u>		<u>Türkiye</u>		<u>Finland</u>	
	World Happiness Index				Corruption Perceptions Index				Rule of Law Index			
	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Ranking</u>
2020	4,95	105	7,84	1	40	86	85	3	0,43	107	0,87	3
2021	4,74	112	7,82	1	38	96	88	1	0,42	117	0,88	3
2022	4,61	106	7,80	1	36	101	87	2	0,42	116	0,87	3
2023	4,98	98	7,74	1	34	115	87	2	0,41	117	0,87	3
2024	5,26	94	7,74	1	34	107	88	2	0,42	117	0,87	3

Source: Compiled by the author

Table 1 compares indicators of corruption, rule of law, and happiness in Türkiye and Finland between 2020 and 2024. The World Happiness Index scores range from 0 to 10. High scores indicate that individuals are satisfied with their lives, while low scores indicate that individuals do not feel happy. In this context, Türkiye ranked 105th in the World Happiness Index in 2020 with a score of 4.95, while by 2024, it had risen to 94th place with a score of 5.26. Finland has consistently ranked first in the relevant years. The corruption perception index ranges from 0 to 100, with high scores indicating low perceived corruption in the country and low scores indicating high perceived corruption. In this context, when examining the corruption perception index, Türkiye ranked 86th with 40 points in 2020, while by 2024, it had declined to 107th place with 34 points. Finland continued to maintain its position in the top three with a score between 85 and 88 points during the same period. Finally, the rule of law index takes values between 0 and 1, with values close to 1 indicating a strong rule of law and values close to 0 indicating a weak rule of law. In this context, Türkiye fell from 107th to 117th place in the rule of law index, scoring between 0.41 and 0.43 points in the relevant years, while Finland maintained its position in 3rd place, scoring between 0.87 and 0.88 points. This table shows that Türkiye performed poorly in terms of happiness, perceived corruption, and rule of law indicators, while Finland consistently ranked high in all indicators. Therefore, these indicators also reveal that institutional structures and governance quality play a decisive role in the happiness and well-being of individuals and societies. Previous research also supports that income inequality may affect human development and welfare levels. For instance, Günay & Topbaş (2021) found that while economic growth positively impacts HDI in BRICS countries, the effect of income inequality differs by country.

Figure 1: Comparison of Rule of Law Index Scores in Turkiye and Finland (2020–2024)

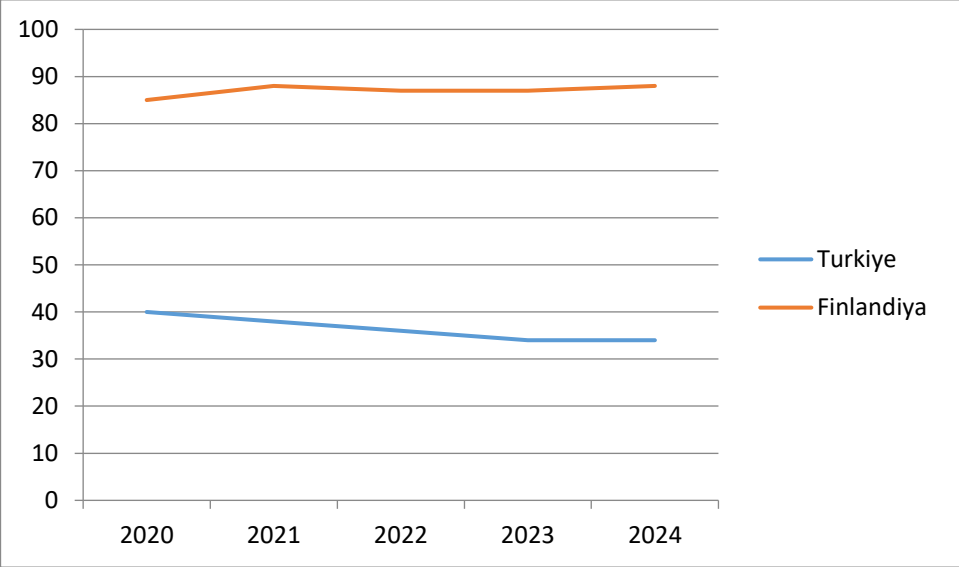


Source:

<https://www.worldjusticeproject.org/>

Figure 1 shows a comparison of the rule of law index in Turkiye and Finland between 2020 and 2024. The graph allows for a clear demonstration of the differences in the rule of law index data shown in Table 1 for both countries. The horizontal axis shows the years, while the vertical axis shows the rule of law index scores. In this context, Turkiye shows low performance in the rule of law with a value range of 0.41-0.43, while Finland maintains its stability and continues to rank high.

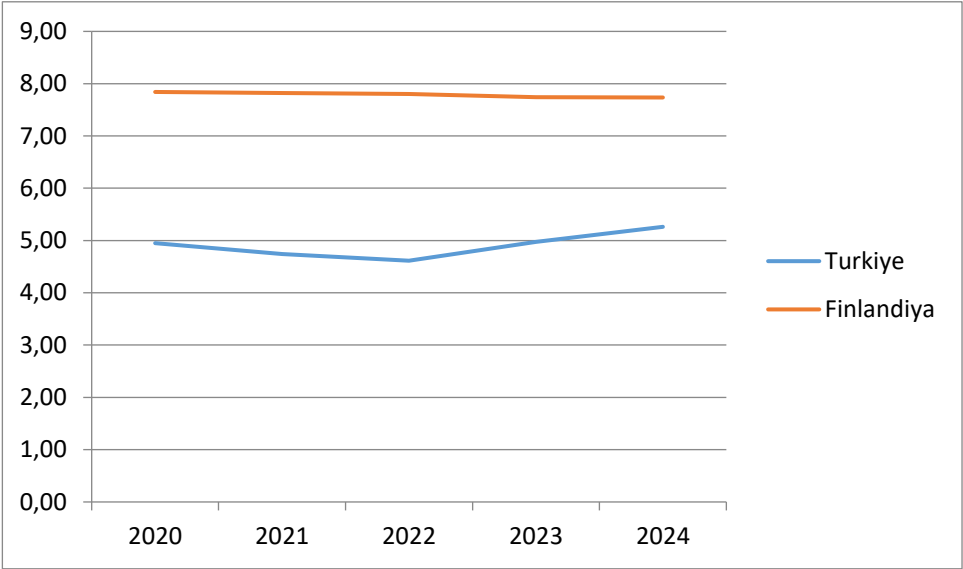
Figure 2: Comparison of Turkiye and Finland's Corruption Perceptions Index Scores (2020–2024)



Source: <https://www.transparency.org/>

Figure 2 compares the corruption perception index scores of Turkiye and Finland between 2020 and 2024. As can be seen from the graph, Turkiye's corruption perception index score started at 40 in 2020 and declined over the years, falling to 34 in 2024. This indicates that, during the period of comparison, individuals in the country perceived an increase in corruption and a decline in trust in the authorities. Finland, on the other hand, maintained its stability in the 85–88 point range during the same period, ranking among the countries with the lowest perception of corruption.

Figure 3: Comparison of Turkiye and Finland's World Happiness Index Scores (2020–2024)



Source: <https://data.worldhappiness.report/table>

Figure 3 shows a comparative analysis of Turkiye and Finland's world happiness index scores between 2020 and 2024. Accordingly, Turkiye remained at a moderate happiness level with a score of 4.95 in 2020; it entered a recovery process in 2023, raising its score to 4.98 and then to 5.26 the following year. In comparison, Finland remained in the 7.74–7.84 point range during the relevant years, maintaining its position as the country with the highest level of happiness in the world.

The tables and graphs obtained show that the results between Turkiye and Finland are not limited to the indicators provided, but that different indicators also have a significant impact on the subjective well-being of individuals and societies (Diener, 1984; Veenhoven, 1993; Frey and Stutzer, 2000; Di Tella et al., 2001; Easterlin, 2003; Easterlin, 2006; Pavot and Diener, 2008; Jagodzinski, 2011; Levinson, 2012; Hancock, 2013; Pacek et al., 2019; Easterlin and O'Connor 2022; Stutzer et al., 2025). In this context, Finland's ranking first in the World Happiness Report since 2018 is primarily due to the rule of law and the fight against corruption. However, it is also based on the existence of strong institutions, the prevalence of democracy, an effective and fair legal system, and a transparent and accountable management approach. Furthermore, happiness levels may increase in line with the trust that society has in the state. Turkiye's

lower levels in the same indicators can be attributed to its institutional structure not being strong enough compared to Finland, fluctuations in governance quality, political and economic uncertainties, and the resulting weak social trust. Therefore, from the perspective of the economics of happiness, institutional factors such as the rule of law, the fight against corruption, and the quality of governance are considered key determinants in shaping individuals' subjective well-being.

CONCLUSION

The sustainability of individual and social well-being and the resulting increase in happiness cannot be explained solely by economic indicators. A review of the literature on the economics of happiness reveals that many studies suggest happiness cannot be explained solely by income or economic indicators. In this context, social and institutional indicators, as well as economic indicators, come to the fore in individuals' subjective well-being. Among the most important indicators affecting subjective well-being are institutional indicators such as the rule of law, the fight against corruption, democracy, voice and accountability, and the quality of governance. In countries where institutions operate in a fair, just, transparent, and accountable manner, both individuals' subjective happiness levels and social welfare indicators are more positive. Conversely, in societies where the rule of law is weak, social trust is absent, and corruption is widespread, a decline in life satisfaction is inevitable. Therefore, to understand the institutional dimension of the happiness economy and make it operational, it is necessary to compare countries with different institutional structures.

This study examines the examples of Türkiye and Finland, demonstrating that the economics of happiness is not limited to economic indicators such as income; institutional factors such as the rule of law, perception of corruption, and quality of governance also have a meaningful impact on individuals' subjective well-being. The research results show that Finland consistently ranks at the top in terms of happiness, corruption, and rule of law indicators. In contrast, Türkiye's relatively low performance during the relevant periods can be attributed to weak institutional structures and insufficient social trust due to political and economic uncertainties. Therefore, the results of this research conducted in the context of the happiness economy show that the path to increasing individuals' life satisfaction does not lie solely in economic growth. Finland's position at the top of the happiness rankings since 2018 clearly demonstrates the existence of strong institutions and a well-functioning governance system.

For Türkiye to rank higher in indicators of happiness, corruption, and the rule of law, comprehensive policies aimed at strengthening institutional structures are needed. In this context, judicial independence must be guaranteed and the justice system must be organized in a way that contributes to increasing social trust in

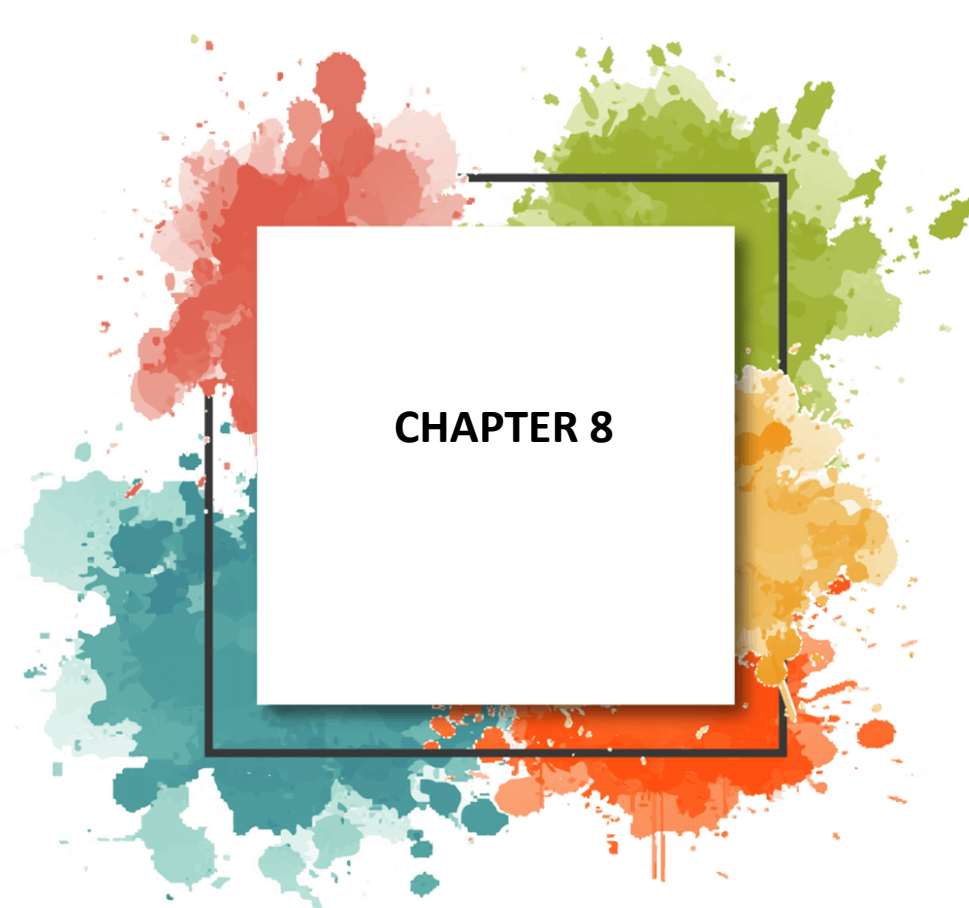
order to ensure the rule of law. Furthermore, the implementation of the principles of transparency and accountability in the fight against corruption and the effective and fair distribution of public resources will strengthen individuals' trust in the state. Strengthening democratic participation will improve governance quality by enabling individuals to participate effectively in decision-making processes and will have a positive impact on the subjective well-being of individuals first and then society. Finally, in countries where there is economic growth but no fair income distribution, even if economic growth is high, this wealth will not have a positive impact on individuals' subjective well-being unless it is shared equally. The implementation of these comprehensive policies will play a decisive role in increasing both Türkiye's institutional quality and individuals' levels of happiness.

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CHAPTER 8

The Impact of Neet Status on Risky Behaviors and Mental Health Among Youth: A Case From Türkiye

Banu BEYAZ SİPAHİ¹

INTRODUCTION

The economy places significant importance on addressing youth unemployment within labor markets. In recent years, however, these efforts have expanded to encompass not only unemployed youth but also young individuals who are neither in education nor employment. The young population, which plays a critical role in social and economic development, represents a valuable resource for countries. According to the Demographic Transition Theory, in countries where youth dominate the demographic structure, individuals within this group often face considerable barriers in accessing education and employment opportunities. Such challenges hinder both individual development and societal progress, thereby limiting potential economic contributions (Tansel, 2012).

The uncertainty of economic conditions has disheartened many young individuals and further complicated the school-to-work transition. Those lacking access to educational or employment opportunities, as well as school dropouts, have been particularly affected. In the literature, such individuals are commonly defined as “NEET” – Not in Education, Employment, or Training. However, much of the existing literature tends to oversimplify this group by portraying them merely as unemployed and inactive individuals (ILO, 2015).

The NEET population is far from homogeneous; their exclusion can stem from a variety of factors including low educational attainment, regional disparities, socioeconomic disadvantages, or adverse childhood experiences. Globally, the NEET rate rose from 22.9% in 2019 to 24.9% in 2020. Although it decreased to 23.5% in 2022, it remains historically high. In Türkiye, the NEET rate significantly increased during periods of economic contraction, rising from 21.9% in 2018 to 27.1% in 2020 (ILO, 2023).

In Türkiye, low levels of educational attainment further complicate the NEET phenomenon. Despite the existence of compulsory education, schooling

¹ Doç. Dr., Tarsus Üniversitesi Uygulama Bilimler Fakültesi/Sağlık Yönetimi Bölümü, ORCID: 0000-0002-5242-5049

continues to be a key determinant of NEET status. The tertiary education graduation rate in Türkiye rose from 12% in 2008 to 87.1% in 2019, ranking 11th among OECD countries. According to the 2021 Turkish Family Structure Survey, 7.6% of youth aged 15–24 dropped out of school despite their desire to continue. Early school leaving shapes the structure of NEET youth in Türkiye and has drawn considerable international attention (Eraslan & Gülseçen, 2023). This study focuses on the relationship between NEET status, mental health, and risky health behaviors among youth aged 15–29, in line with the OECD definition of youth.

Although international research has increasingly examined the association between NEET status and mental health risks—such as depression, anxiety, and substance use (e.g., Gariépy et al., 2022; O’Dea et al., 2016)—empirical evidence from developing countries, including Türkiye, remains limited. The earlier studies by Karaoglan et al. (2022, 2023) were among the first to explore this issue using the Türkiye Health Survey (THS). However, these studies did not incorporate the most recent data and failed to consider family-level behavioral variables. Furthermore, they did not sufficiently examine the role of risky health behaviors such as tobacco use, alcohol consumption, and body mass index (BMI) as mediating factors in the relationship between NEET status and mental health outcomes.

This study aims to fill these gaps by utilizing the 2014, 2016, 2019, and 2022 waves of the Türkiye Health Survey. In addition to providing a post-pandemic update, the study introduces explanatory variables that have often been neglected in previous research—such as parental alcohol use, parental education level, and household size. These additions allow for a more comprehensive understanding of how family environment and health-related behaviors interact with youth exclusion and mental well-being in a developing country context.

To analyze these complex relationships, a bivariate probit model is employed. This econometric approach enables the simultaneous estimation of NEET status and mental health outcomes, while accounting for the correlation between the error terms of the two equations. In doing so, it helps address the potential bias that may arise due to unobserved common factors influencing both outcomes, thereby providing more reliable estimates under potential endogeneity.

The findings of the study reveal how barriers to youth participation in education and the labor market in Türkiye are associated with mental health problems, risky health behaviors, socio-demographic variables, adverse childhood experiences, and parental education. The results are expected to contribute to the development of national and international youth policies aimed at reintegrating NEET individuals into society and reducing NEET rates.

LITERATURE REVIEW

NEETs may face health issues due to limited skill development and social connections. NEET impacts economic, social, and health dimensions (Bania et al., 2019). In 2019, depression and anxiety led to 12 billion lost workdays, costing the global economy \$1 trillion, a figure projected to reach \$6 trillion by 2030. The Covid-19 pandemic increased global anxiety and depression cases by 25%, exposing mental health resource shortages. In 2020, governments allocated only 2% of health budgets to mental health (WHO, 2022).

NEET youth face unemployment, economic struggles, social isolation, and future uncertainty, all harming mental health. Assessing mental health risks associated with NEET status and socioeconomic factors is important for the economic development level of countries. NEET rates vary between developed and developing nations (Bagio et al., 2015).

The existing literature on the relationship between NEET status and mental health disorders generally relies on evidence from developed countries. Given the limited evidence from developing countries and the lack of detailed studies on NEET in the literature, investigating the impact of NEET status on young individuals' mental health is particularly important. This is especially relevant for Türkiye, a middle-income developing country with high NEET rates. Gariépy et al. (2022) explored the link between NEET status, mental health, and substance use, finding that early mental health issues heighten NEET risk—aligning with studies by Goldman-Mellor et al. (2016), López-López et al. (2020), O'Dea et al. (2016), and Rodwell et al. (2018). Hale et al. (2015) reviewed poor mental and physical health connections, while Clayborne et al. (2019) examined depression's negative impact on youth education and employment. Lindhardt et al. (2022) highlighted psychosis cases among NEET youth. The mentioned studies have not considered family, environmental, and social factors. They show that NEET youth are faced with higher mental health risks compared to their peers (Feng et al., 2015; O'Dea et al., 2016; Basta et al., 2019). Minh et al. (2023) examined the relationship between adolescent mental health and NEET was examined. Given the assumption that gender may influence this relationship, separate analyses were conducted for males and females. The study found that the relationship between mental health and NEET was significant for males, with education level playing a role in this process—specifically, lower educational attainment contributing to a higher risk of NEET.

Numerous studies in the literature investigate the relationship between NEET status and socio-economic as well as demographic factors. For example, the relationship between education level and NEET was examined by Alcazar et al. (2020), Avagianou et al. (2022), Bania et al. (2019) and Maguire (2018); while the relationship with living conditions was examined by Abayasekara &

Gunasekara (2019), Andrade & Jarvinen (2017), Avagianou et al. (2022) and Baggio et al. (2015). The relationship with housing structure has been explored by Bradley & Crouchley (2020), Lindemann & Gangl (2019), Dorsett & Lucchino (2014) and Genda (2007). Examples of studies examining factors such as household structure, number of children, marital status, household income level, family background and health problems include Alvarado et al. (2020), Mansuy & Werquin (2018), Akinyemi & Mushunje (2017), Dorsett & Lucchino (2014), Mendolia & Walker (2015), and Genda (2007). Additionally, studies addressing risky health behaviors include Caroleo et al. (2020), Abayasekara & Gunasekara (2019), Lallukka et al. (2019), Akinyemi & Mushunje (2017), Andrade & Jarvinen (2017), and O'Dea et al. (2016). These studies offer a broad perspective on the NEET concept and help us understand the relationship between NEET and socio-economic and demographic factors. Recently, studies have also addressed the mental health issues faced by NEET individuals in the context of the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic (Kvieskienė et al., 2021; Quinlan-Davidson et al., 2023).

Considering the Turkish literature, Karaoğlu et al. (2022) conducted the first study investigating mental health problems among young people in Türkiye. This study used multivariate logistic regression analysis to examine the association between NEET status and mental health problems, risky health behaviors (e.g. smoking and alcohol consumption), obesity, and parental socioeconomic status. The findings of the study found no significant relationship between NEET status and risky health behaviors. Karaoğlu et al. (2023) addressed the issue from a different perspective using the same data set. They addressed the endogeneity and heterogeneity between the probability of being NEET and the probability of experiencing mental health disorders with the bivariate probit model. In the studies by Kılıç (2014) and Erdoğan et al. (2017), the NEET status of young people aged 15-24 was examined, focusing solely on the relationship with socio-demographic variables.

METHODOLOGY

Young individuals NEETs represent a remarkably varied cohort, exhibiting a wide range of characteristics and distinct requirements concerning facilitating their effective incorporation into the workforce. Acknowledging this diversity is a crucial aspect in devising suitable interventions and has resulted in the concept itself being questioned as a foundation for intervention (Furlong, 2006). The diversity among NEETs also extends to their susceptibility to social and economic exclusion, which is expected to fluctuate not only across different "types" of NEET but also over time and across different locations.

Investigating the relationship between NEET status and mental health among Turkish youth, our analysis leverages the Turkish Health Surveys data

2014,2016,2019 and 2022 through a bivariate probit model. This methodological choice allows for the examination of NEET status's impact on mental health, considering both visible and hidden factors. Such insights aim to inform more nuanced policy interventions. Standard probit/logit models can be inadequate and yield misleading results in the presence of self-selection bias. This arises from the assumption that the decision to be in the treatment group (e.g., NEET status) is independent of the outcome variable (e.g., mental health). The resulting self-selection bias makes it difficult to accurately predict the effects of NEET status on mental health.

Hences, The study utilized a bivariate probit model with selection. The bivariate probit model is an approach that jointly models two binary dependent variables, assuming that the error terms of these variables are correlated (Colin Cameron and Trivedi, 2005). In the study, the bivariate probit model was used to model the relationship between NEET status and the presence of mental health disorders, with both dependent variables being modeled simultaneously under the assumption that their error terms are correlated. The bivariate probit model with selection reveals self-selection bias, allowing for a more accurate assessment of how NEET status impacts mental health disorders. This model simultaneously models the selection process (NEET status) and the outcome equation (mental health outcomes), accounting for the correlation between unobservable factors influencing both variables. This helps mitigate potential biases arising from self-selection. This model aims to understand the relationship between two variables using a correlational approach rather than establishing a causal link. Additionally, since no causal analysis is conducted, instrumental variables have not been used. The use of instrumental variables becomes important depending on the model's objective and the approach of the analysis. The focus of the study is on examining the relationship between the variables.

Before presenting our empirical model, let's formulate our hypotheses. Dropping out of education or disconnecting from the workforce exposes young individuals to risks such as social exclusion, psychological distress, disability, maladaptive behaviors, and health issues (for example, O'Dea et al., 2016; Fernández-Suárez et al., 2016; Hjorth et al., 2016). Within the scope of this study, we propose the hypothesis that individuals who are NEET in Turkiye are more likely to experience mental health disorders. Additionally, other hypotheses of the study suggest that risky health behaviors have an impact on mental health problems and that higher levels of education within the NEET group reduce the likelihood of mental health issues.

In our baseline model, we have two main variables:

The NEET status variable is defined according to international standards (e.g., ILO, OECD, Eurostat), where individuals not in education, employment, or

training are coded as 1, and others as 0. For Türkiye-specific applications of this definition, see Karaoğlu (2022 and 2023). Mental Health Issues (MH): This variable indicates whether an individual has any mental health problems. Again, it represents 1 for presence and 0 for absence.

In a bivariate probit model, there are two equations simultaneously estimated to determine the correlation between two variables: In the model, unobserved latent variables are defined.

$$\text{NEET Status Model: } NEET = \beta_1 X'_{1i} + \epsilon_1 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Mental Health Issues Model: } MH = \gamma_1 X'_{2i} + \epsilon_2 \quad (2)$$

Here, x_{1i} and x_{2i} represent other independent variables. ϵ_1 and ϵ_2 are error terms, and the error terms are normally distributed and have a correlation of ρ . The Bivariate probit model can be written as:

$$P(NEET = i, MHI = j) = \Phi_2(\beta_1 X'_{1i}, \gamma_1 X'_{2i}, \rho) \quad (3)$$

First, the correlation coefficient (ρ) between the two equations was checked. This coefficient indicates the relationship between the error terms in both equations, which represent the unobserved factors influencing the outcomes. If ρ is different from zero, it indicates a relationship between the selection process and the outcome due to unobservable factors. This approach allows for a more accurate estimation of the true effect of NEET status on mental health and corrects for selection bias.

In this model, it is assumed that there is an internal correlation (ρ) between NEET status and mental health status. According to the established hypothesis, if the ρ value is insignificant, the two outcomes are considered independent, and separate univariate probit models are estimated for each outcome. However, if the ρ value turns out to be significant, indicating an internal relationship, a bivariate probit model is used. A positive correlation helps determine whether common unobserved factors drive the observed relationship between NEET status and mental health outcomes or if the two outcomes are influenced independently. This enables a deeper interpretation of the results, and suggests that individuals who are more likely to be in the NEET category are also more likely to experience mental health outcomes, and vice versa.

DATA

This study examined information obtained from the four survey periods (2014, 2016, 2019, and 2022) of the THS, which was carried out by the Turkish

Statistical Institute (TurkStat)². The Turkish Health Survey (THS)³, conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TurkStat), was first published in 2008. The survey collects information on diseases experienced by children aged 0-14 in the six months preceding the survey date, as well as data on child disability. For individuals aged 15 and older, it gathers information on general health status, chronic diseases, functional capacity in daily activities, personal care, use of healthcare services, medication use, vaccinations, and measurements including height and weight. The results of the survey are presented at the national level. The latest THS data is from 2022.

The THS dataset does not specify whether young participants are enrolled in a training program; it only includes information on the most recently completed education. Therefore, in our study, NEET represents the demographic group of individuals aged between 15 and 29 who are neither employed (including the unemployed, economically inactive, and seasonal workers) nor engaged in education⁴.

The primary variable investigated in the study is the variable representing mental health disorders. Questions in the dataset such as whether participants are experiencing depression, feeling sad, not enjoying activities, having trouble sleeping, feeling tired, having a lack of appetite, and experiencing concentration problems represent mental health. If responses to these questions fall into the categories of "more than a week" or "almost every day," the variable takes on a value of 1; otherwise, if they indicate "never" or "some days," the variable takes on a value of 0. To conduct this analysis, the total of responses indicating mental health problems is first calculated for each individual. The total score is then evaluated against a specified threshold to determine whether an individual's mental health is in poor condition. This threshold is defined based on the median total score across all individuals for these variables, as the use of the median is thought to reduce the risk of the results being influenced by outliers.

² In the study, we used data from 2014, 2016, 2019, and 2022. These datasets are structurally consistent with each other. In contrast, the data from 2008, 2010, and 2012 differ in terms of their structure.

³Geographic scope: All residential areas within the borders of the Republic of Türkiye. Target population: Households located in all residential areas within the borders of Türkiye. Institutional populations (such as military personnel, residents of dormitories, prisons, hospitals, nursing homes, etc.) are excluded from the scope. Sampling method: A stratified two-stage cluster sampling method has been used. The external stratification criterion employed is the rural-urban distinction. The first stage of sampling involves randomly selecting clusters (blocks) that contain an average of 100 household addresses, proportional to their size. The second stage of sampling consists of systematically randomly selecting household addresses from each chosen cluster.

⁴ In accordance with the OECD criteria, individuals falling within the age range of 15-29 were categorized as "young people."

The education data was initially categorized as primary education or below. Individuals in this group consist of those who have not completed primary school, are illiterate, or have completed primary school. Those with a background in general junior high school, vocational or technical junior high school are grouped under "Middle School". Individuals who have completed general high school, vocational or technical high school, or equivalent education are classified as "high school level education". Those who have graduated from a 2 or 3-year college, a 4-year college, or faculty are designated as "university education". Additionally, individuals holding a master's degree (including 5 or 6-year faculties) and doctorate degrees are defined as having "postgraduate education". The income variable in the dataset has been divided into five groups representing 20% each for analysis. The first 20% income bracket is referred to as the "low-income group," encompassing the income range of 0-2883 TL. The second 20% income bracket (2884 TL-4111 TL) is termed the "lower-middle-income group." The third 20% income bracket (4112 TL-5713 TL) is labeled as the "middle-income group." The fourth 20% income bracket (5714 TL-8372 TL) is defined as the "upper-middle-income group." Finally, the fifth 20% income bracket (8373 TL and above) represents the "high-income group."

The study defines "risky health behavior" as activities or behaviors that could negatively affect an individual's health or increase the risk of health problems. Variables such as Body Mass Index (BMI), tobacco use, and alcohol consumption were considered risky health behaviors.

In the study, the risky health behavior variables considered are BMI⁵ (overweight or obesity), tobacco use, and alcohol consumption. Tobacco usage is grouped as shown in Table 1, and alcohol consumption is coded as 1 if the individual consumes alcohol and 0 otherwise. Information about household size and parents is also important, as these variables significantly affect the NEET status and mental health of individuals aged 15–29. It is important to have information about household size and parents, as these variables have a significant impact on the NEET status and mental health of individuals aged 15–29. Studies (e.g., Kovacic and Orso, 2022 (JEBO), Casabianca and Kovacic, 2024 (JEBO)) have emphasized that adverse childhood conditions particularly affect mental health. Depending on the scope of the dataset, parental alcohol use (coded as 1 if the parent uses alcohol and 0 otherwise) can be considered as a factor representing adverse childhood conditions. Parental alcohol use can lead to a stressful home environment for the child, which may negatively impact their

⁵ Body Mass Index (BMI), which is obtained by dividing a person's weight (in kilograms) by the square of their height (in meters). Generally, individuals with a BMI value of 30 or above are considered obese.

emotional and psychological development. As a result, this situation may lead to an increase in mental health issues and a higher likelihood of becoming NEET in later life. To determine NEET status, an individual’s age, employment, and educational status are assessed. NEET status is calculated based on whether the person is employed, in education, or undergoing vocational training. If none of these apply, the individual is classified as NEET.

In the THS dataset, age groups 15-19, 20-24, and 25-29 are used to determine NEET status. For ages 15-19, those who completed primary or middle school but are not in education are NEET. For ages 20-24, those who graduated from primary, middle, or high school and are not receiving education are NEET. For individuals aged 25-29 with any degree and not actively engaged in education, the term NEET applies. However, those employed or enrolled in education are not classified as NEET. These definitions identify non-NEET individuals.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Full Sample (%)	NEET (%)	Non-NEET (%)
NEET	59.43	100.00	0.00
Mental Health			
-Yes	10.03	10.70	8.92
-No	89.97	89.30	91.08
Gender			
- Male	47.34	34.36	66.36
- Female	52.66	65.64	33.64
Education Level			
- Primary or Below	8.67	10.65	5.75
- Middle School	38.26	45.17	28.15
- High School	33.55	34.09	32.75
- University	16.65	7.37	30.25
Graduate			
- Postgraduate	2.87	2.72	3.10
Degree			
Marital Status			
- Single	70.99	72.30	69.07
- Married	28.09	26.98	29.72
- Divorced	0.87	0.65	1.20
- Widow	0.05	0.07	0.01
Income Groups			
- Low Income	51.99	57.73	43.59
- Lower-Middle	6.62	6.75	6.43
Income			
- Middle Income	6.02	5.22	7.20
- Upper-Middle	5.47	3.40	8.51
Income			
- High Income	29.90	26.91	34.28
Tobacco Usage			
- Yes, Every Day	16.43	10.12	25.66
- Yes, Occasionally	24.75	22.45	28.14
- No, Quit	49.88	59.79	35.35
- No, Never	8.94	7.64	10.85

Alcohol Use								
- Yes	20.67				13.15			31.68
- No	79.33				86.85			68.32
Parents' Education								
- Primary or Below	49.86				49.60			50.25
- Middle School	22.42				21.89			23.19
- High School or Above	27.72				28.51			26.56
Parents' Alcohol Use								
- Yes	4.46				4.49			4.42
- No	95.54				95.51			95.58
Continuous Variables								
	Mean	Std.Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	Min	Max
BMI	23.130	4.12	22.806	4.12	23.60	4.071	12.49	62.43
Age	21.905	4.434	20.464	4.323	24.016	3.687	15	29
Household Size	3.424	1.524	3.463	1.492	3.368	1.569	1	14
Total	19350		11499		7851			

In our sample of young individuals aged 15-29 (Table 1), there are a total of 19,350 people, of which 11,499 are classified as NEET (59.4%), and 7,851 are classified as non-NEET (40.6%). This indicates that the majority of individuals in the dataset belong to the NEET group. The proportion of individuals reporting mental health problems is slightly higher in the NEET group (10.7%) compared to the non-NEET group (8.9%), suggesting that NEET individuals may experience slightly worse mental health outcomes. Gender distribution shows that females are more represented in the NEET group (65.6%), whereas males dominate the non-NEET group (66.4%). This highlights a significant gender disparity between the two groups. When examining education levels, only 7.37% of the NEET group has a university degree or postgraduate education, compared to 30.25% in the non-NEET group. Conversely, the proportion of individuals with middle school education is much higher in the NEET group (45.17%) than in the non-NEET group (28.15%). This indicates a strong association between lower education levels and NEET status.

In terms of income, 57.7% of the NEET group falls into the low-income category, compared to 43.6% of the non-NEET group. Higher income levels are more prevalent among the non-NEET group, where 34.3% of individuals are classified as high-income, compared to 26.9% in the NEET group. These findings underscore the economic disadvantages faced by the NEET population. Regarding tobacco use, daily tobacco consumption is more prevalent in the non-NEET group (25.7%) compared to the NEET group (10.1%). However, occasional tobacco use is slightly higher among the NEET group (22.5%) than the non-NEET group (28.1%). Alcohol use shows a similar trend, with only

13.2% of the NEET group reporting alcohol consumption compared to 31.7% of the non-NEET group. Lastly, parental education levels reveal that 50.3% of the NEET group’s parents have a primary education or lower, compared to 49.6% in the non-NEET group. This suggests that parental education may also play a role in NEET outcomes.

RESULTS

The bivariate probit model analysis, detailed in Table 2, reveals a significant correlation between the two studied variables, affirmed by a Wald test chi-square value of 6.43093 and a p-value of 0.0112. This significant p-value suggests a notable relationship impacted by unobserved factors. The correlation coefficient (rho) of 0.048 indicates a modest positive relationship between the variables. These results indicate that the selection-based bivariate probit model is an appropriate choice for examining the relationship between NEET status and mental health. The Wald test result reveals a significant correlation between the two dependent variables, attributed to unobservable factors in the model. This demonstrates that NEET status and mental health are associated with complex processes, and the model effectively captures this relationship.

Table 2. Bivariate Probit Models Results

Variables	NEET	Mental Health
Gender (if male=1, female=0)	-0.882*** (0.0234)	-0.339*** (0.0307)
Age	-0.577*** (0.0319)	0.0609 (0.0384)
Age square/100	0.973*** (0.0709)	-0.122 (0.0858)
Education (Basic Category:Primary or Below)		
Middle School	-0.254*** (0.0425)	-0.00287 (0.0478)
High School	-0.0874** (0.0425)	-0.0702 (0.0487)
University Graduate	-0.738*** (0.0477)	-0.201*** (0.0594)
Postgraduate Degree	-0.280*** (0.0727)	-0.127 (0.112)
Marital Status (Basic Category: Single)		
Married	0.339*** (0.0308)	-0.0636* (0.0386)
Divorced	0.0888 (0.106)	0.242* (0.125)
Widowed	0.981* (0.579)	-0.299 (0.596)
Income Groups (Basic Category: Low Income)		
Lower-middle-income	-0.163*** (0.0443)	-0.0515 (0.0488)
Middle-income	-0.302***	-0.0388

	(0.0457)	(0.0507)
Upper-middle-income	-0.603***	-0.127**
	(0.0494)	(0.0554)
High income	-0.237***	-1.405***
	(0.0359)	(0.0764)
Alcohol use	-0.227***	0.285***
	(0.0279)	(0.0340)
Tabaco Usage (Basic Category: Yes, Every Day)		
Yes, Occasionally	0.218***	-0.389***
	(0.0425)	(0.0610)
No, Quit	0.353***	-0.356***
	(0.0317)	(0.0370)
No, Never	0.196***	-0.226***
	(0.0449)	(0.0563)
BMI	0.00236	0.000681
	(0.00265)	(0.00328)
Parent's Education (Basic Category: Primary or Below)		
- Middle School	-0.0444	0.00622
	(0.0274)	(0.0383)
- High School or Above	-0.168***	-0.0708**
	(0.0262)	(0.0321)
Parent's Alcohol Use	-0.0184	0.118**
	(0.0515)	(0.0573)
Household Size	-0.0242***	-0.00878
	(0.00759)	(0.0109)
Constant	8.598***	-1.241***
	(0.361)	(0.431)

Wald test of rho=0: chi2(1):6.60744 Prob >chi2 = 0.0112

rho | 0.0482** standart errors: 0.01871

Note: Standard errors in parentheses;*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

The analysis comprises two separate models focusing on NEET status and mental health status: Model 1 for NEET status, and Model 2 for mental health status. In both models, demographic characteristics, educational level, marital status, income level, risky health behaviors, household size, parent's education level and parent's alcohol uses are treated as independent variables. First, the correlation coefficient (ρ) obtained from the bivariate probit model with selection estimation is positive and statistically significant. The null hypothesis of independence between the selection and outcome equations is rejected, indicating that the model is valid and can address endogeneity issues. This suggests a positive relationship between being NEET and experiencing mental health disorders. Furthermore, it implies that factors increasing the likelihood of being NEET among young individuals also increase the likelihood of experiencing mental health disorders.

The variables affecting the likelihood of becoming a NEET in Model 1 have been considered. First, the results of Model 1 have been interpreted. Male are significantly less likely to be NEET than female. As age increases, the probability of being NEET

decreases, but the square of age/100 has a positive effect. This shows that age decreases the probability of being NEET up to a certain point, but after that point the probability increases. The relationship between level of education and the likelihood of becoming NEET has been found to be negative. Those with a university or postgraduate degree are generally less likely to become NEET than those with primary school or less education. This suggests that having a higher level of education provides individuals with advantages in finding employment and accessing the labour market, as well as reducing the likelihood of becoming NEET. Therefore, level of education is often considered a protective factor in reducing the likelihood of becoming NEET. The results obtained from the studies by Giret et al., 2020; Kevelson et al., 2020; and Quintano et al., 2018 support the findings of the present study. However, Kevelson et al., 2020; Lee & Kim, 2012; Odoardi, 2020; Zudina, 2022, found that high education positively affects NEET. Married individuals are more likely to be NEET than single individuals. Higher income levels are less likely to be NEET compared to those with the lowest income levels. This result supports the findings of Alvarado et al., 2020; Avagianou et al., 2022; Dorsett & Lucchino, 2014 studies in the literature. There are strong correlations between lower income levels and the likelihood of being NEET. For example, it has been indicated that socioeconomic disadvantages restrict the educational and employment opportunities of young people, thereby increasing NEET rates (Furlong, 2006). Individuals who have quit tobacco use, never smokers, and occasional smokers are more likely to be NEET than daily smokers. As alcohol consumption increases, the likelihood of being NEET decreases. At first glance, this may seem surprising. However, studies have emphasized the need to consider individual and societal contexts rather than making broad generalizations when interpreting these behavioral patterns. Similar findings have been reported in studies by Balsa et al. (2011) and Compton et al. (2014). Compared to parents with primary school education or below, young individuals whose parents have higher levels of education are less likely to be NEET. Therefore, we can say that parental socioeconomic status has a significant impact on a young person's NEET status. This is consistent with the findings of Karaoğlu et al. (2023) conducted in Türkiye.

According to previous studies, family structure, particularly household size, can influence youth NEET status in different ways. Larger households may increase NEET rates due to economic pressures, as more people have limited access to resources (Balsa et al., 2011; Compton et al., 2014). However, in some cases, larger families can provide a broader support network, which may reduce NEET rates (Kovacic & Orso, 2022).

Model 2 examined the impact of socio-economic and demographic variables as well as risky health behaviors on the development of mental health problems.

The likelihood of adult males experiencing mental health problems is negative. This indicates that males may have poorer mental health compared to females. This may reflect the impact of stress factors associated with gender roles and expectations on males. The direct impact of age on mental health has not been found to be statistically significant. However, this may indicate the complex nature of age's influence on mental health. Similarly, the square of age also has a negative but insignificant effect, suggesting that mental health risks associated with age may decrease within a certain age range, but this effect may not be pronounced in the general population. University graduate has a negative impact on mental health, indicating that individuals with higher levels of education may be less prone to mental health problems. It has been concluded that higher income has a significant negative impact on mental health. Individuals with higher incomes may feel more financially secure. This can reduce stress levels and thus positively influence their mental health. Some studies have found that high income positively affects mental health by reducing stress and improving quality of life. This can be explained by income's capacity to improve access to healthcare services and overall living conditions (Howell & Howell, 2008). Consistent results have been obtained with the current study.

Alcohol consumption is associated with an increase in mental health problems. In comparison to individuals who smoke daily, those who do not smoke or have quit smoking tend to have better mental health. Alcohol and cigarette can serve as coping mechanisms for dealing with negative emotions. However, these behaviors can exacerbate mental health issues in the long run. For example, alcohol consumption and smoking can worsen conditions such as depression or anxiety. As BMI increases, particularly when individuals become overweight or obese, mental health issues tend to rise as well. Obesity can be a source of psychological stress and societal stigma. Additionally, physical health problems and lower quality of life can further exacerbate the mental health of these individuals. This aligns with the findings of Kovacic & Orso (2022), which highlight how obesity is associated with various mental health challenges. These factors contribute to a cycle where both physical and mental health deteriorate as BMI rises. A adult whose mother has a high school education is more likely to have better mental health than a adult whose mother's education level is at or below the elementary school level. An alcoholic parent negatively affects the mental health of their adult child

CONCLUSION

This study utilizes data from the Türkiye Health Surveys (THA) conducted by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TurkStat) in 2014, 2016, 2019, and 2022 to examine the relationships between NEET status, risky health behaviors, and mental health issues among youth aged 15-29 in Türkiye. It aims to provide

scientific data that could guide policies and practices in other Muslim countries with similar socioeconomic conditions.

The methodological analysis conducted using a bivariate probit model reveals a significant relationship between NEET status and mental health problems, showing that NEET youth are more likely to engage in risky health behaviors such as smoking and alcohol consumption. The study also examines this relationship across various demographic factors such as socioeconomic status, education level, gender, marital status, and income level. The main findings are as follows: Being male significantly reduces the likelihood of being NEET and has a negative impact on mental health. The likelihood of being NEET decreases with higher education levels. Specifically, individuals with a university degree or higher are significantly less likely to be NEET. The relationship between education level and mental health is more complex; while having a university degree significantly improves mental health, the effect of having a graduate degree is not found to be significant. Increasing income levels reduce the likelihood of being NEET and are also found to have a positive impact on mental health. Alcohol and cigarette use reduces the likelihood of being NEET but negatively affects mental health. BMI has a positive impact on mental health. The main findings are largely consistent with the existing literature (e.g., Plenty et al., 2000; Kvieskienė et al., 2021; Karaoglan et al., 2022; Karaoglan et al., 2023; Minh et al., 2023).

Based on these results, the following policy recommendations are proposed to reduce the likelihood of NEET status and improve mental health:

- Create special programs and incentives to increase women's employment. By supporting vocational training programs and women entrepreneurship, the participation of women in the labor market can be increased.
- Expand opportunities for university and graduate education. Financial supports such as scholarships and student loans can help improve educational levels, which may reduce NEET status.
- Develop policies to reduce income inequality. Social assistance programs and tax reductions for low and middle-income groups can be implemented. Direct income support programs for low-income families can be created. These supports can reduce economic stress and improve mental health.
- Organize vocational training programs for unemployed individuals and provide employment support. This will increase income levels and positively affect mental health.

- Address the negative effects of alcohol and cigarette use on mental health. Public health campaigns and educational programs should be established to reduce alcohol and cigarette consumption.
- Combat BMI, which contributes to mental health issues. Implement programs that promote healthy eating and physical activity to reduce BMI.
- Impact of Parental Education on Children's Success

The level of education of parents can directly affect the educational success and general quality of life, health, education and habits of their children. Children of parents with lower levels of education may face social and economic difficulties. Policies should be presented to increase educational opportunities in order to integrate these young people into society. Guidance should also be provided to these families to better support their mental health.

- Programs for Preventing Alcohol Dependency and Promoting Mental Health

In order to ensure family unity, family counseling services should be provided to parents to prevent alcohol addiction and other harmful habits.

The problems experienced by NEET youth in Türkiye are not limited to the difficulty of finding a job; this issue should be addressed in a much broader context. Strengthening the connections between education, employment and risky health behaviors plays a critical role in supporting the participation of young in society. These initiatives will also have a positive impact on the mental health of young.

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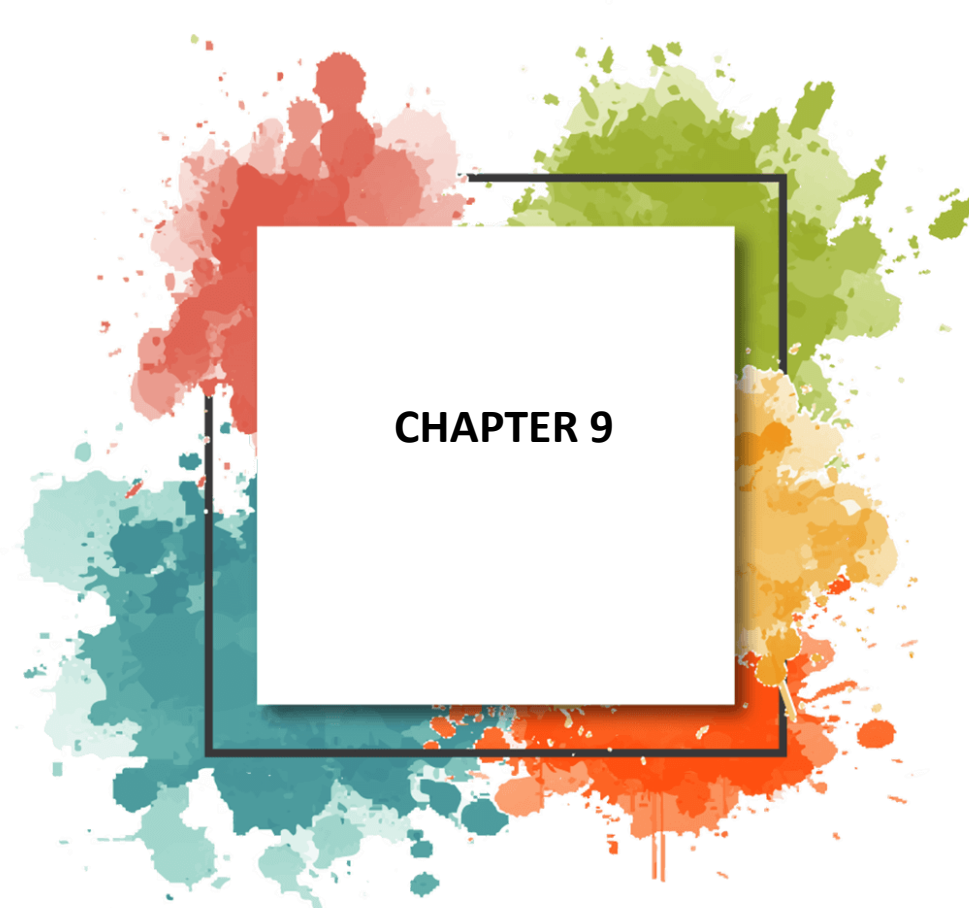
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CHAPTER 9

Generative AI and Consumer Experience Design

Ali Levent Kurtoğlu¹

1. Introduction

Generative artificial intelligence (AI) refers to systems that can produce original content—whether text, images, audio, or even video—by learning patterns from vast datasets. Recent advances in large language models (LLMs) and image generation have ushered in a new era of consumer experience design. These technologies enable levels of personalization and interactivity in marketing and services that were previously unattainable. In the context of consumer experiences, generative AI serves as a creative partner. It can dynamically draft marketing copy, customize visuals to individual preferences, and even interact with customers using natural language. With these capabilities, brands are able to engage consumers with content finely tuned to their interests and psychological profiles—at a scale that would have been unimaginable before (Matz et al., 2024). The fusion of generative AI with hyper-personalization is fundamentally reshaping customer experiences across industries (Bitra, 2025). Already, companies leverage AI for an array of customer touchpoints: powering chatbots and virtual assistants, generating dynamic website and ad content, delivering real-time personalized recommendations, and orchestrating seamless cross-channel experiences that adapt to each user’s needs (Bitra, 2025). By automating the creation of tailored messages and media, generative AI delivers substantial performance advantages over traditional “one-size-fits-all” approaches. These advantages often manifest as higher customer engagement and satisfaction (Bitra, 2025; Asunmonu, 2025). For example, research has shown that generative AI can significantly boost the persuasive power of a marketing message when that message is tailored to an individual’s personality or values (Matz et al., 2024). Historically, crafting such personalized appeals was labor-intensive and difficult to scale. This example illustrates how AI can amplify the long-standing marketing tactic of personalization into personalized persuasion on a mass scale. The result is greater effectiveness without sacrificing efficiency (Matz et al., 2024).

However, these opportunities are accompanied by new challenges. As AI-generated content becomes more common at consumer touchpoints, it is essential to ensure trust, authenticity, and ethical use of the technology. Consumers need to feel that they still have a sense of autonomy and genuine agency when interacting with AI-assisted services (Han & Ko, 2025). If a recommendation or decision seems too automated or opaque, people may worry that the AI is making

¹ Ph.D., The Doqu Neurobusiness Consultancy & Coaching, ORCID: 0000-0001-9597-9351

decisions for them, which can undermine their sense of control. Indeed, research shows that when users perceive a greater degree of autonomy in generative AI services, their trust and satisfaction tend to increase, whereas overly restrictive or non-transparent AI can erode trust (Han & Ko, 2025). In one study, Han and Ko (2025) found that incorporating a notion of mutual responsibility—such as allowing users to adjust or approve AI suggestions—significantly boosted users' trust and long-term engagement, more so than simply adding an explainability feature. This suggests that AI systems designed to actively support user agency, by making the consumer an involved part of the decision loop, achieve better outcomes than a passive, black-box approach.

Design experts likewise emphasize human-centered AI design principles to guide these experiences (Weisz et al., 2024). Weisz and colleagues (2024) outline guidelines such as designing AI responsibly (ensuring content is safe and aligned with user well-being), supporting appropriate mental models (helping users understand what the AI is doing), and calibrating trust (preventing both over-reliance and under-reliance on AI). The common theme of these principles is to keep the human user in focus—understanding their needs, managing their expectations, and safeguarding against potential harms like misinformation or bias in AI outputs. In practice, this approach involves being transparent about the AI's capabilities and limitations, providing clear explanations for AI-generated content, and giving users easy ways to provide feedback or correct the AI. By following such guidelines, companies can enhance users' comfort and confidence when generative AI is part of their experience.

Another important consideration is how generative AI influences the emotional dimension of consumer experiences. Done well, AI-generated content can resonate with individuals by mirroring their preferences and values, thereby deepening engagement. For instance, an AI-driven campaign might create a personalized story or image that evokes nostalgia or excitement uniquely for each viewer. Indeed, many consumers respond positively to content that feels as if it were made just for them. However, there is also a risk of losing the human touch if AI is overused or deployed without empathy. Ferraro et al. (2024) discuss paradoxes in AI-enabled customer service, noting that while generative AI can offer rapid and consistent responses, it may inadvertently reduce genuine empathy and leave some customers feeling isolated. A brand could encounter situations where automated interactions, despite being efficient, still leave people emotionally unfulfilled or even frustrated due to a lack of real human understanding (Ferraro et al., 2024). This underscores the need to humanize AI-driven experiences: the language, tone, and personality of AI communications should be warm and relatable, and companies must decide carefully which interactions should remain human. In fact, studies indicate that many customers

— even younger generations — still prefer a human representative for complex or sensitive issues, highlighting that AI is best used to augment rather than fully replace human interaction (Costa & Ghosh, 2025). A balanced approach is emerging as best practice: leverage AI for what it does best (speed, scale, data-driven personalization) while preserving human involvement for empathy, creativity, and oversight (Costa & Ghosh, 2025).

Finally, the integration of neuroscience and biometric data—often referred to as “neurodata”—into AI-driven experience design is on the horizon. Marketers are increasingly interested in how consumers’ brains and bodies react to marketing stimuli. They are now examining metrics like attention (where people direct their gaze), emotional arousal (using indicators such as galvanic skin response or heart rate), and neural engagement (via EEG or fMRI signals). These measures can reveal consumers’ unspoken, subconscious reactions to advertisements, product designs, or retail environments. The synergy between neuromarketing and AI opens up powerful possibilities: AI algorithms can analyze massive datasets of neural and physiological responses to find patterns that human analysts might not notice (Alsharif et al., 2025). For example, an AI might detect that a certain style of imagery in an ad elicits a strong positive emotional response in viewers’ brain waves, and then automatically generate more content incorporating those elements. By marrying neurodata with content generation, marketers could optimize advertising content for maximum emotional impact and attention in ways that used to rely on trial-and-error (Alsharif et al., 2025). A review by Alsharif et al. (2025) notes that AI can even crunch real-time brain feedback and adjust marketing content on the fly, essentially creating a closed-loop system where consumer responses directly shape the subsequent experience. This would raise consumer experience design to an unprecedented level of responsiveness—imagine an AI-driven online store that subtly changes its layout, colors, or messaging in reaction to a shopper’s moment-to-moment facial expressions or eye movements, all aimed at improving that individual’s engagement and satisfaction. While such scenarios are still cutting-edge, early implementations are already underway. For instance, some companies use AI vision systems to read shoppers’ facial expressions or track their eye gaze on product displays, then immediately adjust digital signage or offer a tailored promotion based on those observations. Others are experimenting with brain–computer interface feedback in advertising: they show different ad versions to consumers wearing EEG headsets and use AI to determine which version triggers the highest levels of attention and memory encoding. These applications hint at a future in which consumer experiences are not only personalized to stated preferences, but also dynamically adapt to each user’s physiological and neurological signals.

Of course, using neurodata in marketing also raises significant ethical and privacy concerns. Brainwave or biometric information is highly personal — essentially a window into an individual’s subconscious reactions. If AI models begin leveraging such data at scale, questions of informed consent, data security, and potential manipulation become paramount. Regulators and ethicists argue that strong guardrails are needed to ensure that tapping into consumers’ neural responses never crosses into unethical “neuromanipulation” or privacy invasion (Alsharif et al., 2025). Transparency will be crucial: consumers should know if their biometric or behavioral data is being collected, and for what purpose. Additionally, biases in AI algorithms could be even more pronounced in this domain. For instance, if an AI is tuned to average neural responses, it might misinterpret signals from people of different neurotypes or cultural backgrounds, leading to skewed or ineffective content for those groups. Hence, as this convergence of AI and neurodata moves forward, it must be guided by responsible innovation (Alsharif et al., 2025). Marketers and designers must uphold strict ethical standards, ensuring that enhancements to the experience do not come at the cost of consumer trust or rights.

Generative AI stands as a transformative force in consumer experience design, offering tools to create highly personalized, emotionally engaging, and dynamically optimized interactions. The next sections of this chapter will explore specific facets of this transformation. Section 2 examines how AI enables Personalized Storytelling at Scale, empowering brands to craft unique narratives for each consumer. Section 3 focuses on AI-Driven Emotional Content Creation, looking at how AI can generate content that resonates with—and even adapts to—human emotions. Section 4 discusses Dynamic A/B Testing Based on Neurodata, illustrating how AI can use real-time biometric feedback to continually refine experiences. Section 5 addresses AI and Sensory Branding Integration, describing how generative AI contributes to multi-sensory brand experiences. By understanding and leveraging generative AI within these domains, marketers and experience designers can create richer, more personal consumer journeys — but they must do so with care, keeping consumer well-being, trust, and inclusivity at the forefront.

2. Personalized Storytelling at Scale

Storytelling has always been at the heart of effective marketing and customer experience. Brands craft narratives that connect their products or services to consumers’ lives, aspirations, and problems. Traditionally, these narratives were broad and generalized — essentially one story or campaign aimed at millions of people. With generative AI, however, we are entering an era where storytelling can be tailored to the individual and delivered on a mass scale. Personalized storytelling at scale refers to the ability to generate unique or highly customized

narratives for each consumer (or each segment of customers) by using AI to automate and adapt the content creation process. For instance, an AI might write slightly different versions of an email campaign for different recipients, each version echoing the recipient's recent behaviors or interests. Similarly, a website could present a different product story to each visitor based on their user profile. The key is that generative AI can maintain coherence and creativity across countless story variations—far beyond what a human team could produce manually in the same timeframe.

One clear example of this capability is personalized marketing copy. Matz et al. (2024) showed that large language models (like ChatGPT) can craft persuasive messages aligned with a person's psychological profile — for instance, their personality traits or core values — and that these AI-generated personalized messages significantly increase the message's impact compared to generic versions. In their studies, the researchers used prompts to instruct the AI to emphasize certain angles. For example, for an environmental campaign aimed at someone who values altruism, the prompt directed the AI to appeal to eco-conscious values. The outcome was that even with minimal input (just knowing a key trait or value of the target individual), the AI could generate a tailored message that resonated much more strongly and led to higher engagement and persuasion (Matz et al., 2024). Importantly, this process was automated: instead of a copywriter manually writing dozens of versions of an ad — one for each persona or segment — the AI could churn them out quickly and consistently. This highlights how generative AI enables personalization to be scaled up with relatively low incremental cost and effort. A marketing team could feasibly produce personalized content for thousands of micro-segments, or even unique content for each individual customer — something far beyond the reach of traditional workflows.

Brands are already beginning to put these personalization capabilities into practice. For instance, some e-commerce retailers are exploring AI-written product descriptions that adjust their tone and content based on the viewer's profile (Dwivedi & Kurde, 2024). If the AI knows that a particular shopper is very tech-savvy, it might generate a description that emphasizes detailed specifications and performance. By contrast, for a more casual shopper, the AI might present the same product with a fun narrative about how the item can be used in everyday life. Dwivedi and Kurde (2024) note that generative models integrated into Customer Relationship Management (CRM) systems enable much more tailored interactions — emails, chat responses, recommendations — because the AI can generate content on the fly that aligns with each customer's segment and even their real-time behavior. By automating these tailored

interactions, companies can enhance customer satisfaction and retention (Dwivedi & Kurde, 2024).

Another domain benefiting from this technology is customer service chatbots. Generative AI allows these bots not only to answer queries, but to respond in a style that matches the individual's context and history. For example, an AI-powered chatbot for a travel company might remember a user's past trips and weave that into the conversation — asking something like, “How did you enjoy your beach holiday last year? We have some new island destinations you might love!” This kind of personalized storytelling makes the interaction feel more human and engaging, and it is made possible by the AI's ability to generate context-specific dialogue on demand.

A notable aspect of AI-powered storytelling is its real-time adaptability. Content can be not only pre-tailored but also dynamically adjusted as the system learns more about the consumer's reactions. Alti and Lakehal (2025) describe a framework for e-commerce user experience where generative AI and model-driven software development work in tandem to adapt the interface and content in real time. In their approach, the system collects user behavior data (clicks, time spent on various elements, etc.), models the user's persona and intent, and then uses generative AI to modify the UI layout or content on the fly to better suit that user's needs (Alti & Lakehal, 2025). This is a kind of micro-storytelling: the narrative or presentation a user sees might shift during a single session, driven by an AI that detects what the user responds to. For instance, if a visitor lingers on customer testimonial stories rather than technical specs, the site could automatically bring up more narrative-driven content—such as user reviews, case studies, or use-case examples—to keep that person engaged. Such adaptive storytelling ensures that each consumer gets the most relevant and compelling experience for them, increasing the likelihood of conversion and satisfaction.

Personalized storytelling isn't limited to text. Generative AI in imagery and video makes it possible to create personalized visuals and even entire advertisements tailored to individual viewers. Imagine a generative video ad where the characters, setting, or product usage scenario change based on the viewer's demographics or interests. If an outdoor gear retailer knows a customer prefers mountains over beaches, the AI might render the ad's adventure scene in the Alps rather than by the ocean. Early versions of this concept have been tried through programmatic advertising that swaps out content using templates, but generative AI can go further by creating entirely novel imagery or narrative sequences to fit each user. Asunmonu (2025) highlights a similar approach in product design customization — for example, using AI to generate fashion designs based on an individual consumer's inputs. This approach drastically reduced time-to-market (by up to 40%) and the hyper-personalized outputs

significantly improved customer satisfaction, because each consumer felt the product or message was “for them” (Asunmonu, 2025). However, Asunmonu (2025) also emphasizes that to achieve success with these methods, companies must balance automation with human oversight and ensure good governance. In the context of content, that means human brand managers and storytellers should still set the overarching narrative direction and values, and they must review the AI’s output to maintain brand consistency and avoid off-brand or inappropriate content. An AI might be excellent at generating a believable story snippet about how a product fits into someone’s life, but humans must ensure that all those snippets across different audiences add up to a coherent brand story and meet ethical standards.

Hyper-personalization at scale can also raise concerns if it’s not handled carefully. One concern is the “creepiness factor” — when personalization feels too eerily accurate, consumers might feel their privacy is being invaded or that the brand knows too much about them. For instance, if a marketing story highlights overly specific personal details—like something taken from a social media post—the customer may feel uncomfortable or react unfavorably. Brands should use personal data sensitively and ideally with transparency or permission. Another issue is content fatigue. If every interaction is hyper-personalized or if AI messages become too frequent, users might grow weary or start to tune them out (Kumari et al., 2025). Kumari et al. (2025) found that while positive experiences with generative AI chatbots can increase customer trust and even encourage proactive customer engagement (“customer citizenship” behaviors), there is a tipping point where customer fatigue sets in. Put simply, what starts out as exciting personalization can quickly become overwhelming if customers are continuously flooded with AI-generated content—even if that content is tailored to them. Companies should strike a balance in how much they personalize. At times, a simple, generic message works best; in other cases, a deeply tailored story creates greater impact. Personalization should always enhance the customer’s experience—never be applied just because the technology makes it possible.

When rolling out AI-powered personalized storytelling, organizations need to keep both ethical standards and creative oversight firmly in place. Because AI systems can sometimes generate content that is inaccurate, biased, or socially inappropriate, it remains essential for human editors to review and approve key communications. Just as important is protecting the brand’s unique voice. Even when personalizing content, generative AI must be guided to stay true to the brand’s established tone and style. Tools now exist to fine-tune language models on a brand’s own past content, helping to ensure that AI-generated stories sound like they come from the same narrative universe as the brand’s other

communications. This prevents a diffusion of brand identity when many story variants are being generated. Cui, van Esch, and Phelan (2024) argue that effectively harnessing generative AI can become a source of competitive advantage for a brand, precisely because it can deliver novel, interactive, and personalized experiences that competitors without such AI capabilities cannot easily replicate. They note that when AI is deeply ingrained in content creation, it can generate unique insights and tailored approaches, giving the brand a point of differentiation (Cui et al., 2024). However, to realize this advantage, organizations must invest in the right AI training, data pipelines, and creative strategies so that the AI's output truly aligns with what consumers value.

To sum up, personalized storytelling at scale is transforming the marketing paradigm from broadcasting to millions into conversing with millions one-on-one. Generative AI provides the means to automatically craft these individualized narratives across text, imagery, and interactive experiences. Early evidence (Matz et al., 2024; Bitra, 2025) shows that such tailored content is more engaging and can drive better outcomes, from click-through rates to customer satisfaction metrics. Brands that have embraced these techniques have reported improvements in customer engagement and loyalty due to the relevance of the content delivered. Still, success requires careful orchestration: robust data on consumer preferences, guardrails to protect privacy and avoid over-personalization, and human creative direction to maintain authenticity and brand coherence. AI-powered storytelling should feel to the consumer like the brand truly “gets” them, while still feeling natural and respectful. When achieved, it creates a powerful bond—each customer's experience becomes a unique story in which the brand plays a meaningful, personalized role.

3. AI-Driven Emotional Content Creation

Emotion plays a central role in consumer decision-making and brand loyalty. People are more likely to remember and act on marketing that makes them feel something—whether it's joy, excitement, nostalgia, or even righteous anger in the case of a cause-related campaign. AI-driven emotional content creation refers to the use of generative AI to produce content that intentionally evokes or responds to human emotions. This can occur in a couple of ways: AI can generate content designed to trigger a target emotional response in an audience, and AI can also adapt content based on the detected emotional state of the user. Both approaches leverage AI's capability to analyze and produce nuanced language, imagery, and even sound that align with specific emotional tones.

One straightforward application is using generative AI to help create emotionally charged advertising or social media content. Marketers and copywriters often seek to craft messages or visuals that provoke feelings — for example, a heartfelt story for a charity appeal or an inspiring image for a sports

brand. Generative AI can assist by providing creative options and amplifying those emotional cues. You can prompt an AI to “write a touching story about how our product changes someone’s life” or “generate an image of a family sharing a warm, happy moment with our product,” and the AI will draw on patterns from countless similar narratives it has learned. This can surface angles or ideas the creative team might not have considered. By iterating with the AI’s suggestions, marketers can hone in on content that hits the right emotional notes. Moreover, AI can personalize emotional content: for instance, in an email campaign, the AI might draft different versions of a story for different segments — perhaps one version is more humorous and another more sentimental — depending on which tone past interactions suggest will resonate best with those readers.

A more interactive form of emotional content creation appears in AI-powered chatbots and virtual agents. These systems increasingly serve on the front lines of customer engagement, and their ability to convey empathy and warmth can significantly shape the customer’s emotional experience. Kumar et al. (2025) provide insight into how anthropomorphic generative AI chatbots — bots given human-like characteristics — can enhance customer engagement and experience. By giving a chatbot a persona (say, a friendly concierge or a witty advisor) and enabling it to use natural, emotionally aware language, customers begin to perceive the bot as more competent and warm (Kumar et al., 2025). In Kumar and colleagues’ model, when the chatbot used emotive expressions (for example, cheerfully saying “I’m happy to help!”), it increased the bot’s perceived authenticity and warmth. In turn, when customers felt the interaction was genuine and the “agent” was friendly, their engagement levels and overall experience improved (Kumar et al., 2025). This underscores that emotional content isn’t just about overt marketing messages; even functional interactions like customer service chats benefit from an emotionally intelligent approach. Generative AI systems can be trained on vast datasets of empathetic responses (for instance, customer support transcripts that earned high satisfaction ratings) to learn how to reply in ways that alleviate frustration and build rapport. They can also detect sentiment in a customer’s message — determining if the person sounds angry, confused, or happy — and then adjust their style accordingly. For example, the AI might offer an apology and extra reassurance if the customer is upset, or add enthusiasm and congratulations if the customer seems excited.

Beyond customer service, AI is also being explored in dynamic storytelling and entertainment contexts. AI systems can tailor narratives or recommendations based on a user’s emotional reactions. For example, a streaming service could use AI to analyze which scenes in a show the viewer responded strongly to — using implicit signals like pausing, rewatching, or even biometric data from a smartwatch — and then suggest content (or even generate trailers or summaries)

that emphasize those elements. In interactive storytelling such as video games or choose-your-own-adventure experiences, an AI “director” could adjust the storyline in real time to maximize the player’s emotional engagement — delivering a more intense challenge if the player appears bored, or easing up if the player seems frustrated. While these kinds of applications are still experimental, they point toward a future where emotional adaptation becomes the norm: the content isn’t static, but instead morphs in tone or intensity to keep each user in a desired emotional zone (be it comfort, thrill, etc.).

Crucially, AI-driven emotional content can help brands maintain a sense of empathy at scale — a known challenge as more interactions become digital. Ferraro et al. (2024) cautioned that heavy reliance on AI in customer service might reduce genuine empathy and human connection. To counteract that, newer generative AI systems are explicitly designed to simulate empathy. For instance, some advanced customer service AIs have built-in routines to explicitly acknowledge customer feelings (“I understand how frustrating that must be for you”) based on the context of the conversation. The AI doesn’t literally feel emotion, of course, but these empathetic touches can help customers feel heard. The success of this approach is mixed — some consumers appreciate the quick and courteous attention from an AI, while others still sense a lack of true human understanding. The goal for designers is not to fool people into thinking the AI is human, but to genuinely make the interaction pleasant and emotionally supportive. This circles back to the idea of humanizing the AI’s language: avoiding an overly robotic or scripted tone and instead using conversational, warm language. Humanizing an AI also means having it admit its limitations or mistakes (a form of humility that can endear it to users). Designing a virtual assistant to occasionally say something like, “I’m sorry, I’m just an AI and I don’t have the answer to that right now,” can paradoxically make it seem more relatable and less alien.

The mediums for emotional engagement span all the senses. Generative AI is increasingly being applied to auditory design: for example, systems can now compose music and soundscapes that adapt to an individual’s emotional state. A meditation app might use an AI music generator to create a soothing background track and, by drawing on real-time inputs from wearable sensors or a smartphone camera, adjust the composition if physiological signs indicate the user remains tense. In this way, the auditory environment becomes dynamically personalized, promoting deeper relaxation and engagement. In the visual realm, AI can tweak images to match different moods — using soft lighting and warm tones to evoke comfort, or bold contrasts and vivid colors to spark excitement. With these capabilities, marketing campaigns can be designed as complete emotional experiences. Instead of only writing the ad copy, an AI could also generate the

music and the visuals, each element working in concert to elicit a unified emotional response. Imagine an automotive commercial where the copy, the background music, and the imagery are all synergistically created by AI to evoke a sense of “adventure and freedom.” The text speaks about open roads, the music is an uplifting rock melody, and the images show sweeping mountain vistas. An AI can coordinate these elements more quickly than separate teams working in silos, because it understands the emotional concept and can execute it across multiple modalities.

While AI can help create content that resonates emotionally, oversight and authenticity remain critical. Truly authentic emotion in branding often stems from real human stories and genuine care — not just calculated sentimentality. Consumers are perceptive, and they may react negatively if emotional content feels formulaic or manipulative. There is a risk that if every piece of content is finely tuned to tug at heartstrings, audiences could become cynical or numb to it. Therefore, brands should use AI-driven emotional content judiciously and blend it with real human narratives (such as user-generated content or employee stories). An AI might suggest an emotional angle, but grounding that angle in actual customer experiences or genuine storytelling can make it far more believable.

Moreover, brands must uphold strict ethical standards when using emotion-targeting AI. For example, if AI analysis reveals that a user is emotionally vulnerable — perhaps going through a difficult time — it would be unethical to exploit that with manipulative content. There is active discussion around “emotional AI” and the ethics of affective computing in marketing. Regulations may eventually require that if an AI system monitors emotions (through a camera or text sentiment analysis), the user must be informed or give consent. Even without such laws, companies should self-regulate to avoid practices that could lead to backlash (Alsharif et al., 2025). It is interesting to consider that emotion detection and generation can form a feedback loop. For instance, an AI could be tasked with generating a piece of content — say, an image for an ad — and then use another model to predict the emotional impact that content would have on viewers. If the predicted impact isn’t strong enough, the AI can iterate, tweaking the content until the anticipated emotional response scores higher. This kind of loop is still emerging, but it draws on concepts from computational creativity and affective computing. The outcome could be ads or messages that have essentially been pre-tested for emotional effectiveness by AI models before a human audience ever sees them. It’s like having a built-in focus group within the AI’s creative process. Of course, these predictive models rely on generalizations and might miss nuances of real human emotion. But as training data grows (for example, large datasets where people’s emotional reactions to content are

recorded), the AI's predictions could become quite accurate. Joshi et al. (2025) note that while generative AI holds great promise for making customer experiences more emotionally engaging, concerns around ethics and security are significant barriers to full adoption. One of those concerns is precisely the careful handling of emotional data and the potential for AI to cross the line into manipulation. Thus, transparency and consumer education will be important. Companies might even include disclaimers such as “This virtual assistant detects sentiment to better assist you — no personal data is stored” to reassure users.

In a nutshell, AI-driven emotional content creation allows for more nuanced and responsive emotional connections with consumers. From empathetic chatbots that help customers feel heard (Kumar et al., 2025) to AI-generated campaign content that tugs at the soul, these technologies amplify marketers' ability to connect on a human level. They do so, however, with the aid of non-human intelligence, which is a delicate balancing act. As the industry evolves, the most successful uses of AI for emotional content will likely be those that remain authentically aligned with the brand's values and the customers' genuine needs. Human creativity and empathy should guide the AI's work, ensuring that the content not only drives emotional reactions but does so in a respectful, meaningful way. The goal is not to create emotion for emotion's sake, but to foster positive emotional experiences with the brand—experiences that build trust, loyalty, and long-term relationships..

4. Dynamic A/B Testing Based on Neurodata

Optimizing consumer experiences has long involved testing variations of content to see what works best — a practice commonly known as A/B testing (and its multivariate extensions). Traditionally, A/B testing might present two versions of a webpage or advertisement that differ in one element (say, different headline text or different color scheme), with traffic split between them to measure which performs better on a key metric (such as click-through rate or conversion). This process can be slow, requiring a large sample size and often testing only one hypothesis at a time. Dynamic A/B testing based on neurodata represents a frontier where generative AI and real-time biometric measurements converge to accelerate and enrich the optimization process. In this approach, instead of relying solely on end metrics like clicks or self-reported preferences, marketers incorporate neurodata — signals reflecting a user's subconscious reactions (attention, emotional arousal, engagement) — to evaluate content variants. Moreover, the term “dynamic” implies that the testing is continuous and adaptive: an AI can generate new variations on the fly and quickly pivot or refine content based on incoming data, essentially creating a closed-loop system of rapid experimentation and optimization.

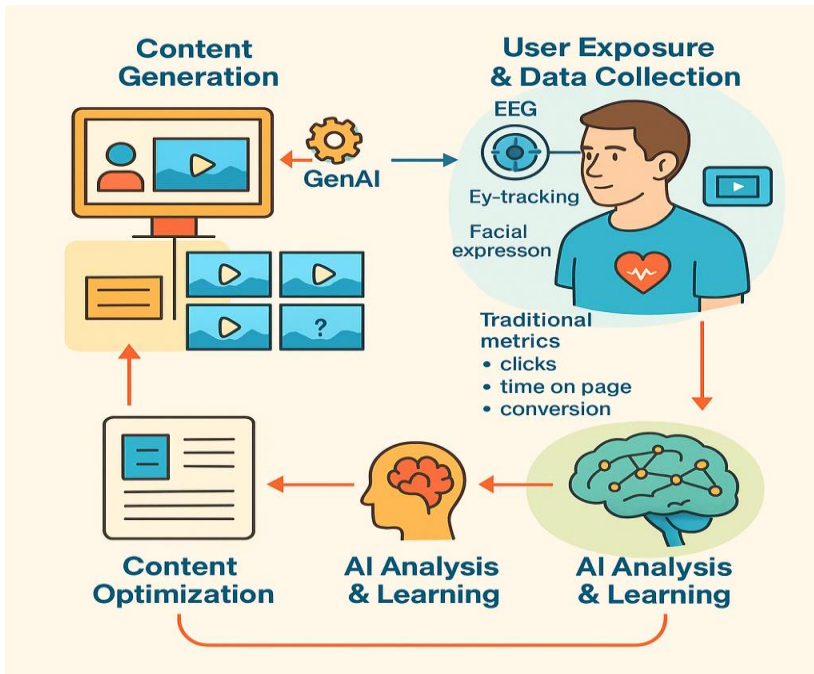


Figure 1. Generative AI personalization loop incorporating neurodata feedback for continuous content optimization. In this conceptual loop, generative AI creates multiple content variants which are tested with users. Neurodata and behavioral metrics from users are fed into the AI, which learns which elements drive engagement or desired reactions. The AI then refines the content in real-time or in rapid iterations, continually “closing the loop” between user feedback and content generation to personalize and

To illustrate, imagine trying to optimize a video advertisement. In a conventional A/B test, a marketer might create two versions of the ad and show each to a portion of the audience, then measure which version leads more viewers to visit the website. In a dynamic, neurodata-driven test, you could invite a smaller test audience equipped with biometric sensors (or use camera-based algorithms) to watch various ad versions while monitoring their real-time reactions. For example, you might track heart rate (as a proxy for excitement), facial expressions (smiles, frowns), eye gaze (to see which parts of the ad draw attention), and even EEG brainwave patterns if in a lab setting (to gauge engagement or memory encoding). Now, feed all this data to a generative AI system that has parameters controlling the ad’s content (the narration script, the sequence of images, the music choice, etc.). The AI might notice, for instance, that viewers’ attention consistently drops in the middle of the ad. In response, it can dynamically generate a new variation of that segment: perhaps shortening a

dull portion or inserting a more emotionally charged scene at that midpoint. This new variant can then be tested immediately with another set of viewers (or even the same viewers, in an adaptive sequence, taking care to manage order effects). Over multiple iterations, the system homes in on an optimal version of the ad that maintains high attention and positive emotion throughout. This process is far more efficient than manual A/B testing, and it leverages insights that traditional methods might miss. A human analyst might not be sure why version A outperformed version B – was it the image, the wording, the pacing? – but neurodata can provide granular clues (for example, “people’s pulses quickened during scene X, indicating excitement, but tailed off when the background music changed at scene Y”). The AI can then adjust specific elements accordingly.

To help illustrate these ideas, Table 1 presents a few hypothetical examples of neurodata-informed prompt engineering — essentially showing how insights from neuromarketing data can be translated into actionable instructions for a generative AI system.

Neurodata Insight	Prompt Engineering	Intended Effect on Content Strategy
Eye-tracking shows users consistently focus on human faces in ads (indicating attention capture by faces).	Instruct the image generation AI: “Create an advertisement visual that prominently features a friendly human face making eye contact with the viewer.”	The generated ad image will likely include a face as a focal point, grabbing viewers’ attention and fostering an emotional connection (as humans are drawn to faces).
EEG readings indicate a spike in engagement when a surprise element occurs in a narrative.	Prompt the text generation AI: “Write a product story that includes an unexpected plot twist or surprise benefit halfway through.”	The resulting story will incorporate a surprising element, aiming to sustain attention and emotional engagement at the midpoint, preventing drop-off in interest.
Galvanic skin response (GSR) increases (higher arousal) when background music tempo rises during an ad.	Instruct a generative audio AI: “Compose background music for the video ad that starts calm and gradually increases in tempo and intensity towards the end.”	The tailored music builds up excitement as the ad progresses, aligning with viewers’ physiological arousal patterns to maximize excitement at the climax.

Facial expression analysis shows micro-frowns (confusion) whenever technical jargon appears on screen.	Adjust the content generation prompt: “Explain the product features in simple, jargon-free language, using relatable examples.”	The AI will produce simpler, clearer descriptions, reducing viewer confusion and instead eliciting understanding (possibly measured as relaxed or positive facial expressions).
fMRI data (in a lab test) reveals strong activation in reward centers when an ad highlights a personal achievement (e.g., completing a marathon with the product’s help).	Prompt the ad copy AI: “Emphasize personal achievement and success stories involving the product in the ad script.”	The generated ad copy will focus on achievement-oriented messaging, aiming to trigger positive emotional responses and a sense of reward in viewers, as indicated by neurodata.

Table 1 Hypothetical examples of neuro-informed prompt engineering

In these examples, a clear pattern emerges: neurodata insights lead directly to specific content adjustments. The prompt given to the generative AI is informed by what the neurodata suggests about the user experience. This approach can guide the AI to produce content that is more “brain-friendly” and emotionally resonant. It’s akin to having a neuroscience expert whispering in your AI’s ear, saying “hey, people pay more attention to faces — use one here” or “that wording is confusing them — try simplifying it.” Prompt engineering thus becomes a crucial skill for putting neuromarketing findings into practice.

Looking ahead, as wearable technology and integrated sensors become more common — think of AR/VR headsets with built-in eye and facial tracking, or even EEG headbands used for gaming and meditation — the gap between lab-gathered neurodata and real-world data will narrow. This could allow many consumers to implicitly “vote” with their brainwaves and biometrics on what content they prefer, all in real time. Generative AI combined with such feedback loops might lead to highly optimized, even hyper-personalized, content delivery where each individual gets the version of a message that their subconscious responds to best. It’s a bit like personalized tuning: the AI fine-tunes the experience to your mind’s unique frequency.

To conclude, dynamic A/B testing with neurodata represents a powerful intersection of AI creativity and human biology insight. It supercharges the optimization of consumer experiences by moving beyond clicks and surveys into the realm of attention and emotion as measured directly from the body and brain.

Early evidence and theoretical work (Alsharif et al., 2025) suggest significant potential for improving marketing effectiveness and user enjoyment through these methods. Nevertheless, this approach must be pursued with due caution regarding privacy and user rights. If done transparently and ethically, consumers could benefit from content that is genuinely more engaging and less annoying (since it's optimized to hold attention naturally, rather than through intrusive tricks). The brand, in turn, benefits from higher-impact communications and possibly shorter creative development cycles. The technology and methodology are still evolving, but the direction is clear: the future of experience design will likely involve AI not just as a content creator, but as an experimenter and optimizer that learns directly from our neurological and physiological feedback.

5. AI and Sensory Branding Integration

Humans experience brands not only through words and images, but through all five senses. Sensory branding is the practice of designing brand experiences that engage sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell in a harmonious way to influence customers' perceptions and behaviors. Classic examples include the signature scent in a luxury hotel, the distinctive tactile feel of a smartphone's materials, the fizzing sound of a beverage being opened, or the consistent visual style and color palette of a brand's stores and packaging. Integrating generative AI into sensory branding opens up new possibilities: AI can help create and customize sensory elements that were once solely the domain of human designers and experts, making multi-sensory experience design more dynamic and personalized.

One area where we see this is visual branding. Generative AI image models (such as DALL-E or Midjourney) can produce visual designs, logos, and advertisements that adhere to a brand's style guidelines while also tweaking elements for different contexts or audiences. For example, an AI might generate a series of store layout mockups or billboard designs optimized for different cultures or locales, all while maintaining the core brand imagery. It can also create endless variations of a product mockup in various color combinations or packaging styles, which human teams can then evaluate (possibly with consumer feedback) to pick the most appealing option. This accelerates the visual design process and can yield creative ideas a design team might not have initially considered. AI can even be used to predict which color or visual style might evoke a desired emotion in a target audience – for instance, analyzing millions of images and their emotional impact to suggest which shade of blue would convey trust versus which might convey energy for a particular demographic. Motoki, Low, and Velasco (2025) discuss a framework where generative AI contributes to sensory and consumer research. Part of that involves using AI to generate stimuli for consumer tests. Instead of manually photographing or rendering numerous

product variations, an AI can imaginatively explore “what if we tweaked this visual element,” with AI ensuring the output still looks professional and coherent.

Sound and music are another sensory domain being transformed by AI. Brands often use jingles, background music, or specific tones (think of the Netflix “tadum” sound) as part of their identity. Generative AI models for music and audio enable brands to create custom soundscapes quickly. Moreover, these AI tools can adapt music to context. A practical application: a retail store could have an AI-driven system that generates background music in real time, tailored to the current shoppers. If the store is full and energetic, the music might automatically become more upbeat; if there are fewer shoppers on a Sunday morning, it might be calmer. The music remains on-brand by training the AI on the brand’s preferred genre or instrumental style, but it’s flexible to the moment. Sound can also be personalized: consider an app where the notification sound changes subtly based on the user’s behavior (for example, a fitness app’s alert might sound more triumphant as the user reaches a goal, using an AI-generated fanfare riff). Beyond music, AI can generate voice and dialogue – brands are increasingly creating custom voice assistants with unique “brand voices.” Generative voice AI allows a brand to have a signature tone and manner of speaking (male/female, formal/friendly, etc.), which can be integrated across phone support, smart speaker apps, etc. These voices can be created to be pleasant and clear (based on training data of voices people respond well to), and even multilingual, ensuring the brand’s aural presence is consistent globally.

When it comes to touch (tactile) and product feel, generative AI works a bit differently since it cannot directly produce physical sensation, but it can aid in designing products and environments that deliver certain tactile experiences. For example, in material design, AI can predict textures or ergonomic shapes consumers will prefer. An AI can generate hundreds of product form prototypes (shapes of a bottle, or patterns for a textile) and even simulate how they might feel (via physics engines and known properties of materials). Then human designers can refine the ones that align with the brand’s desired tactile identity (say, smooth and cool to the touch for a high-tech gadget, or warm and soft for a comforting home product). In architecture and interior design of retail spaces, AI generative models can propose layouts and decor that influence how customers physically experience the space. Perhaps an AI suggests using certain materials or arrangements that subconsciously guide customers to feel more at ease (like more open spaces, rounded edges on furniture, etc., which research often shows can affect comfort). These suggestions could be based on analyzing tons of prior data on store designs and customer dwell times or satisfaction.

Scent and taste, often the most challenging in branding, are seeing early involvement of AI too. While an AI can’t smell or taste in the way humans do, it

can analyze data about chemical compositions and human preferences. In the fragrance industry, AI algorithms (like IBM's Philyra system) have been used to create new perfume formulations by analyzing thousands of ingredients and successful perfume recipes, then proposing novel combinations that a human perfumer might not have tried. These AI-generated scents are then physically blended and tested by humans, of course, but the creative leap came from AI processing massive datasets of sensory input (Cui et al., 2024 touch on competitive advantages through novel AI-generated outputs that are hard to replicate – a unique scent could be one such output). Similarly, in flavors, AI is employed by some companies to suggest flavor pairings or even entirely new flavors predicted to be appealing, by analyzing big data of recipes, molecular profiles, and consumer reviews. A brand could potentially use such AI to develop signature flavors (like a special edition beverage flavor) that align with its identity (e.g., an adventurous brand might have AI concoct a bold, unusual flavor that still pleases the palate). These developments mean sensory branding can enter a phase of rapid innovation: rather than relying purely on the slow process of human trial and error in R&D, AI can dramatically accelerate idea generation for sensorial elements.

Now, integration is key: the true power of sensory branding is when multiple senses work together to reinforce a message or feeling. AI can help ensure this coherence across sensory channels. For example, suppose a car brand wants to evoke luxury. The AI might be used to generate visual patterns for the car's interior that say "luxury" (perhaps inspired by luxurious textures like marble or fine leather), generate a custom fragrance for the car's new model that gives a subtle rich scent, and compose a little melody that plays when the car starts, all aligning with the same emotional tone. Ensuring these elements all hit the same note (metaphorically speaking) can be guided by AI analyzing the emotional valence of each element. Velasco and colleagues (including Carlos Velasco, the researcher known for work on multi-sensory marketing) would appreciate that AI can serve as a tool in what is often called "sensory congruence" – making sure the stimuli complement each other. For instance, an AI could evaluate if the chosen color palette for a product's packaging matches the flavor profile (there's research showing that certain colors can enhance or detract from perceived taste). Through machine learning on past studies (like people tend to think pink drinks are sweeter, etc.), an AI might suggest a color tweak to better fit a new candy's taste as part of brand experience.

The personalization angle also extends into sensory experiences. We might see a future where the ambient aspects of an experience adapt to individual preferences thanks to AI. If a smart store's system recognizes (via an app or loyalty program) that a particular returning customer prefers a certain music style

or has fragrance sensitivity, the environment could adjust – perhaps the AI chooses a neutral scent mode and softer lighting for them. Or in personal devices, consider a VR or AR experience: generative AI can tailor the visuals and sounds to each user’s reactions (similar to the neuro-adaptive content in Section 4). In a virtual store, if the user spends more time looking at one type of product, the AI could subtly amplify sensory cues associated with that product category (e.g., if looking at a virtual coffee section, the system might generate a faint coffee aroma using IoT scent diffusers, if available, to immerse the user).

We should acknowledge that not all sensory aspects are easily digitally mediated. Touch, taste, and smell often require physical presence or devices. However, modeling and predicting sensory responses is where AI shines, bridging the gap until those physical elements are implemented. Eilert and Robinson (2025) offer a perspective on using GenAI to empower consumers with disabilities in co-creating servicescape information design. While their focus is on inclusion (for example, an AI helping adapt signage or information in an environment to be more accessible), it dovetails with sensory design—because a truly accessible environment often means engaging senses in multiple ways (e.g., adding auditory cues for those who cannot see well, or tactile feedback for those who cannot hear). Their framework implies AI could assist in customizing the sensory layout of an environment to individual needs (Eilert & Robinson, 2025). This is a powerful notion: generative AI could help create a variant of a sensory experience (like the music volume, signage contrast, even floor texture) that best suits an individual, especially someone with specific sensory sensitivities or requirements. In terms of branding, it suggests that AI can ensure a brand’s experience is not one-size-fits-all, but rather inclusive and adaptable without losing brand identity. For example, an AI might generate an alternate version of a theme park’s map with enhanced contrast and simpler labels for a dyslexic visitor, or produce a scent-free version of a store’s atmosphere for someone with allergies, all while maintaining the essence of the brand’s look and feel in those adapted outputs.

Integrating AI into sensory branding also offers efficiency and consistency. Traditionally, brands might rely on separate experts (perfumers for scent, graphic designers for visuals, architects for spaces, etc.), and alignment among them is an iterative, time-consuming affair. AI can serve as a common assistant across these domains – a repository of brand sensory knowledge that any team member can query. For instance, a team could ask an AI: “Generate ideas for a holiday-themed variation of our brand’s store scent and matching in-store music.” The AI, knowing the brand’s usual sensory profile, can suggest options that are festive yet on-brand (maybe adding notes of pine and cinnamon to the scent, and including subtle sleigh-bell tones in the music, hypothetically). This cross-

sensory suggestion capability means the brand can rapidly prototype multi-sensory campaigns. Matharoo (2024) highlighted how generative AI in retail not only improves operational efficiency but also transforms customer experience by anticipating preferences. Part of anticipating preferences is delivering the right sensory cues that make a customer feel comfortable and inclined to purchase. For example, AI could analyze time-of-day and customer demographics to adjust lighting and temperature in a smart store for optimal comfort – cooler lights and mild scent in the morning, warmer lights and stronger scent cues in the evening rush when people are tired and need a pick-me-up atmosphere. These changes may seem subtle, but collectively they elevate the experience.

Of course, brand consistency must be guarded. There's a risk if AI starts generating too freely that a brand might lose coherence. It's essential that AI is fed with the brand's core sensory guidelines and values. Essentially, the AI should operate as an extension of the brand team, not an autonomous creator. Human brand managers and sensory experts will still set the direction (for instance, defining that the brand's scent palette is floral and woody, not citrus, or that the brand's sound should always be soft and melodic, not loud or jarring). The AI then works within those guardrails to explore variations. Many companies will likely create proprietary AI models trained specifically on their brand assets and history, which means the AI can generate new content in the "voice" of the brand across senses.

In terms of consumer impact, when AI-enhanced sensory branding is executed well, consumers may simply perceive a seamless, immersive experience without realizing AI had a hand in it. They might walk into a store and just feel that everything "clicks" – the visuals, the music, the ambiance – not knowing that an AI helped fine-tune each element. Ideally, that translates to stronger brand recall and preference. Research in sensory marketing has shown that multi-sensory consistency can enhance memory: e.g., if a certain sound is always paired with a certain visual logo, people remember the brand better than with visual alone. AI can help find those optimal pairings and ensure they're repeated correctly.

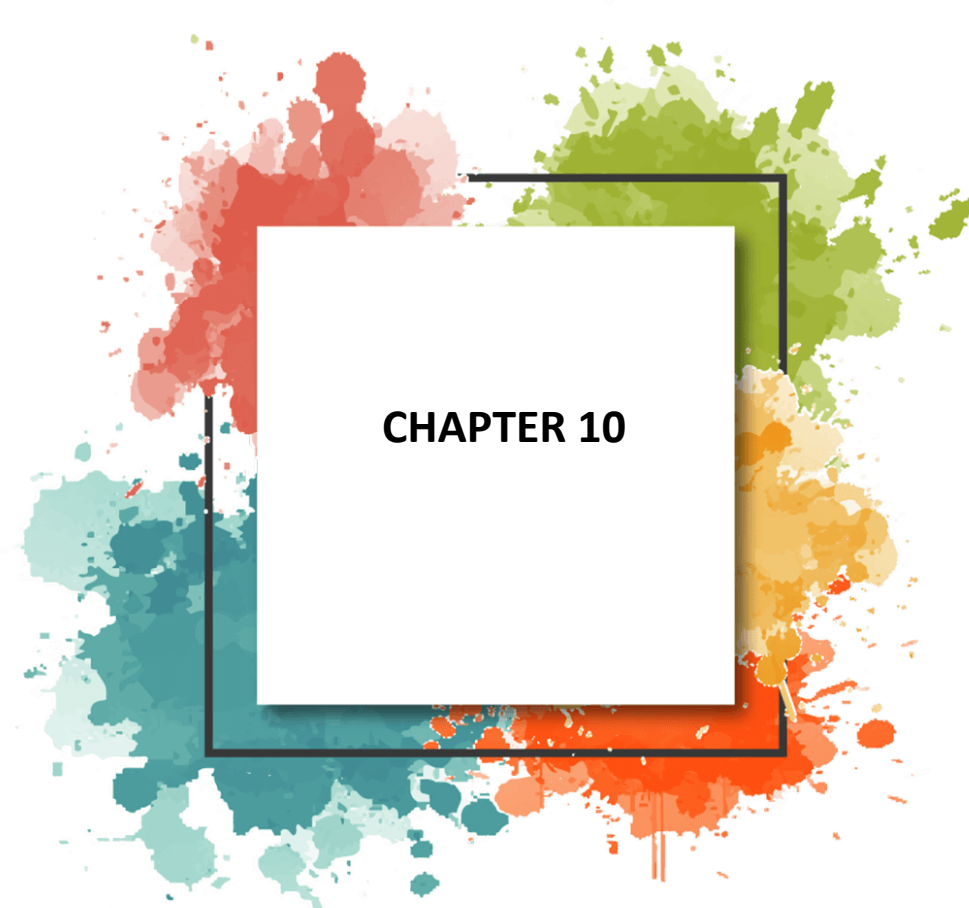
Looking ahead, as technology like AR/VR grows, sensory integration with AI will become even more critical. In a virtual environment, generative AI might literally create everything the user sees and hears, meaning it's fully in control of sensory branding. This could be a virtual car showroom where the AI generates the showroom design, the lighting, the background music, all interactive based on user's actions. Sensory branding in such digital spaces will depend on AI to a great extent for scalability. Yet brands will need to maintain human oversight to keep experiences genuine and not overwhelming. There's a fine line between an immersive sensory experience and sensory overload – AI might not inherently know human limits, so human testing and feedback loops remain vital.

All in all, integrating generative AI into sensory branding allows brands to expand their creative horizons across sight, sound, touch, taste, and smell, while also tailoring and optimizing these sensory elements for different contexts and individual preferences. By leveraging AI's generative and analytical powers, companies can design richer, more cohesive multi-sensory experiences that reinforce brand identity in innovative ways. Importantly, AI can democratize some aspects of sensory design – bringing data-driven insights to what has historically been an intuitive art. But the art and science must blend: the best outcomes will occur when AI's suggestions are guided by human brand vision and when final sensory experiences are vetted through human sensibilities. Ultimately, consumers engage with brands through their senses every day; with AI's help, those engagements can become more engaging, personalized, and memorable, provided that technology is used responsibly and creatively. The result is a humanized use of AI – where even though algorithms might be generating the stimuli, the goal is to create an experience that feels deeply human, resonant, and authentic to the consumer.

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CHAPTER 10

Digitalization in Preservation Function of Art Museums and Galleries*

Atiye Güner¹

Introduction

International Council of Museums (ICOM), in its 2007 and 2022 museum definitions; He emphasized that museums are permanent, inclusive institutions that communicate with the society, serve the development of society, and research, transfer, preserve, interpret and exhibit cultural heritage. Art galleries, like museums, are institutions that create cultural memory in society, and today the functions of art museums and galleries are similar. The increasing importance of the concepts of preservation and transfer of culture and cultural values draws attention to the conservation functions of museums and galleries. The primary duty of museums and galleries is to create the necessary physical conditions for the protection of their collections and to ensure their continuity.

Museum/gallery objects must be physically protected, recorded and archived. In today's world where digital technology is developing rapidly, the development of functions such as digital storage, provision of physical conditions with digital technology, and digital curation requires museums/galleries to use digital document/archiving standards and therefore develop digital preservation strategies. In addition, there is no agreed upon method for the preservation of time-based and digital art. A separate strategy should be determined according to the characteristics of each work. The purpose of this research is to emphasize the importance of the preservation function in art museums and galleries and that art institutions must develop digital preservation strategies.

* This research has been adapted from the author's PhD Thesis Titled “The Effects Of Digitalization On Contemporary Art Museums And Galleries, which she did at Yıldız Technical University Institute Of Social Sciences in 2022.

¹ Associate professor Atiye Güner Hasan Kalyoncu University Gaziantep /Türkiye
ORCID: 0000-0003-4984-109X

Museums and galleries are institutions where cultural memory is formed, cultural objects, information and documents are preserved and transferred to the future. Issues such as social benefit, preservation of cultural heritage and transferring it to future generations have come to the fore in ICOM's definitions of museums since 2007. Therefore, in the new understanding of museology that has developed since the 1990s, it has been accepted that museums have three basic functions: preservation, research and communication. Other functions have been evaluated within these functions (Akmehmet, 2012, 195; Özkasım, 2012, 43; Weil, 2004, 75). The conservation function, which is among the primary responsibilities of museums; It covers the preservation, maintenance and keeping of museum objects in appropriate conditions so that they can be transferred to future generations. Suitable conditions include the restoration and conservation of objects and the establishment of appropriate storage systems (Ayaokur, 2014, 21-22). The conservation function is not limited to protecting the object, but also includes efforts to transfer object information to future generations. The process of structuring the inventory, catalog and other information resources to be kept for the collection is also within the preservation function.

Despite all the mystery of art and the paradox of marketing, art galleries have been seen as the most important intermediaries and gatekeepers in the art market (Resch, 2018, 10), and today, art galleries aim to obtain commercial profit, create artistic value and add this value to the socio-cultural structure of society. . Therefore, art museums and galleries today have similar functions and goals.

Today, the rapid development of digital technology has highlighted the phenomenon of digitalization and digitalization processes have begun in art institutions, as in all institutions. Museums and galleries have begun to create digitalization strategies by using digital technology in all their functions. Security measures taken with digital technology. Today, digital recording and protection of museum and gallery objects in the digital environment and digitalization in the communication function are included in the digitalization strategies of institutions. This research will focus on digital preservation. Digital preservation and archiving are two concepts that are often used interchangeably. In the research, it was assumed that digital preservation and archiving are closely related to each other and they were briefly mentioned together.

Method

In this research, the qualitative research method was used as the method, and in depth interviews were conducted with the managers of contemporary art museums and galleries, which were determined as samples, via, e-mail or digital platform. The institutions that constitute the sample of the research are art institutions in Turkey; Akbank Sanat, Arter, Arton, Baksı Museum, Borusan Contemporary, Elgiz Museum, Kasa Gallery Pi-artworks, Pera Museum and

Zilberman Gallery. Interviews with the managers of these institutions are presented as an appendix in Atiye'Güner's doctoral thesis titled The Effects of Digitalization on Contemporary Art Museums and Galleries, which forms the basis of this study.

The interviewers and interview dates from the sample institutions are as follows. Each interviewee was given a code. and the codes of the interviewees are stated next to their names;

Ayda Elgiz Güreli (AG) The founder and the managing director of Elgiz Museum (19.08.2021)

Behiye Bobaroğlu (BB) The collection manager of Arter (29.07.2021)

Derya Yücel (DY) The managing director of the Kasa Gallery (16.06.2021)

Duygu Karaman (DK) The digital Content and International Media Manager of the Istanbul Modern Museum (17.11.2021)

Eda Deralı (ED) Pi art Works gallery manager (25.06.2021)

Eda Tekcan (ET) The founder and the managing director of IMOGA Museum (12.11.2021)

Eda Tekcan (M.ET) The gallery manager of Milli Reasürans Gallery (12.11.2021)

Engin Gerçek (EG) The photography and web designer of Milli Reasürans Gallery and IMOGA Museum (30.11.2021)

Firdevs Ev Şimşek(FŞ) The media and marketing officer of Arter (29.07.2021)

Hüsamettin Koçan(HK) The founder and general director of Baksı Museum (13.07.2021)

Kerimcan Güleriyüz (KG) The founder and general director of Empire Project (13.09.2021)

Kumru Eren (KE) The managing director of Borusan Contemporary (26.07.2021)

Moiz Zilberman (MZ) owner and general manager of Zilberman Gallery (30.06.2021)

Oktay Duran (OD) The founder and general manager of Art On Gallery (30.06.2021)

Osman Serhat Kahraman (OSK) The digital preservation manager of Sabancı Üniversitesi Sakıp Sabancı Müzesi (30.11.2021)

Özalp Birol (ÖB) The general manager of Pera Museum (26.05.2021)

Zeynep Arınç (ZA) The director of Akbank Art (21.06.2021)

This research is examined in seven sections. The **introduction** provides information about the research subject. In the second part, **the method** of the research is emphasized. In the third chapter, titled **Purposes of Digitalization in the Function of Preservation**, why art institutions are turning to digitalization in the function of preservation is examined. Digital Curation involves the active management of digital objects. Therefore, it also includes the concept of protection. This situation is examined in the fourth chapter called **Digital Curation**. One of the biggest challenges that museums face in their conservation functions is the preservation of time-based art and digital art. This subject is examined in the fifth chapter, titled **Preservation of Time-based Art and Digital Art**. In the sixth section titled **Digital Technologies Ensuring the Security of Artifacts and Physical Space in Museums and Galleries**, digital security used for works exhibited in physical spaces is discussed. In the seventh section, the data obtained from the interviews with the contemporary art museums and galleries, which constitute the sample of the study, are examined by the content analysis method. In the conclusion part, a conclusion is held out in light of all the findings.

Purposes of digitalization in the protection function

Digital preservation is a planned process that covers the preservation of readable computer files against possibilities such as maintaining their usability, extending their life, ensuring their adaptation to new environments, physical loss and technological obsolescence (Çakmak, 2016, 27). Digitalization projects in art institutions are carried out for various purposes. The purposes of the preservation and research function in institutions' digitalization projects can be listed as follows.

- Awareness: Digitization increases the awareness of original collections by making the collection accessible to a wider audience.
- Access: Digitization makes the collection accessible to existing or new users to increase its use. Research on digitalization in cultural and artistic institutions shows that there is a balance between expanding access and long-term preservation in digitalization processes (Çakmak, 2016, 18).
- Analysis and research: Digital technologies open new avenues for analysis and research within the collection.

- Preservation and conservation: The use of digital recordings prevents the wear and tear caused by the use of analog materials. Digitization also enables the establishment of a mechanism for conservation (Ayaokur, 2014, 90).

Additionally, three different types of digitalization can be mentioned in the field of conservation and research (Çakmak, 2016, 19).

- Reproduction; It is the creation of a consistent replica of original sources such as audio, video and images in an electronic environment.
- Access; It is the process of digitization to provide access to the original source. The aim here is to create usable copies of scanned and indexed documents such as contracts and letters.
- Period; It is the transfer of physical information in the analog environment to the electronic environment in order to configure automatic collection management systems.

There are a number of legal, economic and institutional problems that institutions face while preparing policies and strategies for the conservation purposes in question (Çakmak, 2016, 33-34). For example, obsolescence of the technology used is an important problem. Therefore, cost is an important issue. In addition, problems such as copyright and intellectual property rights, business processes, access, and the inadequacy of staff in digital matters are faced.

Today, a contemporary art institution's digital library, collection and archive are an integral part of its goals. In some cases it replaces the traditional library and archive, and large amounts of resources are allocated to the creation of increasingly sophisticated digital systems. Associated with digital libraries are digital collections, which together with services and infrastructure are typically components of digital libraries. Digital collections consist of digital objects that are digital representations of physical items or designed digitally and placed side by side by an individual or institution (Dickson, 2008, 341). Digital objects can represent information in numerous formats, such as books, newspapers, photographs, maps, and art objects. The purpose of a digital collection is generally defined in two ways. First; The aim is to make items that have limited access due to their formats and physical locations accessible on digital platforms. The second is to protect these items, to which the institution limits physical access in order to protect them, by providing a digital proxy.

Finding parts of individual or group objects in the museum and knowing who entered the system, when and at what time can be achieved thanks to inventory information systems. In this regard, documenting and inventorying the works with digital archive methods becomes important (Erbay, 2018b, 215). Digital

archiving is also important for the sustainability of a museum because all kinds of objects, information, documents and documents that are museum objects can be continuously recorded using digital methods. Preserving the existence of the museum and ensuring its sustainability is secured with these records. The reasons for using digital elements in a museum's archive can be listed as follows (Durakoğlu, 2018, 45).

- Digital tools make visual archiving more detailed.
- Digital tools make it easier to export archived works and share images electronically.
- If the works are damaged in any way, the continuity of museums can be ensured by using digital samples.
- The harms of worn-out artifacts in the digital environment are eliminated; It is possible to show the original version of the works.
- Digital archiving is costly; but in the long run the cost of works is cheaper than the maintenance costs.
- With digital archiving, it is easy to share works virtually abroad; In this way, the museum collection can be exhibited in remote parts of the world.

The development of digital collection management began in the 1980s. With the studies carried out on this subject in the 1990s and the joint efforts of institutions, the usefulness of digital libraries and collections has become a focus of increasing interest for cultural/art institutions (Dickson, 2008, 341). By the late 1990s, content management systems that provide a suite of software tools for creating and managing digital collections became commercially available to libraries and repositories. In the late 1990s, a variety of software was designed in response to the need for a system specifically for managing digital collections of cultural heritage materials such as rare books and other publications, manuscripts, objects of art, and the like. These software are designed to meet the needs of a wide range of users, including universities, public libraries, museums, galleries, commercial and government agencies, and non-profit organizations.

Digital Curation

Today, the data obtained by digitizing analog data and the so-called born digital (Primary Sources at Yale, [2021]) websites, e-mail, digital photographs and electronic records, etc. constitute a very large data stack. There are many standardized applications for the production, management of digital objects, protection, storage and access of this large data accumulation without damage.

Digital curation involves actively managing digital objects over time. Digital curation includes digital preservation, data and electronic records management, and digital asset management (Molloy, 2014, 9). The Digital Curation Center (DCC) has proposed the Curation Life Cycle Model (Figure 1) to demonstrate the actions and processes required to preserve digital objects and e-literature (Higgins, 2008, 136).

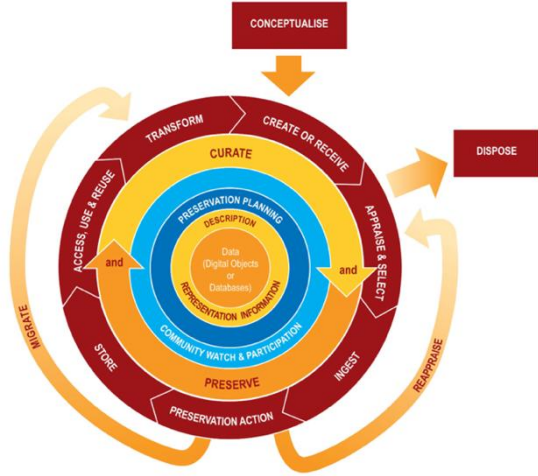


Figure 1: The DCC Curation Lifecycle Model

Higgins, Sarah. The DCC Curation Lifecycle Model. **The International Journal of Digital Curation**. c. 1. s. 3: 136.

The stages seen in the figure can be expressed as follows (Karadağ, Külcü, 2019, 333-334):

Conceptualise:Designing and planning the creation of digital objects.

Production (Create):Producing digital objects.

Access and use:To provide easy access and use of digital objects. For the security of some objects, access must be limited or with special permission.

Appraise and select:Before choosing digital objects, you should evaluate them and choose those that require long-term preservation. Policies and legal regulations must be followed when performing these operations.

Dispose:To sort out objects that have not been selected for long-term preservation within the framework of legal regulations.

Transfer (Ingest):To ensure the transfer of digital objects within the framework of legal regulations and policies.

Preservation action:To work to ensure the long-term preservation of the digital object.

Reappraise:Not leaving any digital objects that need to be sorted by re-validation and evaluation.

Store:To store digital objects within the framework of specified standards.

Access and reuse:To make the digital object ready for reuse by ensuring access to it after passing through all stages.

Transform:Converting the digital object to a different format.

This model places the digital object at its center, surrounded by activities that are constantly required throughout the entire lifecycle of the digital object for sustainable curation to occur. These activities are represented by three concentric layers surrounding the digital object. In this way, the model shows that the digital object must be associated with description information in the form of appropriate metadata throughout its lifecycle. Representation information is also constantly required, planning for the management and administration of digital improvement actions throughout the object is also constantly required. Continuous interaction within the broader digital curation community is also advocated by this model. Surrounding these continuous activities are sequential actions and processes involved in improving and protecting the object. The conceptualization of the object results in its creation or retrieval.

Digital curation is often used synonymously or interchangeably with digital preservation, Digital preservation refers to all actions required to maintain access to digital materials beyond the limits of media failure or technological change (Molloy, 2014, 10). However, as the DCC Curation Lifecycle Model makes clear, digital curation includes and integrates the goals and activities of digital preservation, expressed as a phase in the Lifecycle Model, explicitly involves the conceptualization of a digital object, and throughout the entire lifecycle of the digital object, new information extends to the capacity to transform thought or action

Külcü (2010, 292) says that the concept of life cycle, on which document management approaches in the digital system are based, has been replaced by the records continuum approach. While the traditional life cycle approach defines document processes linearly in the production, editing and sorting process, in the document continuity approach, documents can be identified in more than one environment and under different conditions at the same time. It is possible to say that digital preservation has become an important document management element. From the perspective of art institutions, cultural data that can be

identified under different conditions and in more than one environment at the same time ensures the sustainability of institutions on a global scale.

Digital collections and archives must be protected, secure and accessible just like collections and archives. That's why standards developed in the fields of digital curation are needed in museums and galleries. Digital compilation standards are needed to ensure access and use during the life cycle of the created digital object. In this context, internationally, Access to Cultural Heritage Network Across Europe (ATHENA), Light Information (for) Describing Objects (LIDO) and Spectrum standards are frequently used (Karadağ, Külçü, 2019, 335).

ATHENA creates new digital content by providing content from all museums in Europe. Compliance of new content with standards and legal regulationseuropanaIt aims to reach a larger number of users with a data set containing originality and diversity by enabling them to participate in (Karadağ, Külçü, 2019, 335). LIDO is an XML collation and digital curation standard frequently used in museums. "LIDO aims to bring together collection management systems and catalog databases with different metadata formats on a common platform; It can be used for data of all kinds of collection objects such as cultural, historical, architectural, natural history" (Ayaokur, 2014, 51). Spectrum, the UK collection management standard, which is widely used in many countries around the world, is also considered a digital curation standard. Today, Spectrum version 5.0 continues to be used. The processes that museums must follow are specified in both parts of the standard, which consists of two parts. "With this feature, the standard, which offers a practical method for application, is widely used in other countries, especially in England" (Ayaokur, 2014, 48).

Digital art and preservation of time-based art

Time-based art is defined as works of art that have a specific duration, including film, video, digital, audio, computer-based, web-based, performance and installation art (Interviews, [01.11.2021]). Time-based art works consist of technology-based components that present particular challenges for preservation, documentation, placement and acquisition. Generally, time-based media are video, slide, film, audio, or computer-based.

Theoretical approaches to preserving timeless artworks and digital art were developed in the 1990s. Ben Fino-Radin ([01.11.2021]), associate media conservator and director of digital repository design at MoMA (2013-2017), argues that those who preserve time-based art works are not only experts in theory and ethics, but also deeply in touch with the material properties of the work. He emphasizes that they should be in a state of being. Fino-Radin and Glenn Wharton, who was a conservator at MOMA between 2007 and 2013 and founded the conservation program for video, performance and software-based collections

([01.11.2021]), say that the biggest project they manage is to create a reliable digital data repository and they ask MoMA They give examples. The digital repository for museum collections holds all innately digital and digitized materials in MoMA's collection. This ranges from software-based contemporary artworks to digitized film, and from video games to digitized video art.

According to Wharton; artworks have special needs that large digital archive collections often do not have. For example, 100,000 analog tapes cannot be digitized by simply placing them in a robotic digitizing system. This is because each artist has their own vision of how the public should experience their work. Therefore, not only technology but also artists' concerns about how the works should be exhibited should be addressed regarding preservation and storage. For example, in a software environment the artist may feel very strongly about equipment and operating system dependencies. Metadata fields and other ways are needed to document this, and therefore it is necessary to constantly monitor additional information and innovations. According to the needs of works of art, unlike the needs of digital archives; Specific metadata fields need to be developed and the database structured.

The artwork may change with each installation of time-honored artworks, so it is important to document the installation stages. So the next generation of museum staff can benefit from these documents to decide, or at least know, how it was established at different points in history. Floor plans for the exhibition, including the artist's views, and all details of the installation, including wall surfaces, paint or carpet types, light levels, sound levels and room size, should be recorded. This information should be placed somewhere in the collection management database.

The protection and conservation of time-based contemporary works of art is a field that should consist of more specific and diverse components.

Digital Technologies Ensuring the Security of Artifacts and Physical Space in Museums

Digitization of museum/gallery objects, digital archives and collections have made cyber security necessary. Cybersecurity refers to preventive methods used to protect the confidentiality, integrity and availability of data (Pryor, [01.05.2021]). Approaches to protect museums/galleries, information, intellectual property and computer networks from external, internal and hidden cyber threats should now be included in the protection strategies of these institutions. An effective cybersecurity approach should include network firewalls and gateways, anti-malware, user access management, and authentication controls.

Physical security problems in museums/galleries include events such as fire, disaster, theft, and storage problems. "Protecting priceless objects is a particularly challenging challenge for museums and galleries," says Ton Cremers, who has been an advisor to the security network of the Rijks Museum Amsterdam for fifteen years, with Rehnberg ([01.05.2021]). "He is faced with contradictory dilemmas such as giving a chance." This dilemma draws attention to the fact that protecting works in museums and galleries with only physical measures will be insufficient. A complete security solution for indoor, outdoor and exhibition space in museums/galleries should cover structural issues such as doors, locks, fences, bars, burglar-resistant glass and hanging systems. However, to complement physical measures, motion detection systems applied or included in the work of art, smart chips installed in the works, infrared systems, audio alarms, Close Circuit TeleVision (CCTV) systems and Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) and They are electronic solutions such as card and password systems at entrances and exits (Rehnberg, [01.05.2021]). The CCTV system and digitized records of the venue should be available indefinitely.

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RFID Technology is one of the wireless communication technologies. The RFID system consists of a reader, antennas and tags that are placed on objects or can be attached and removed (Maraşlı, Çibuk, 2015, 249).

Various chips are placed in the works to prevent them from being moved or stolen. Identity-recognizing smart chips and RFID technology are used to determine the identities and locations of lost artifacts. If the chips are loaded with the feature of storing data about their location, these chips can become information-carrying agents. Identifier chips in the form of barcodes are mounted on the artifacts and used to identify and locate the artifacts. Chips and barcodes; In addition to the information about the risky situation that the works face, it provides current information about the changes in the movements and situations of the works (Erbay, N.Ö., 2018, 288-289). It can be said that multi-layered measures, including physical and digital, are more effective against problems such as theft.

Findings and discussion

When the reason for digital strategy implementations was investigated, it was observed that almost all of the institutions interviewed saw creating a digital archive as a preservation strategy, and all 8 institutions that had collections saw digitizing their collections and archives as a preservation strategy at the same time.

3 of the 15 institution officials interviewed (OSK, KE, BB, EG) stated the importance of preserving works of art based on time and technology and the necessity of applying different methods in this regard.

3 of the 15 institution officials who participated in the meeting stated that the visibility of the institution on an international scale will increase with the digitalization of the collection and archive (BB, KE, DK).

The number of institution officials who stated that digitized works and documents should be protected materially and legally is 3 (KE, ET, M.ET).

It was stated by 3 institution officials (ED, MZ, KE) that by digitizing the collection and archive, easy access to works and artists is provided and the inventory and information system can be constantly updated and defects can be corrected.

An institution official (KG) states that digital technology is a protective tool that prevents time loss and paper waste, thus ensuring time management and ecological balance.

An institution official (KG) stated that digital preservation, that is, digitization of collections, would not be a real preservation.

An institution official (MZ) states that while the practices of gallery artists are archived on the digital platform, the authorized institution personnel gain in-depth knowledge, analysis and experience. Below are examples of the opinions of

the institution officials interviewed about the effects of the institutions' protection and research functions.

"We aim to make the works in our collection available to users from Turkey and all over the world; "We are preparing to run it as a digital project that will make not only Arter but also the works produced in this geography more accessible and increase their visibility in the long term" (BB).

"Yes... when digitizing the works, we have a barcode system and we switched to this out of great necessity. So, the first reason for our digitalization here was security. We are talking about 20000 paper works here" (ET).

"We use Artlogic's inventory creation option, Private Views. We upload our artists' inventory there. We can quickly add and remove items that are sold or changed. We can connect with relevant people through links" (ED).

"We cannot preserve the actual size and reality of works of art in the digital environment. But it has this benefit; For example, while an artist's catalogue was printed very thickly and expensively and was difficult to transport and access, technology has taken us beyond this" (KG).

"Digital-born works of art, and some works of art, some video art, some based on software, etc. The methods of protecting them are a little more complicated. Therefore, digital structures are needed for them too. You need to set up a digital warehouse. There are different software. I explained one of the ones we use. In addition to Museum System, we use Archivematica digital preservation software. With it, we take a fingerprint of each video. It's an exact fingerprint. After we take those fingerprints digitally, we transfer them to our central digital repository. After getting it here, it needs to be copied without any damage. Here are the systems we generally use when transferring. The software we use there is Archivematica. We use another system called DaVinci. "We use another system called Qstream" (OSK).

"There are two systems. Online and offline systems... For example, think of it like Spotify... First, we could archive music with MP3, but now we cannot archive it. The virtual tour is an online system, you cannot archive it or download it to your computer. "We are trying to do more permanent archiving with the offline system" (EG).

From the responses received, it has been observed that digitizing collections and archives is largely seen as a security and preservation strategy for contemporary art museums and galleries. It has been observed that the preservation of time-bound and digitally born works of art is an issue that has not yet been fully resolved, especially contemporary art museums have developed projects.

When the interviewed institution officials were asked the question "2. Is an international standard applied in your institution regarding digital archive and document creation (Digital curation, digital compilation)?", 4 out of 15 officials stated that they did not use international standards. 2 officials left this issue unanswered. 4 officials stated that they created their own digital archive systems. One of these institutions stated that they do not use international standards, but that they have created standards with details such as taking photographs of the exhibition images to be published on the website during the exhibition, taking high-resolution photographs, storing the exhibition images and artist correspondence separately, and storing financial and organizational information in different external files. The other institution emphasizes that they do not use international standards. stated that the simplest method when creating a standard is to create an Excel file and a PDF file with visuals.

From the answers received from the interviewees, the impact of applying international standards in digital curation or creating a different standardization with internationally accepted design standards on institutions is shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Effects of Standardization in Digital Curation on the Institution

Institution Officials	Systemization and institutionalization	time efficiency	Security and protection	Easy access inside and outside the company	Systematization of collection and archive	Ease of digital data and memory creation	Contribution to data sharing and collaborations on a global scale
Akbank Art							
art on							
ArterContemporary Art Center	X	X	X	X	X		
Baksi Museum	X	X	X	X	X	X	
BCSM	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Elgiz Museum		X		X		X	
Empire Project							
IMOGA			X				

Istanbul Modern Museum				X			X
Case Gallery	X	X		X			
MRS G			X				
Pera Museum							
Pi Artworks				X	X		
SSM	X	X		X	X	X	X
Zilberman Gallery			X	X			

Apart from the four institutions that left the question unanswered in this part of the interview, 5 of the 11 institution officials who answered it stated that compliance with international scales in digital curation practices has an impact on institutionalization and systematization.

Two institution officials emphasized that standardization in digital curation facilitates collaborations on a global scale and accelerates and facilitates data sharing on a global scale.

6 institution officials stated that the curation practices and standardization used are very effective in the field of protection and security.

6 institution officials stated that standardization in curation brings time efficiency.⁹ institution officials state that access to internal information and digital data of the institution from outside the institution has become easier.⁵ institution officials stated that standardization in digital curation systematizes the collection and/or archive. Four institution officials stated that standardization in digital curation leads to the formation of digital data and memory.

In the interviews, it is seen that digital curation is not yet fully understood as a concept. It has been observed that there is a lack of international standards used in creating digital information and documents and that the majority of the institutions interviewed are trying to create their own standards. From the statements of the interviewed institution officials, it was seen that the institutions were positively affected by international standard practices on curation, acceleration of internal and external access, effective time management and protection function.

The interviewed institutions were asked which digital applications they use for their collection and archive systems. 2 of the 8 institutions that have collections left unanswered the question of which digital systems they use for museums and collections and archive systems.

Officials of 3 of the 8 institutions that have collections stated that they use an application system called The Museum System (TMS) and that they have moved to an integrated structure with the eMuseum system, which they use as an interface on the website, to support TMS (OSK, BB, KE).

HK stated that they use Google drive and dropbox for digital storage and co-working spaces, and that they use Wetransfer for file transfers.

ET, M.ET and AG emphasized that they use special software for their collections and archives.

The effects frequently expressed by institution officials regarding the final effects of digitizing collections and archives on the institution are shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Frequently Expressed Impacts of Collection and Archive Digitization

Stated effect	Response frequency count
Security and protection	8
Easy access to works and artists	5
Distinction of digitization and preservation of digitally born works of art	4
Ensuring the visibility of the institution on an international scale	3
Continuously updating and improving the inventory system on the digital platform and providing solutions to possible problems	3
Material and legal protection of the collection and archive during storage and possible exhibition processes	3

We were asked whether contemporary art museums and galleries use digital methods to protect the physical assets of works of art, the physical spaces of art institutions and exhibition display areas, and the effects of these on the institution. The result is shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Digital Technology Applications Used for the Protection and Security of Artworks and Exhibition Venues

The most frequently mentioned methods in physical protection and security	Response frequency count
Security camera	5
Smart building; system to ensure moisture and heat balance of storage areas, depending on the material	8
Use of a device that provides daily digital reports against humidity and heat	3
Banderole and certificate attached to the works, smart chips attached to the back of the works	4

As seen in Table 3, the importance of humidity, light and heat balance in the physical protection of works is a subject that 8 out of 15 authorities elaborate on (BB, KE, AG, ET, DY, M.ET, ED, OSK). For example, while the temperature in

storage and exhibition areas is fixed at 18-21 °C for the protection of works containing both organic and inorganic materials, the relative humidity rate is 45% for metal, stone and ceramics; It states that organic materials such as wood, leather, paper and fabric should be fixed between 50-55%.

ET emphasizes that they digitally measure the temperature, light and humidity levels of the works in accordance with the preservation conditions.

3 institution officials (ET, M.ET, DY) stated that they use security cameras.

3 institution officials (ET, M.ET, KE) state that they use a barcode system for the security of the works. “Yes, we have a barcode system. In other words, when any work is removed from here, a certificate is prepared with its barcode and it is recorded in the inventory.”

KE states that SAP-based barcoding is designed on the inventory management side. HK stated that they used smart chips attached to the back of the works.

During the interviews, it was observed that new generation technologies such as RFID and IoT technology are not used to ensure the protection and security of works of art and exhibitions in the physical preservation and display of works in contemporary art museums and galleries.

Conclusion

The analyzes in this study found that art museums and galleries see the digitalization of physical collections and archives as a means of security and preservation. Digitized works and archives are physically protected. In addition, the fact that the meaning, size and reality of the digitized works and archives may change is a negative impact detected in the preservation and research function. Creating digital archives, digitally prepared catalogs, posters, etc. Compared to written and printed communication tools, it protects the ecological balance by preventing excessive waste of paper and prevents waste of time.

The preservation of technologically and time-dependent works of art has been identified as a project that cannot be fully agreed upon and resolved. For the installation of time-related works of art, it is recommended that museum/gallery staff receive training in art and art management. RFID, IoT, etc. are used in the physical protection of works. The use of new generation technologies are technologies that have not yet been fully adopted, but are thought to be adopted by institutions over time.

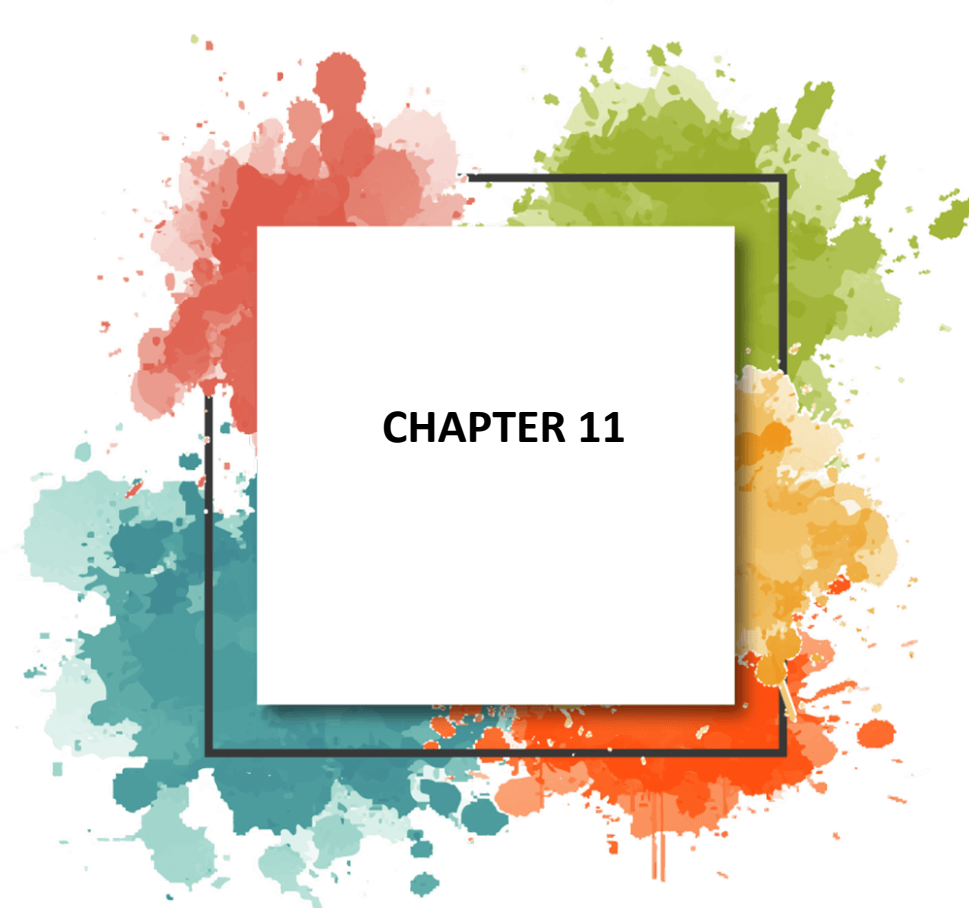
It has been determined that digital curation (compilation) is not yet fully understandable as a concept. Contemporary art museums and galleries have tried to create their own standards by mixing international standards in creating digital information and documents. It has been determined that in institutions that use

international curation standards, internal and external access is accelerated and has a positive impact on institutions in effective time management and preservation functions. According to the needs of works of art, unlike the needs of digital archives; Specific metadata fields need to be developed and the database structured.

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CHAPTER 11

Reframing Eurasian Security: The Arctic Dimension in The Foreign Policy of The Turkic States

Elnur Hasan Mikail¹ & Hakan Çora²

1. Introduction

In recent decades, the Arctic has risen from a relatively marginal region to a focal point of global strategic competition. Climate change, technological advances, and shifting energy politics have opened maritime routes, resource frontiers, and new arenas for geopolitical assertion (Hassan et al., 2015). Traditional Arctic powers such as Russia, Canada, the United States, and the Nordic states have long dominated debates over governance, security, and territorial claims. However, the expanding salience of the Arctic is prompting non-Arctic states to rethink their positions—and among them, the Turkic states are emerging as secondary actors with growing interests. The objective of this chapter is to analyze how and why states such as Türkiye, Kazakhstan, Azerbaijan, and others are reframing their foreign policy outlooks to include the Arctic dimension within a broader Eurasian security paradigm.

The rationale for this investigation is threefold. First, the changing Arctic landscape is reshaping global trade networks (e.g., Northern Sea Route, Northwest Passage) and energy corridors, which directly affect Eurasian connectivity strategies. The Turkic states, seeking to bridge Europe and Asia, view potential Arctic-linked routes and infrastructure as new opportunities for diversification and integration (Kuznecov & Smith, 2018). Second, the securitization of climate change and environmental risks in the Arctic is expanding the definition of security itself, compelling states to consider new domains of vulnerability, including maritime, ecological, and supply chain security (Friman & Thunberg, 2021). The Turkic states, particularly those with northern territories or strong environmental ties, face both opportunities and challenges in this emergent security paradigm. Third, in an increasingly multipolar world, the Arctic offers a venue for soft power projection, multilateral diplomacy, and regulatory engagement—spaces where middle powers and regional states can participate in global governance beyond traditional military domains (Young, 2016).

¹ Prof. Dr., Kafkas Üniversitesi, Kars, Türkiye, ORCID: 0000-0001-9574-4704

² Doç. Dr., Maltepe Üniversitesi, Maltepe, İstanbul TÜRKİYE, ORCID: 0000-0001-5780-549X

This chapter proceeds in six parts. Following this introduction, Section 2 presents the theoretical framework, drawing from securitization theory, regionalism studies, and the literature on climate geopolitics. Section 3 reviews existing research on non-Arctic states' approaches to the Arctic, as well as scholarship on Turkic foreign policies and Eurasian security. Section 4 delivers comparative case analyses of Türkiye, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan, exploring their Arctic-relevant strategies. Section 5 offers findings and implications for regional order, governance, and foreign policy, and Section 6 concludes by reflecting on the evolving significance of the Arctic in the Turkic states' strategic worldview. Through this lens, the chapter reframes Eurasian security to include a northern dimension that has recently been overlooked by conventional IR and regional studies.

2. Theoretical Framework

The integration of the Arctic into the foreign policy of the Turkic states requires a multidimensional theoretical approach that bridges traditional and nontraditional security paradigms. Classical geopolitics explains interstate competition over territory and resources, while newer frameworks such as securitization theory and environmental geopolitics address how non-military factors—especially climate change and technology—reshape strategic interests. This section delineates three interlocking analytical perspectives: (1) securitization and the expansion of the security agenda; (2) regionalism and multi-layered Eurasian cooperation; and (3) the emergence of environmental and Arctic geopolitics as a domain of global governance.

2.1 Securitization and the Expansion of the Security Agenda

The first theoretical lens is **securitization theory**, developed by the Copenhagen School, which argues that security is not only a material condition but also a discursive process (Buzan, Wæver, & de Wilde, 1998). Through speech acts, political elites define issues as existential threats, mobilizing extraordinary measures and new policy domains. In the context of the Arctic, securitization extends beyond military rivalry to encompass environmental, technological, and economic dimensions. As melting ice caps expose new maritime routes and natural resources, states construct narratives of opportunity and vulnerability that redefine their strategic identities (Åtland, 2021).

For the Turkic states, this theoretical frame helps explain the transition from a traditional continental security outlook—centered on territorial integrity and energy transit—to a more complex understanding that includes ecological and maritime security. Türkiye's 2021 Arctic policy statement, Kazakhstan's participation in Arctic energy forums, and Azerbaijan's research cooperation with Northern scientific institutions reflect processes of *securitizing* climate and

infrastructure risks as national and regional concerns (Republic of Türkiye MFA, 2021). Thus, securitization theory illuminates how these states expand their foreign policy agendas through the discursive linking of the Arctic to Eurasian stability and energy diversification (Buzan et al., 1998).

2.2 Regionalism and Multi-Layered Eurasian Cooperation

A second theoretical pillar is **regionalism**, particularly “new regionalism,” which views regional cooperation as dynamic, multi-actor, and often overlapping (Hettne & Söderbaum, 2000). The Turkic states’ Arctic engagement cannot be understood in isolation but must be seen as part of broader Eurasian regionalization processes involving economic, infrastructural, and cultural linkages. Regionalism provides a framework for understanding how sub-regional entities—such as the **Organization of Turkic States (OTS)**—serve as platforms for collective diplomacy and norm diffusion (Purtaş, 2023).

Within this perspective, the Arctic is not merely a remote northern frontier but an extension of Eurasia’s connectivity architecture. The increasing interdependence between the **Middle Corridor** initiative, Arctic shipping lanes, and Eurasian energy routes exemplifies how regionalism operates through functional and infrastructural integration (Blakkisrud & Rowe, 2018). By emphasizing interregional networks rather than rigid geographical borders, new regionalism allows for the conceptual inclusion of non-Arctic actors—like Türkiye, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan—within the evolving Arctic governance system (Koivurova, 2019). This view reframes the Turkic states as “interface actors” linking the Arctic, Central Asia, and the Mediterranean.

2.3 Environmental and Climate Geopolitics

The third dimension of the framework is **climate and environmental geopolitics**, which extends security studies into the ecological domain. As scholars such as Dalby (2020) and Dodds (2019) argue, climate change is transforming geographical imaginaries and power relations, creating what some describe as a “planetary geopolitics.” The Arctic embodies this transformation: it is simultaneously a laboratory for global warming, a site of economic opportunity, and a stage for geopolitical rivalry.

For the Turkic states, environmental geopolitics introduces new strategic rationales. Melting permafrost, shifting atmospheric patterns, and altered trade routes in the High North have downstream effects on Central Asian hydrology, agriculture, and energy logistics (Smith & Stephenson, 2013). Engaging with Arctic governance thus enables these states to participate in the emerging global conversation on climate adaptation and resilience. Türkiye’s accession to the Paris Agreement in 2021, Kazakhstan’s emphasis on green economy strategies, and Azerbaijan’s presidency of COP29 in 2024 illustrate how environmental

diplomacy has become intertwined with national prestige and soft power (UNEP, 2023). This aligns with Floyd's (2019) argument that environmental securitization can function as a legitimacy-building tool for middle powers seeking moral leadership.

2.4 Interlinking the Frameworks: Toward an Arctic–Eurasian Security Nexus

Bringing these strands together, the chapter conceptualizes the **Arctic–Eurasian Security Nexus**—a framework that links environmental transformation, regional cooperation, and security discourse. Securitization theory explains how climate and infrastructure issues enter national agendas; regionalism clarifies how cooperation networks translate these concerns into collective policy; and environmental geopolitics situates these processes within a global ecological regime. The combination enables a comprehensive analysis of how the Turkic states use Arctic engagement to broaden their strategic agency within Eurasia.

This nexus approach moves beyond deterministic geopolitics by recognizing the agency of middle powers in shaping multilateral governance. Rather than passive observers of Arctic developments, the Turkic states are active participants in redefining the norms of Eurasian security. Their strategies reflect a pragmatic fusion of material interests—energy, trade, technology—and normative aspirations—stability, cooperation, and sustainability (Koivurova, 2019; Purtaş, 2023). The theoretical synthesis thus provides the foundation for the empirical analysis that follows, situating the Turkic states as innovative actors in an evolving geopolitical and ecological order.

3. Literature Review

3.1 Evolving Scholarship on Arctic Geopolitics

The Arctic's transformation from a remote frontier into a geopolitical epicenter has generated a rich body of academic literature emphasizing climate change, governance, and power politics. Scholars such as Oran Young (2016) and Charles Emmerson (2019) argue that the Arctic is not merely a physical region but a “political construct” where global and regional interests intersect. The melting of polar ice and the emergence of new maritime routes have redefined the strategic calculus of both Arctic and non-Arctic actors. Researchers have examined how climate-induced accessibility produces what Claes and Moe (2020) term “complex interdependence,” where cooperation and competition coexist.

Recent analyses underscore the Arctic as an arena for “interconnected security,” combining hard power dynamics with environmental, economic, and

technological factors (Åtland, 2021). Russia's military modernization in the High North, China's "Polar Silk Road" initiative, and NATO's renewed Arctic presence have collectively restructured the regional order (Käpylä & Mikkola, 2016). However, while most studies focus on major powers, emerging actors—including the Turkic states—remain largely absent from Arctic scholarship. This omission reflects the continued dominance of Euro-Atlantic and East Asian perspectives in Arctic studies. As Koivurova (2019) emphasizes, the next stage of Arctic research must examine how "observer" and "partner" states from the Global South and Eurasia engage with Arctic governance institutions, resource economies, and scientific cooperation.

3.2 Eurasian Regionalism and the Expansion of Security Spaces

Parallel to Arctic studies, scholarship on *Eurasian regionalism* has expanded rapidly since the 2000s, spurred by growing institutional linkages among post-Soviet states. Scholars like Alexander Cooley (2012) and Marlene Laruelle (2020) describe Eurasia as a "layered regional order" in which multiple organizations—such as the Eurasian Economic Union (EAEU), the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO), and the Organization of Turkic States (OTS)—overlap in function and membership. This new regionalism is characterized not by strict borders but by flexible cooperation in trade, security, and infrastructure (Hettne & Söderbaum, 2000).

Within this literature, the Turkic states occupy a special position as both participants and brokers of regional integration. Türkiye's "Asia Anew" initiative, Kazakhstan's multi-vector diplomacy, and Azerbaijan's energy corridor strategies exemplify what Laruelle (2020) calls "connectivity regionalism"—a pragmatic approach emphasizing infrastructure, logistics, and digital networks. Yet, despite their engagement across Eurasia, little research has explored how these states conceptualize the Arctic as an extension of their regional strategy. This chapter contributes to filling that gap by linking the evolving concept of *Eurasian security*—traditionally focused on Central Asia and the Caspian—to the northern geopolitical and ecological frontier.

3.3 Non-Arctic States and the Globalization of Arctic Governance

The growing participation of non-Arctic states in polar affairs has become a defining feature of the post-Cold War Arctic order. China, Japan, India, and South Korea have joined the Arctic Council as observers, pursuing interests ranging from scientific research to energy development (Bertelsen & Gallucci, 2016). Their involvement has prompted scholars to rethink the Arctic as a "global commons" rather than an exclusive regional zone (Dodds, 2019). Non-Arctic actors frame their participation in terms of global responsibility, sustainable development, and multilateral diplomacy (Young, 2016).

Yet, while East Asian engagement is well documented, research on the *Eurasian South*—including the Turkic states—is minimal. A few recent analyses suggest that Türkiye and Kazakhstan have expressed formal interest in Arctic affairs through cooperation with Nordic institutions and Russian partners (Koivurova, 2019; Purtaş, 2023). Türkiye’s maritime expertise, coupled with its NATO membership and energy diplomacy, positions it as a potential “bridge actor” between Euro-Atlantic and Eurasian Arctic strategies (Demirtaş, 2021). Similarly, Kazakhstan’s partnership with Russia on Arctic shipping and logistics under the “Transpolar Corridor” project indicates a gradual expansion of its northern strategic horizon (Blakkisrud & Rowe, 2018). These emerging initiatives suggest that the Arctic is becoming an indirect but significant dimension of Turkic foreign policy diversification.

3.4 The Turkic States in International Relations Scholarship

The foreign policy literature on the Turkic states has traditionally centered on issues of identity, energy, and regional influence. Scholars such as Mammadov (2021) and Balci (2018) have examined how Turkic solidarity functions as a tool of soft power and cultural diplomacy. The evolution of the Organization of Turkic States (OTS) has transformed what was once a symbolic cultural platform into a practical mechanism for cooperation in trade, education, and security (Purtaş, 2023). This evolution reflects what Davutoğlu (2014) described as “strategic depth”—the capacity of Türkiye and its Turkic partners to extend influence through layered diplomacy.

However, most existing works analyze Turkic regionalism in the context of Central Asia and the Caspian, not the Arctic. The intersection between Turkic diplomacy and the High North remains underexplored, despite growing evidence of policy engagement. Turkish research expeditions to Antarctica and increased collaboration with Arctic Council observer states indicate that Ankara’s scientific and environmental diplomacy may serve as a precursor to more formal Arctic involvement (Demirtaş, 2021). Similarly, Azerbaijan’s energy diversification toward northern maritime routes and Kazakhstan’s logistics cooperation through Russian ports demonstrate a gradual but consistent Arctic orientation (Hasanov, 2022).

3.5 Environmental and Climate Security in Eurasia

A related body of literature explores the intersection of environmental change and security in Eurasia. Scholars such as Dalby (2020) and Floyd (2019) emphasize that climate change has blurred the boundaries between domestic policy and international security. Central Asia, in particular, faces severe water scarcity, glacier retreat, and energy transition challenges (Obertreis et al., 2016). These vulnerabilities create incentives for regional states to engage in broader

environmental governance networks, including Arctic and polar research collaborations.

The notion of “environmental diplomacy” has gained prominence as states link climate action to reputation, innovation, and legitimacy (Aydın-Düzgit & Tocci, 2015). For the Turkic states, this aligns with the pursuit of sustainable development as a component of foreign policy modernization. Türkiye’s participation in Arctic research through the National Polar Science Program (TUBITAK, 2022) and Kazakhstan’s “Green Bridge” initiative are practical examples of environmental diplomacy intersecting with geopolitics. These developments support the argument that the Arctic serves as both a literal and symbolic frontier for redefining Eurasian environmental security.

3.6 Identified Research Gap

Across these scholarly traditions—Arctic geopolitics, Eurasian regionalism, and Turkic foreign policy—one clear gap emerges: the absence of a comprehensive framework linking the Arctic to the foreign and security policies of the Turkic states. While individual case studies discuss Türkiye’s scientific diplomacy or Kazakhstan’s logistical cooperation, no study systematically analyzes the Arctic as a collective strategic concern for the Turkic world. This chapter addresses that gap by conceptualizing the Arctic as a *northern extension of Eurasian security*, where environmental, economic, and political factors converge. In doing so, it contributes to three ongoing debates: the globalization of Arctic governance, the diversification of Eurasian security spaces, and the redefinition of middle-power diplomacy in the age of climate change (Dalby, 2020; Koivurova, 2019; Purtaş, 2023).

4. Analysis and Discussion

4.1 Türkiye’s Arctic Diplomacy: Scientific Engagement and Geopolitical Reframing

Türkiye’s Arctic engagement represents the most structured and visible form of involvement among the Turkic states. While Ankara is not a member or observer of the **Arctic Council**, it has progressively expanded its Arctic-related research, diplomacy, and strategic discourse since the mid-2010s. This evolution aligns with the country’s growing emphasis on global scientific presence and strategic diversification under the framework of the “**Asia Anew**” initiative and **Blue Homeland (Mavi Vatan)** doctrine (Demirtaş, 2021). The adoption of the *Turkish National Polar Science Program (2018–2022)* marked a milestone, signaling the government’s ambition to position Türkiye as an emerging polar stakeholder (TUBITAK, 2022).

From a **securitization perspective**, Türkiye's Arctic activities are framed less as military endeavors and more as contributions to environmental and scientific security. The state's discourse emphasizes cooperation on climate research, oceanography, and sustainable navigation (Aydın-Düzgit & Tocci, 2015). Yet, beneath this soft rhetoric lies a strategic calculus. The melting Arctic ice opens potential alternative maritime routes that could complement Türkiye's geopolitical role as an energy and logistics hub between Europe and Asia. Turkish policymakers interpret the Northern Sea Route as an eventual extension of Eurasian connectivity, one that could reduce dependency on Middle Eastern chokepoints and enhance the flexibility of trade corridors (Koivurova, 2019).

Institutionally, Ankara has strengthened cooperation with Nordic and Arctic stakeholders through joint research projects, academic partnerships, and diplomatic outreach. Türkiye's **Polar Research Institute** collaborates with scientific centers in Finland, Norway, and Russia, signaling a deliberate policy of epistemic diplomacy — the use of science as an instrument of international legitimacy (TUBITAK, 2022). Scholars such as Dodds (2019) argue that non-Arctic states use environmental science as a soft entry point into Arctic governance structures. In this regard, Türkiye's Arctic strategy mirrors the broader pattern of "science-diplomacy hybridization" (Dalby, 2020), balancing knowledge production with strategic signaling.

4.2 Kazakhstan and the Arctic Connection: Energy, Logistics, and Strategic Depth

Kazakhstan's approach to the Arctic is less overtly scientific and more economic and logistical in nature. As a **landlocked state**, Kazakhstan's Arctic orientation operates through partnerships with Russia's Arctic infrastructure and energy networks. Its participation in the **Northern Sea Route (NSR)** logistics corridor stems from both economic pragmatism and geopolitical calculation. The NSR's expansion offers Kazakhstan new outlets for hydrocarbon exports and resource transportation, especially through the port of Murmansk and the Yamal LNG corridor (Blakkisrud & Rowe, 2018).

In the context of **regionalism**, Kazakhstan's Arctic engagement can be read as part of its broader **multi-vector foreign policy**, which balances relations with Russia, China, the European Union, and the Turkic world. By participating in Arctic-related logistics forums and environmental discussions, Kazakhstan projects itself as an indispensable bridge between the Eurasian heartland and the Arctic frontier (Laruelle, 2020). The government's *Green Economy Strategy 2050* underscores the importance of sustainable energy and environmental cooperation, themes that resonate strongly within Arctic governance discourse (UNEP, 2023).

From the perspective of **environmental geopolitics**, Kazakhstan's Arctic engagement also addresses climate vulnerability at home. Melting glaciers in the Tien Shan and Altai ranges have direct consequences for the country's water security, agriculture, and regional stability (Obertreis et al., 2016). Participation in Arctic climate networks enables Kazakhstan to access scientific data, environmental financing, and institutional legitimacy as a contributor to global sustainability. This aligns with Floyd's (2019) argument that environmental participation can serve as a form of "non-traditional power projection," allowing states to gain influence through moral and scientific credentials.

Kazakhstan's relationship with the **Organization of Turkic States (OTS)** also amplifies this dimension. The OTS framework has become a vehicle for discussing transregional connectivity that links the Middle Corridor with northern maritime routes (Purtaş, 2023). Kazakhstan's strategic positioning thus embodies what Eisenstadt (2000) calls "multiple modernities": a synthesis of modernization, environmental responsibility, and regional pragmatism.

4.3 Azerbaijan's Northern Diplomacy: Energy Corridors and Climate Legitimacy

Azerbaijan's Arctic connection is indirect but increasingly visible through its energy diplomacy and climate leadership. As a **Caspian littoral state** and an energy exporter, Azerbaijan's interest in the Arctic derives from its integration into global hydrocarbon markets and its cooperation with both Russia and Norway in offshore technologies (Hasanov, 2022). The Arctic functions as both a comparative model and a potential expansion zone for Azerbaijan's energy strategy.

The state's foreign policy documents emphasize environmental balance and energy diversification — priorities that align with global Arctic discourse on sustainable resource management. Baku's hosting of **COP29 (2024)** marks a symbolic leap in the country's soft power, positioning Azerbaijan as a regional voice on climate governance (UNEP, 2023). This environmental turn represents a new phase of legitimacy-seeking behavior, as described by Aydın-Düzgüt and Tocci (2015), where smaller powers utilize climate diplomacy to enhance their normative visibility.

From a **regionalism** perspective, Azerbaijan plays a dual role: it anchors the southern terminus of the Middle Corridor while aligning strategically with both European and Turkic integration projects. Its energy cooperation with Arctic actors—particularly through the State Oil Company of Azerbaijan (SOCAR)'s partnerships with Lukoil and Equinor—creates a structural linkage between the Caspian and Arctic energy spaces (Claes & Moe, 2020). In this way, Azerbaijan becomes part of what Young (2016) terms a "multi-scalar Arctic governance

network,” where non-Arctic states contribute to technological, environmental, and infrastructural interdependence.

At the same time, Azerbaijan’s Arctic-relevant engagement is embedded in symbolic diplomacy. Baku’s rhetoric of “environmental solidarity” with northern partners situates the country within a moral geography of shared vulnerability. By invoking the ecological impacts of Caspian pollution and desertification, Azerbaijani officials connect domestic environmental issues with Arctic concerns, reinforcing the discursive link between **Eurasian security** and **climate security** (Dalby, 2020).

4.4 The Organization of Turkic States and the Institutionalization of Arctic Dialogue

The **Organization of Turkic States (OTS)** serves as the collective framework through which the Arctic dimension may become institutionalized in Turkic diplomacy. Established in 2009 and expanding in scope after 2020, the OTS has evolved from a cultural organization into a platform for multidimensional cooperation encompassing trade, transport, and security (Purtaş, 2023). Recent summits—such as the 2023 Ankara and 2024 Astana meetings—have incorporated environmental and energy security into their communiqués, signaling the gradual convergence of ecological and strategic agendas.

Through the lens of **new regionalism**, the OTS exemplifies how non-contiguous regions can engage in multi-layered governance. The Arctic features indirectly in discussions on energy infrastructure, data cooperation, and green technologies (Koivurova, 2019). Proposals for establishing a **Turkic Research Consortium on Climate and Polar Studies**, supported by Türkiye’s TUBITAK and Kazakhstan’s Nazarbayev University, suggest a pathway toward institutional Arctic engagement. Such cooperation reflects what Hettne and Söderbaum (2000) describe as “cognitive regionalism”—the shared production of knowledge as a foundation for political collaboration.

This emerging discourse situates the Turkic states as “stakeholders of sustainability,” rather than traditional security actors. Their collective interest in environmental governance, renewable energy, and digital infrastructure represents a *soft securitization* of the Arctic: an effort to define ecological stability as integral to Eurasian peace and development (Floyd, 2019). By linking Arctic participation with their broader developmental strategies, the OTS members are effectively expanding the conceptual geography of Turkic cooperation northward.

4.5 Interpreting the Arctic–Eurasian Security Nexus

The comparative analysis of Türkiye, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan reveals a convergent yet differentiated approach to the Arctic dimension. **Türkiye** leads in science diplomacy and global environmental outreach; **Kazakhstan** prioritizes logistics and resource connectivity; and **Azerbaijan** leverages energy diplomacy and climate legitimacy. Together, these strategies construct an emergent *Arctic–Eurasian Security Nexus*—a framework where the Arctic is both a geographical and ideational extension of Turkic regional cooperation (Koivurova, 2019; Purtaş, 2023).

From a theoretical standpoint, this nexus reflects the interplay of securitization, regionalism, and environmental geopolitics outlined earlier. The **securitization** of environmental issues transforms climate adaptation into a strategic concern; **regionalism** translates individual interests into collective dialogue; and **environmental geopolitics** situates the Turkic states within global governance networks that transcend geography. The integration of these layers substantiates Buzan et al.’s (1998) notion that the security agenda is socially constructed and continually redefined through discourse and institutional practice.

This hybrid orientation has significant implications. First, it challenges the binary division between Arctic and non-Arctic actors, demonstrating that strategic relevance can arise from political networks, not just territorial proximity. Second, it introduces the Turkic states as contributors to the moral and ecological dimensions of Eurasian stability. Third, it provides a foundation for normative leadership: by framing their Arctic engagement in terms of sustainability and multilateralism, the Turkic states can enhance their reputational capital within both the Global South and Euro-Atlantic institutions (Dalby, 2020).

4.6 Limitations and Challenges

Despite its promise, the Turkic Arctic agenda faces structural and institutional constraints. None of the Turkic states currently holds observer status in the Arctic Council, limiting formal access to decision-making processes. Additionally, geopolitical tensions—such as Western sanctions on Russia and the re-militarization of Arctic shipping corridors—pose barriers to multilateral cooperation (Claes & Moe, 2020). Economic feasibility is another challenge: investment in polar logistics and research requires high costs and advanced technology, areas where most Turkic states still rely on partnerships.

Moreover, the coherence of a collective Arctic policy remains uncertain. Divergent foreign policy orientations—Türkiye’s NATO alignment, Kazakhstan’s neutrality, and Azerbaijan’s non-aligned pragmatism—complicate the formulation of unified strategies. Yet these very differences also create a form

of strategic pluralism that, if coordinated, could enhance adaptability in multilateral forums (Laruelle, 2020). In the long term, establishing a **Turkic Arctic Dialogue Platform** under the OTS could institutionalize coordination, ensuring that Arctic engagement contributes to both environmental responsibility and regional stability.

5. Findings and Implications

The comparative analysis of Türkiye, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan reveals that the **Arctic dimension** is emerging as a subtle yet increasingly significant component of the Turkic states' foreign policy. Three overarching findings stand out.

First, the study confirms that **securitization theory** provides an effective lens to understand how the Turkic states are expanding their security agendas. Traditionally preoccupied with territorial integrity, energy transit, and border stability, these countries now frame environmental change and polar research as strategic priorities. The transformation of climate issues into matters of “national importance” demonstrates the rise of *environmental securitization* (Buzan, Wæver, & de Wilde, 1998; Floyd, 2019). Through Arctic-oriented discourse, the Turkic states signal readiness to engage with global ecological governance, not merely as policy-takers but as moral contributors to sustainability and peace (Dalby, 2020).

Second, the findings substantiate that **regionalism**—particularly in the form of the **Organization of Turkic States (OTS)**—acts as an enabling mechanism for Arctic participation. The OTS' growing focus on climate cooperation, transport connectivity, and digital innovation provides a platform for translating individual national efforts into collective strategic relevance (Purtaş, 2023). By connecting the *Middle Corridor* with potential northern maritime routes, the Turkic states embed themselves within the logistical architecture of Eurasia's north–south integration (Blakkisrud & Rowe, 2018). This confirms Hettne and Söderbaum's (2000) assertion that modern regionalism operates through overlapping, adaptive networks rather than fixed borders.

Third, the study identifies **environmental geopolitics** as the conceptual bridge linking the Arctic to Eurasian security. The Turkic states' climate vulnerability—melting glaciers, desertification, and extreme weather—creates incentives for participation in global environmental governance (Obertreis et al., 2016). Türkiye's polar research missions, Kazakhstan's engagement with Arctic logistics, and Azerbaijan's hosting of COP29 (UNEP, 2023) collectively signal a shift toward *normative power projection* through environmental diplomacy. This finding aligns with Aydın-Düzgüt and Tocci's (2015) argument that middle powers increasingly use sustainability as a tool of international legitimacy.

In sum, the Arctic functions not as a geographical frontier but as a *discursive and strategic extension* of the Turkic world's Eurasian identity. The notion of a “**Turkic Arctic imagination**” encapsulates how these states weave together science, culture, and policy to broaden their geopolitical narratives. The Arctic, therefore, becomes both a symbol and an instrument of modernity, allowing the Turkic states to redefine their roles in an evolving multipolar order (Laruelle, 2020).

6. Conclusion

This chapter has argued that the Arctic, once distant from the concerns of the Turkic world, is rapidly becoming integrated into the conceptual map of **Eurasian security**. By examining Türkiye, Kazakhstan, and Azerbaijan through the lenses of securitization, regionalism, and environmental geopolitics, the analysis demonstrates that Arctic engagement is neither peripheral nor symbolic—it is a manifestation of broader transformations in global governance and identity.

From a theoretical standpoint, the chapter advances three contributions. First, it reframes *Eurasia* as a **multi-scalar security space** extending from the Mediterranean to the Arctic Circle. This reconceptualization challenges the Eurocentric boundaries of Arctic studies and the narrow continentalism of Eurasian regionalism (Koivurova, 2019). Second, it introduces the **Arctic–Eurasian Security Nexus** as a hybrid model connecting ecological sustainability with strategic cooperation. Third, it foregrounds the agency of middle powers in shaping global environmental norms—an area where the Turkic states are emerging as influential mediators between North and South.

Policy-wise, the chapter offers several implications. Establishing a **Turkic Arctic Dialogue Platform** under the OTS would institutionalize coordination in scientific research, climate adaptation, and sustainable energy. Joint investment in ice-navigation technologies, green port infrastructure, and data-sharing mechanisms could integrate the Middle Corridor with Arctic maritime routes, enhancing both economic resilience and environmental governance. Furthermore, the creation of **Turkish World Arctic Research Centers**—staffed by scholars from member states—would translate cultural solidarity into knowledge diplomacy, echoing Narimanov's historical vision of intellectual cooperation across Turkic lands (Purtaş, 2023).

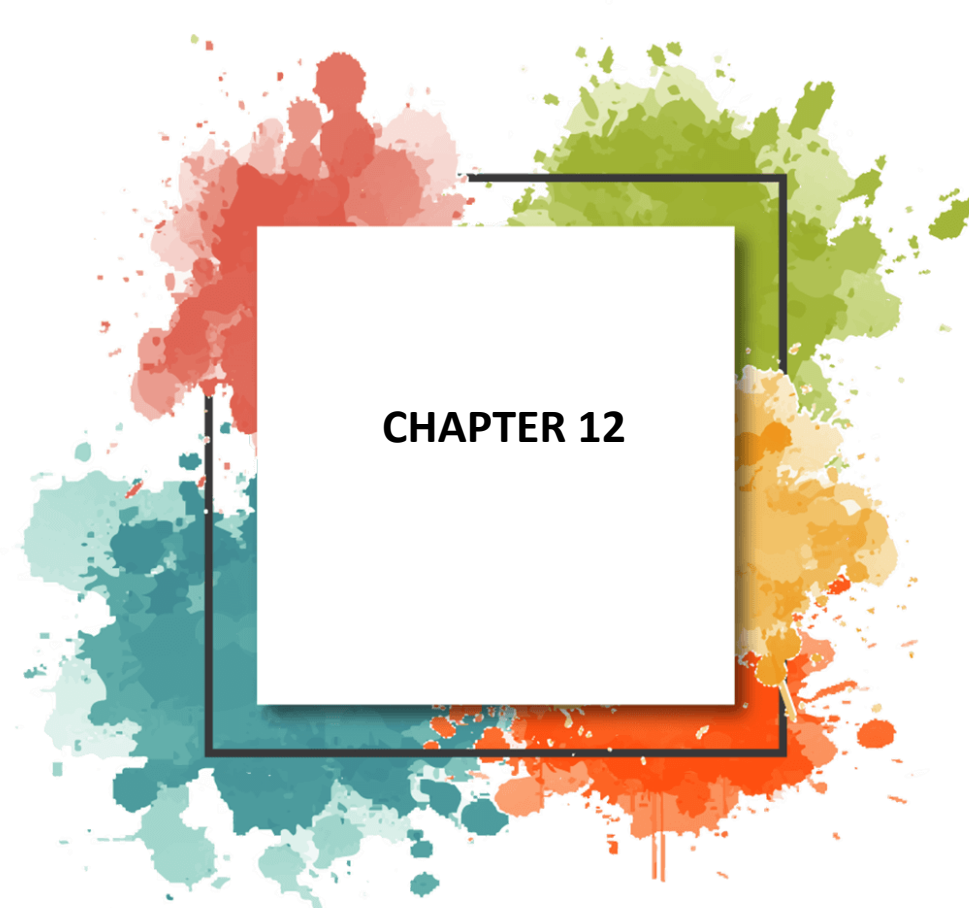
At the normative level, the Arctic engagement of the Turkic states demonstrates that **security can be humanized**—that is, rooted in education, science, and environmental stewardship rather than rivalry. By promoting sustainability and multilateralism, these states contribute to the evolution of what Suny (1998) calls “constructive regionalism”: a cooperative order grounded in

shared responsibility rather than domination. Their actions affirm that environmental diplomacy and scientific cooperation can coexist with pragmatic geopolitics, forming the moral foundation of a new Eurasian security paradigm.

Ultimately, the Arctic offers the Turkic world more than strategic access—it provides a stage for demonstrating intellectual leadership and ethical statecraft. As global warming redraws the world's geography, the Turkic states' engagement with the Arctic symbolizes a forward-looking adaptation to planetary change. It redefines Eurasia not as a frozen legacy of empires but as a living, dynamic network of civilizations oriented toward sustainability, innovation, and peace. In this sense, the **Arctic dimension** is not the periphery of Turkic foreign policy; it is its horizon—a frontier of knowledge, cooperation, and moral vision.

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CHAPTER 12

Conflict and Conflict Management Strategies in Organizations

Semra TETİK¹

INTRODUCTION

Wherever there are people, conflicts arise due to differences between individuals. In other words, disagreements are inevitable due to differences in individual values, beliefs, past experiences, personalities, goals, and perceptions (Ayan and Yavuz, 2018). The concept of conflict, which we encounter in many areas of daily life, is widespread in areas where conflict occurs. This concept covers many situations, from large-scale events such as wars and industrial struggles to competition and personal dissatisfaction between individuals (Tekarslan and Kılınç, 2000). Conflict is an important concept for understanding the complexity and dynamics of human relationships. Conflict management is vital to the success of organizations, and a careful approach must be adopted in this process (Adil, 2025). With the right conflict management strategy, positive outcomes can be achieved from conflict.

Every individual belongs to one or more groups in their professional and personal life. Therefore, all of social life consists of experiences within various groups. Experiences within the family, professional groups, and groups of friends form part of social life, while the conflicts that arise are also an integral part of life (Varol, 1990). For conflict to be beneficial to the organization, its causes must be correctly identified and effectively managed. This is because if conflict is managed correctly, an environment of trust is maintained within the organization, thereby ensuring employee motivation and psychological well-being. It is also important in terms of high job satisfaction among employees, increased productivity, and the sustainability of employee loyalty to the organization (Sert, 2023). The fundamental goal in conflict management is to minimize destructive outcomes while achieving constructive results. Well-managed conflicts can present opportunities for organizational change and development (Adil, 2025).

1. THE CONCEPT OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

Conflict relates to the physical, social, and psychological needs of individuals and groups. Therefore, it arises in various environments and at various levels. From this perspective, it is difficult to define the concept of conflict (Yılmaz and Görece, 2019). A review of the literature on the concept of conflict reveals that there is no clear definition agreed upon. Various definitions have been proposed,

¹ Assoc. Prof. Dr., Manisa Celal Bayar University, ORCID: 0000-0001-6266-8178

emphasizing different aspects of the phenomenon of conflict. However, in general, the essence of conflict is the same. Conflict is an inevitable phenomenon wherever people come together (Koçak and Aktaş, 2019).

Rahim (1985) defines conflict as “a situation of interaction that arises in the form of incompatibility and disagreement between individuals and groups” (Kayacı, 2024). According to Stoner (1978), conflict is a disagreement between two or more individuals or groups arising from various causes (Sert, 2024). Conflict is generally a state of incompatibility that arises between individuals or groups with opposing needs, feelings, thoughts, or ideals (Koçak and Baskan Atanur, 2013). Eren (1998) defines conflict as events caused by problems in individuals' or groups' working together, leading to the cessation or disruption of routine work. According to Koçel (2020), conflict is disagreements arising from different sources between two or more individuals, groups, or organizations. Another definition states that conflict is a situation of opposition that arises between two interacting parties due to their differing interests (Salihoğlu, 2019).

Conflicts can occur at the individual level as well as within organizations where many people come together (Topaloğlu, 2011). Conflict in organizations can be described as events arising from work responsibilities between individuals and groups that cause disruption or cessation of normal operations (Örnek, 2013). According to Pondy (1967), the concept of organizational conflict refers to problems experienced within organizations or between organizations that have an impact on organizational management, production, organization, and organizational resources (Salihoğlu, 2019). Organizational conflict involves one party opposing another and taking measures against the problems and obstacles that the other party will create in order to achieve its own interests and goals (Ceylan et al., 2000). In other words, organizational conflict can be defined as a disagreement arising from differences in status, goals, values, or perceptions between two or more individuals or activities within an organization and between these individuals or groups (Şahpaz, 2024).

Organizational conflict is described as a dynamic process that arises from opposition and incompatibility and can cause harm to individuals and the organization if not managed effectively. In this context, conflicts inevitably arise in organizations composed of individuals with many different beliefs, values, mindsets, and expectations (Sert, 2024). The concept of conflict, in its most general definition, encompasses various situations “from wars to industrial struggles, competition, and dislike of others” (Akat et al., 2002).

Signs of conflict can be listed as follows: Reluctance to communicate among employees; outbursts of anger and physical violence; continuous decline in productivity; absenteeism; increase in reports and work accidents; frequent and

unwanted arguments; destructive coercion between employees or departments; constant and unfair criticism (Akkirman, 1998; Yılmaz and Görece, 2019).

2. TYPES OF CONFLICT

There are many types of conflict. The types of conflict that arise in organizations are explained below.

Functional Conflict: This can be defined as conflict that contributes to the organization achieving its goals and becoming stronger (Şimşek and Kınır, 2006). Functional conflict can encourage creative solutions by bringing problems within the organization to light and drawing the attention of managers to these problems. Thus, functional conflicts bring dynamism to the organization and form the basis for innovation and change (Koçel, 2020).

Disfunctional Conflict: These are conflicts that prevent the organization from achieving its goals and negatively affect its functioning (Koçel, 2020). This type of conflict negatively affects the decision-making process in the organization, weakens communication, causes erroneous thinking, and reduces motivation and performance (Sims, 2002). It is difficult to distinguish between functional and dysfunctional conflicts. It depends on how the parties involved perceive the conflict and how management evaluates this process (Sevimli, 2024).

Potential Conflict: This refers to situations that do not yet exist within the organization but could lead to conflict. Limited organizational resources, employees having different goals, interests, ideas, and perceptions, and differences in the methods used to achieve goals can cause potential conflicts to arise (Şimşek and Kınır, 2006). In potential conflict, management may be unaware of the situation and therefore insensitive to the demands of the conflicting parties (Hoxha, 2020).

Perceived Conflict: This relates to the way individuals or groups perceive events and situations. If an event or situation causes disappointment or creates a feeling of non-acceptance, then perceived conflict can be said to exist (Akova and Akın, 2015). In perceived conflict, the parties may perceive a disagreement in each other's behavior or communication style, but they do not yet express this situation explicitly (Coffey et al., 1994). This type of conflict arises when an individual or group perceives that their goals and expectations are being blocked by another individual or group (Kayacı, 2024).

Perceived Conflict: This refers to the feelings of individuals or groups in conflict regarding events (Schermerhorn, 2002). Perceived conflict involves feelings such as anger, rage, anxiety, sadness, and resentment. In this type of conflict, the conflicting parties openly express their anger, resentment, and anxiety and behave in a way that the other party can feel (Sevimli, 2024).

Open Conflict: This is a situation where the conflict is openly apparent. Open conflict can be seen in the form of mutual arguments and individuals making serious accusations against each other, or physical violence (Şimşek and Kingir, 2006). In other words, the conflicting parties transform their attitudes and behaviors into actions. Open conflicts within an organization generally occur in the form of parties preventing each other from achieving their goals (Kayacı, 2024).

Vertical Conflict: These are conflicts between individuals in different positions within an organization. These conflicts arise when the negative effects of subordinate-superior relationships cause expectations between subordinates and superiors to go unmet (Sevimli, 2024). Vertical conflicts arise when superiors in an organization want to control the behavior of their subordinates and subordinates resist this control (Pondy, 1967).

Horizontal Conflict: Conflict between employees with the same title at the same hierarchical level within an organization (Ertürk, 2009). The causes of these conflicts are usually the unfair distribution of resources, a lack of alignment in objectives, a non-objective reward and promotion system, departments prioritizing their own goals, and individual competition (Barlı, 2010).

Command-Staff Conflict: These are conflicts that arise between command personnel, who have executive authority and responsibility within organizations, and staff personnel. Those working in the chain of command within an organization have vertical authority and responsibility. Staff organs do not have the authority to give orders. They advise managers in their areas of expertise. Sometimes conflicts arise between these two sides (Akçakaya, 2003). This conflict usually occurs due to the reluctance or resistance of staff members in carrying out managers' orders (Tike, 2024).

Goal Conflict: Differences in goals between individuals or groups are a factor that causes conflict. It arises when individuals or groups disagree on the desired outcomes related to the organization's objectives. Looking at organizational processes, there may be differences between the manager's objectives and those of the organization or teams. Similarly, there may be differences between the objectives of managers and employees. This also leads to conflict (Koçel, 2020).

Role Conflicts: These arise when an individual has to fulfill multiple roles or encounters conflicting expectations within a single role. Role ambiguity causes employees to be unsure of what to do and leads to stress (Öztürk and Şeremet, 2021). Employees take on different roles within the organization. This type of conflict arises when two or more different roles must be assumed at the same time and these different roles are incompatible, inconsistent, or contradictory (Rahim, 2001).

Intrapersonal Conflicts: This is an internal situation experienced by the individual. These are conflicts that disturb and anger the person when they do not fully know what is expected of them or when conflicting behaviors are expected (Akat et al., 2002). In other words, it refers to the difficulty in making individual decisions, choosing an attitude, or taking action (Akova and Akın, 2015).

Interpersonal Conflicts: These arise between two or more individuals due to differences in personality traits, ideas, opinions, goals, perceptions, and expectations (Yılmaz and Eroğlu, 2013). This type of conflict occurs between two or more employees at the same or different hierarchical levels and departments (Şimşek and Kınır, 2006). These types of conflicts can be managed with effective communication techniques and resolution methods (Tike, 2024).

Individual-Group Conflict: This type of conflict arises from incompatibilities between an individual within a group and the group itself (Haberal, 2014). This type of conflict arises when individuals in an organization are forced by the group to accept certain norms (Koçel, 2020). Individuals who do not adopt the group's goals, norms, and approach may find themselves in conflict with the group (Şimşek and Kınır, 2006).

Intergroup Conflict: This type of conflict arises from competition between groups within an organization (Cuhadar and Dayton, 2011). This type of conflict, which is common in organizations, means that groups have fundamental disagreements with each other and are in direct conflict (Daft, 2016). Conflicts between groups can stem from factors such as intergroup dependency, unclear management areas, status and power struggles, and a competitive environment caused by limited resources (Luthans, 2010).

Interdepartmental Conflict: These are disagreements arising for various reasons between departments that exist within an organization to perform basic functions and where each department has different duties and responsibilities (Yılmaz and Eroğlu, 2013).

Interorganizational Conflict: Interorganizational conflict refers to conflicts between organizations that are often in competition with each other in the same field (Schermerhorn et al., 2011). It refers to the conflict experienced by one organization with another (Altan, 2010). Interorganizational conflicts usually arise over the sharing of limited resources or strategic goals (Tike, 2024). In a developing and changing world where competition exists, such conflicts between organizations are frequently encountered (Sert, 2023).

3. CAUSES OF ORGANIZATIONAL CONFLICT

Conflict in organizations is inevitable. Understanding the causes of conflict is useful in determining the parties involved and the level of conflict. The important

thing is to be able to use conflicts to the organization's advantage. There can be many causes of conflict in organizations (Ceylan et al., 2000). These causes are explained below.

Limited Resources: Conflict may be inevitable whenever organizational employees must compete for scarce resources (Daft, 2016). Scarce resources within an organization may upset the balance in terms of meeting needs. It may be necessary to allocate more resources to certain units (Hasdemir et al., 2018). An organization's limited resources may lead its members to compete for these resources. This competition causes conflict between members or groups (Mescon, 1988).

Personality Differences: Personality differences between individuals are another cause of conflict in organizations. The fact that people within an organization come from different backgrounds and continue their habits in the new environment causes conflict (Alioğulları and Karcioğlu, 2012). Personality differences can lead to inevitable and constant conflict. Furthermore, while some individuals avoid conflict due to their personality, others are more prone to conflict (Batu and Yanık, 2021).

Goal Differences: Conflict arises when the goals of individuals, groups, and units within an organization are incompatible with each other (Şahin and Örselli, 2010). Conflict can occur when organizational expectations and goals are not aligned with individual needs and goals, and when employees do not demonstrate commitment to the goals (Daft, 2016).

Perception Differences: Organizational information, events, and problems are perceived and interpreted differently by departments, groups, or individuals (Temel and Erkanlı, 2015). Employees in an organization may come from different cultures. Due to differences in perception, tasks may sometimes yield different results. This situation can lead to conflict (Yılmaz and Eroğlu, 2013).

Communication Deficiencies: Communication is very important in organizations because organizations are social systems. Communication plays a critical role in the emergence, growth, and management of conflict (Spaho, 2013). One of the main causes of conflict is communication breakdown and weak mutual interaction (Kılınç, 1996). Blocked communication channels, unclear messages, misidentification of recipients, lack of feedback, and delays in communication cause individuals or groups to make different decisions based on their own perceptions and behave accordingly (Koçel, 2020). In short, factors that hinder communication create fertile ground for conflict.

Status Differences: Status differences in organizations arise when one party has a problematic influence over others (Daft, 2008). This situation can be explained by individuals or groups within the organization perceiving their own

status as higher or more powerful than others. Therefore, the way status differences are perceived causes conflicts within the organization (Koçel, 2020).

Interdependence of Tasks: Due to various tasks within the organization, there are certain functional dependencies between the individuals and groups performing these tasks. A department that fails to perform its tasks on time disrupts the work of other departments. This situation leads to conflict. For example, the interdependence of the production and marketing departments creates a breeding ground for conflict (Barlı, 2008).

Change and Uncertainty: Individuals feel role conflict as they take on different roles due to changing conditions. For example, restructuring or a change in ownership can cause disagreements. This also applies to managers who are promoted to higher positions. As employees move up the ranks, they must undergo a transition process toward management. Managers who fail in this regard face role conflict (Koçel, 2020).

Reward Systems: Reasons such as rewards not being based on a performance-based system, attitudes and behaviors eligible for rewards not being clear, criteria for rewards being unclear, and a lack of emphasis on fairness in rewards create conflict (Ada, 2013).

Uncertainty of Authority and Responsibility: The lack of clearly defined subordinate-superior relationships, duties, authority, and responsibilities within the organization causes conflict between employees, groups, and departments (Yılmaz and Eroğlu, 2013). Conflict arises because managers do not know the limits of their responsibilities (Ertürk, 2009).

Differences in Management Style: Differences in managerial views, management philosophies, and people's ways of understanding determine management style (Koçel, 2020). Differences between managers' management style and employees' management expectations can lead to conflict (Akat et al., 2002).

Internal Power Struggles: Organizations sometimes become arenas for power struggles, generating conflict (Özalp, 1989). Consequently, the desire of organization members to expand their sphere of power for various reasons leads to conflict. However, what is important here is how others perceive this situation (Barlı, 2008).

Organizational Size: Studies show a positive relationship between organizational size and conflict. In other words, as an organization grows and becomes more complex, the likelihood of conflict increases (Akçakaya, 2003). As an organization grows, employee relationships become more formal.

Communication problems arise. In this situation, when each employee tries to protect their own area, the likelihood of conflict increases (Genç, 2017).

4. CONFLICT MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Completely eliminating conflict in organizations or reducing it to a minimum can lead to stagnation and inefficiency. On the other hand, a constant and intense conflict environment also causes uncertainty and weariness. Therefore, the level and frequency of conflict is quite important (Adil, 2025). What is important here is the correct and effective management of conflict (Özkalp et al., 2009). The strategies that can be applied in conflict management are explained below.

Avoidance: This strategy involves ignoring the conflict. The manager does not take sides openly and does not want to intervene directly in the conflict. Decisions related to the conflict are delayed (Akat et al., 2002). In this strategy, the parties do not defend their own views, nor do they oppose the views of the other party (Coffey et al., 1994). This strategy can be used to address the conflict at a more appropriate time or to strengthen the position of one of the parties (Tike, 2024).

Softening: This strategy involves emphasizing and highlighting the commonalities and interests between the parties involved in the conflict, while downplaying their differences. With this strategy, the manager prevents the conflicting parties from highlighting their differences, encouraging them to unite and cooperate (Koçel, 2020).

Problem Solving: This strategy requires open communication between the parties, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to both sides (Rahim and Magner, 1995). It is used when the interests and needs of both parties and other parties involved in the conflict are highly valued (Karip, 2021). It involves addressing the conflict fully and openly. The parties meet face-to-face and discuss the problem causing the conflict and possible solutions in detail. The problem-solving strategy is particularly effective in resolving conflicts arising from communication and information gaps (Gürer et al., 2014).

Power Usage: This strategy is a conflict resolution method in which one party attempts to force the other to accept their demands, disregarding the other party's interests (Tike, 2024). It refers to resolving conflicts by using the manager's power and authority (Akat et al., 2002). This strategy is commonly used in organizations where an authoritarian management approach prevails (Sinha, 2008). When the conflict occurs between a subordinate and a superior, the individual at the higher hierarchical level can use their power of sanction to force the subordinate to obey their orders (Öz, 2021).

Compromise: This is the process of resolving and managing conflict by finding a common ground for the parties involved. In this strategy, which is based on mutual concessions, there are no winners or losers (Gürer et al., 2014). How much each party concedes depends on the power they possess (Akat et al., 2002). The goal of the compromise strategy is to protect the interests of both parties to a certain extent through a rational approach (Robbins and Judge, 2017).

Compliance: This strategy involves the individual sacrificing their own interests to please the other party, ignoring differences, and prioritizing the other party's wishes (Gürer et al., 2014). It is a situation where one of the parties prioritizes the interests of the other party over their own interests and tries to maintain positive mutual relations by making sacrifices (Gross, 2000). This strategy is more commonly used in subordinate-superior relationships, where subordinates use it to avoid damaging their relationships with their superiors. It is usually subordinates who back down from their rights, desires, and needs (Karip, 2021).

Setting Higher Goals: This strategy involves setting goals that are more important and comprehensive than the conflicting parties' objectives, forcing them to put aside their differences and unite and cooperate in pursuit of these more important and comprehensive goals. Managers particularly follow this type of strategy during times of crisis (Akat et al., 2002). This strategy does not provide a definitive solution to conflicts. The conflict is suppressed and postponed for a short period of time. Furthermore, it is quite difficult to identify a superior goal that the parties can agree on (Akçakaya, 2003).

Increasing Resources: If the cause of the conflict is the organization's lack of resources, the needs of the parties are met by increasing resources, and the conflict is resolved. However, when the organization's resources are limited and cannot be increased, this method becomes difficult (Şahin and Çekmecelioğlu, 2016).

Replacing Individuals: In some cases, managers can replace individuals involved in the conflict in order to manage conflicts in line with organizational goals. Another approach is to change the knowledge, attitudes, behaviors, and perceptions of the parties involved in the conflict through training and development programs. This method is time-consuming and costly. However, it can yield better results in the long term (Yılmaz and Görecek, 2019).

Keeping Busy: This strategy is implemented by giving the conflicting parties a lot of work and keeping them busy so that they do not have the opportunity to engage in conflict. The keeping busy strategy temporarily reduces conflict but does not eliminate it. The parties may continue to conflict with each other outside of work (Eren, 1998).

Competing: This strategy is appropriate when the individual considers the issue of conflict to be very important from their perspective or when the other party's undesirable decision is thought to be harmful to the individual. A manager applies the competing strategy in routine matters that require quick decisions or when they want to have a certain degree of influence over their subordinates within the work team (Kılıç, 2019).

Each of these strategies offers different approaches to resolving conflict situations, and choosing the appropriate strategy based on the nature of the conflict enables effective conflict management. Thus, conflict management strategies are an important tool for ensuring that organizations and individuals emerge from conflict situations with minimal damage (Tike, 2024).

CONCLUSION

Conflicts have both positive and negative effects on organizations. When conflicts are managed well, they lead to positive outcomes for the organization. However, conflicts that are not managed well have a negative impact on the organization. Therefore, understanding the positive and negative outcomes of conflict is important for managing conflict effectively (Kayacı, 2024).

The positive contributions that conflicts can make to the organization can be listed as follows (Akçakaya, 2003; Akova and Akın, 2015; Çakır et al., 2012; Salihoğlu, 2019; Yılmaz and Görece, 2019):

- Conflicts enable the generation of new ideas within the organization.
- They facilitate the resolution of problems.
- It develops employees' problem-solving skills.
- If conflict is managed well, organizational effectiveness and efficiency increase.
- When conflict is managed well, relationships between employees improve.
- Conflict eliminates communication breakdowns within the organization.
- It promotes the development of organizational democracy.
- Creates a competitive environment and increases innovation and creativity within the organization.
- Increases employee motivation.
- Increases employees' sense of organizational justice and their commitment to the organization.

- Ensures that an environment of trust is maintained within the organization.
- The negative consequences of conflicts that are not managed effectively can be listed as follows (Ergeneli, 2006; Eren, 1998; Çakır et al., 2012; Karip, 2021; Kılınç et al., 2019; Yılmaz and Görece, 2019):
- Conflict leads to waste of organizational resources and increases costs.
- Conflict can divert individuals' energy to non-work-related issues.
- Communication between individuals and groups decreases.
- Prejudice may develop in relationships between individuals and groups.
- Hostile and destructive behaviors may emerge within the organization.
- It makes achieving organizational goals more difficult.
- Employees' stress levels increase and their self-confidence decreases.
- Conflict can undermine the trust individuals have in each other.
- It lowers morale and motivation levels.
- It deepens differences and hinders cooperation.
- Employees' mental health may deteriorate.
- Conflict may lead to an increase in workplace accidents.
- It may lead to an increase in staff turnover.
- Conflict may cause a negative organizational climate to develop.

It is now understood that conflict is a phenomenon that must be managed effectively rather than eliminated or prevented. Managers should understand the dynamic and complex nature of conflict, assess each conflict individually, and manage it appropriately. This makes it possible to minimize the negative effects of conflict and maximize its potential benefits (Champoux, 2011; Adil, 2025).

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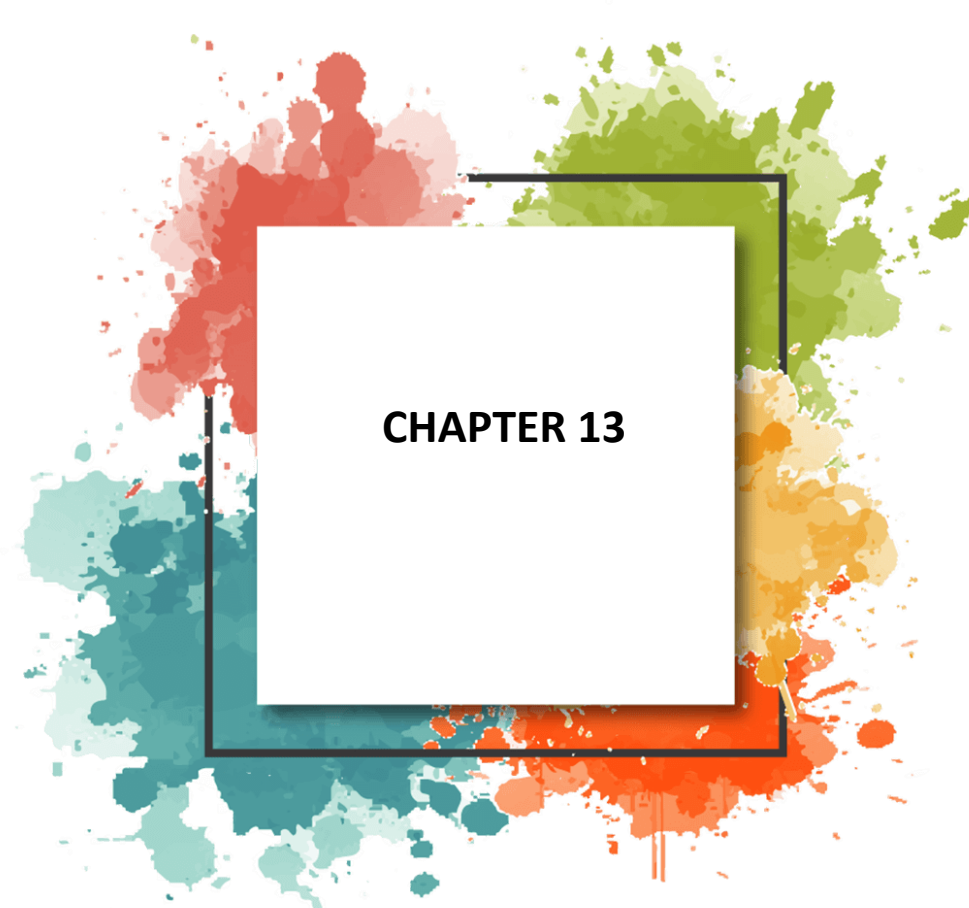
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CHAPTER 13

Analysis of Taoism in Ursula K. Le Guin's *She Unnames Them*

*Cemil Arda Şafak*¹

We have today to learn to get back into accord with the wisdom of nature and realize again our brotherhood with the animals and with the water and the sea.

— Joseph Campbell, *The Power of Myth*.

For so long, religion has had critical influences on literature. The philosophical religious disciplines and religious doctrines created meaningful conflicts for theological debates in literary arguments and works. It is an undeniable fact that literary works, too, suggest a critical eye from a religious and philosophical perspectives. The late American well-celebrated Ursula K. Le Guin (1929-2018), the author of over twenty novels and children's books, the short story writer, poet and essayist is but a few of women writers whose art have a critical eye on philosophical theology. It was Le Guin who once shared in an interview that she was "raised as irreligious as a jackrabbit" and had an interest in Taoism together with its main doctrines (Wray, 2013). This being said, Le Guin's personal interest in theological concepts pervades all through her work as well as short stories. In line with this, the present paper will evaluate religious and philosophical perceptions, including Christianity and Taoism, and analyse Le Guin's short story "She Unnames Them" (1985), throughout which the story of Adam and Eve is revisited.

To begin, Taoism must be identified in order to clearly set the basis for analysis of Le Guin's short story. Taoism, also known as Daoism, is a sophisticated tradition encompassing philosophical and religious standpoints and rituals. In detail, its main philosophy or content signifies that Taoism adopts the idea of a *way of life*, living in harmony with nature, where humans and animals coexist in equilibrium with the underlying principles of the Tao. "Tao" which means the technique, the way, and the force in theological understanding, somehow, corresponds with the idea of this story in a religious way (Hansen, 2020, Pt. 2). The paper will first and foremost trace the religious impacts in Le Guin's story, especially from the Bible. Afterwards, given a general view of Taoism, there will be a correlated analysis of Le Guin's text with the doctrines.

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Religious Criticism

The story of “She Unnames Them” explores an unusual plot, setting and characterization with the Biblical story of Adam and Eve. The narrator intentionally fictionalizes the unnamed Eve. This is not a coincidence, however, Le Guin’s character harmonization with the plot in which the events are concerned with a religious perspective is also intentionally embedded. The relevance between the characters, animals, and Eve created after Adam and the plot lets us criticize broad-based topics such as religion and its controversial aspects. The conflict of Eve and Adam symbolizes wider concepts which could be feminism, phallocentrism and etc. It is Eve who narrates the story and gives the reader a chance to empathize with her in this condition of injustice. Le Guin’s choice of narration is a brilliant one in that it drives us into the middle of emphatic situation, with the use of medias res.

The theme of naming is a vital issue within the text, where Eve is unnameing the animals. As it is mentioned in the Old Testament, Adam named everything, and Eve is made from his ribs. This clarifies the argument that from the beginning of creation, there is a patriarchal structure, not only spiritually but also physically—namely pointing out to the problem of power relations. The Bible would be a source of support for this issue as in the following verse “Adam named his wife Eve because she would become the mother of all the living” (*New International Version*, 2011, Genesis 3:20). With that being said, one can simply deduce that Le Guin accentuates the patriarchal advantage of giving name in which Eve has no right to name herself or being named by God himself.

The case is the same for animals as well. The Bible says: “Now the Lord God had formed out of the ground all the wild animals and all the birds in the sky. [...] So, the man gave names to all the livestock, the birds in the sky and all the wild animals” (*New International Version*, 2011, Genesis 2:19-20). The verse is a proof that it is *the man* (Adam) who names the animals. He seems to be different, not to mention his superiority, than both women and animals. Le Guin (1985) calls that a *gift* given to them by pointing out the *naming* in her short story, and at the end she gives this gift back. Calling it a *gift* is ironic in itself, as if their names are something endowed to them. The employment of satire and irony in the text makes it more dramatic by despising Eve (the female sex, in general) and animals’ situation. Common in literature courses, we are taught that any unnamed character stands and represents a larger general group of people, and no doubt, Le Guin uses her character Eve as a symbol of both religious and feminist background.

The other issue in question is about God's approach for the creation of the sexes. To support, here is another Biblical verse: "Then the Lord God made a woman from the rib he had taken out of the man, and he brought her to the man" (*New International Version*, 2011, Genesis 2:22). This verse stands and has always been interpreted as Eve being created *from* Adam and *for* Adam. Together with the above-mentioned Biblical verse and these dialogues from the short story, it is hinted that women are seen as servants to men. Ursula K. Le Guin employs all these essential issues very laconically in her story.

As a feminist, Ursula K. Le Guin criticized Christianity and its disputable views and belief in the creation of women. The influence of the patriarchal privilege in "Genesis" and such other controversial issues have been negatively imposed on societies, who adopted or were exposed to this understanding for centuries. Therefore, societies, who adopt a similar understanding, have treated women just like Le Guin's Adam, treating Eve like a servant. It must be stated that, by all means, religion is not the only factor that influences societies, but its great impacts are non-negligible.

Taoist Approach and Analysis

In Ursula K. Le Guin's literary works the influence of Taoism can be seen quite easily due to her interest in Taoism since her youth. The case is the same in "She Unnames Them". While Bucknall (1981) mentions the *Tao Te Ching*, and correlates it to Le Guin she explains:

Le Guin says that her attitude toward literary creation is linked to her interest in Taoism. In her creative work, she feels that she is discovering places and people rather than inventing them. In the same way, she sees Taoism as implying the discovery of the way things work (p.4).

As we can see from this quotation, it is clear that the influence of Taoism correlates with her enthusiasm. The above-mentioned quotation also states that rather than inventing she is discovering. In "She Unnames Them" characters are religious characters from the Old Testament which are subjectively considered to be either apocryphal or real. Also, the last line of the given quotation is a proper attribution to her narrative of the conflict of power relations between the sexes. She is interested in the philosophical side of the Taoism rather than its religious aspect. Steed (2022) mentions that in her defense, she believes that religious guides as the elements of gods, miracles, and prayers, seem to have a conflict with the philosophical teachings of Lao Tzu and divert from Taoism's *the way*. Thanks to this perspective, Taoism helps shape Le Guin's literary elements.

There are certain concepts in Taoism which can be reflected in the literary background of this text such as; *wu wei*, *ying* and *yang*, *Bianhua*. Steed (2022) explains these terms in his essay broadly. One of these terms is related to the attitude and teachings of Tao known as *wu wei*, which is a deterministic manner of inaction and pure effectiveness. The following concept is a dualist mentality as one of the concepts that Daoism includes in its own philosophy, which is *ying and yang*, also adopted in Taoism. Similarly, Le Guin advocates the balance of the naturality between the things in general in this context. Another notion called *Bianhua*, translated as *transformation*, means change of any kind, in general. Women in Taoism is also another concept which should be evaluated through this text, it is also related to its religious aspect. Finally, there is also another philosophical concept related to Le Guin's story which is the linguistic problem approached by Taoism. It is a lack of confidence in the language and its terms which gives meaning to things and creates mental alienation of meanings (pp.186-190). These given notions are, of course, not the whole concepts in Taoism but the influence of them can be clearly observed. In line with the given concepts in discussion, the paper would discuss their reflections in Le Guin's text.

It is assumed that the term Dao refers to the natural order of the cosmos. In the text, the character Eve unnames animals and leaves (abandons) her name, as well. Le Guin thinks that the natural order of the cosmos is all naked without names. She gets closer to this nakedness. This is equal to one of the three senses of the Tao which is "the way of the universe." Smith (2007) mentions that "Though Tao is ultimately transcendent, it is also immanent. In this secondary sense it is the *way of universe*, the norm, the rhythm, the driving power in all nature, the ordering principle behind all life.(p.97)" It gives the sense that Tao is a view of the regulating power and being in the cosmos or the life. Taken into consideration for the idea in Le Guin's story, by applying the unnamings element, she brings order into life by this action and implies us the essence of Taoism.

First and foremost, philosophical taoists defend the idea that wisdom is the knowledge that strengthens life. Living wisely, in their perspective, involves preserving life's vitality by not wasting and avoiding unnecessary actions, particularly those marked by friction and conflict and this idea mentioned by Smith (2007) is supported with the concept of *wu wei*, which can be literally translated as inaction but in Taoism it is called "pure effectiveness".

As H. Smith (2007) states "Action in the mode of *wu wei* is action in which friction—in interpersonal relationships, in intra-psychic conflict, and in relation to nature—is reduced to the minimum" (p. 99). This means that peacefulness, acting wisely and reducing the actions to a minimum under such circumstances provides an aligned life with Tao and increased "ch" (vital energy) which flows

within us. There is another concept that H. Smith (2007) states, “Creative Quietude” which is related to the *wu wei*. In fact, this is one of the other adaptive translations for *wu wei* along with “pure effectiveness.” Smith (2007) discusses that “Creative Quietude combines within a single individual two seemingly incompatible conditions—supreme activity and supreme relaxation” (p. 106). These concepts of Taoism seem to relate with the attitude of Eve towards Adam at the end of the short dialogue in Le Guin’s short story (1985) when she says:

“I’m not sure,” I said. I’m going now. With the... ” I hesitated, and finally said, “With them, you know,” and went on out. In fact, I had only just then realized how hard it would have been to explain myself. I could not chatter away as I used to do, taking it all for granted. My words must be as slow, as new, as single, as tentative as the steps I took going down the path away from the house, between the dark--branched, tall dancers motionless against the winter shining (p.27).

From Eve’s attitude towards Adam, it can be clearly stated that this stand as a perfect example for Taoist approach. She prefers silence, suppleness, simplicity to storming around or raging out of control. She says she could not chatter away as she used to do and chooses to use her words with patience and wisely. Smith (2007) has a wise statement which can be a perfect proof for this: “One simply lets the Tao flow in and flow out again until all life becomes a dance in which there is neither feverishness nor imbalance. Wu wei is life lived above tension” (p.107). Here, the reduction of action to minimum with the interpersonal relationship, that is, Adam, can be clearly seen. This microfiction once again provides an insight into how Le Guin chose her words wisely interconnected with Taoism.

In association with Tao, taoists see the water as a natural phenomenon, a metaphor mirroring the concept of Tao due to its natural flowing and carrying things without a push or try. Smith (2007) mentions that in nature, water is seen as the reflection, a metaphor of Taoist idea with its purity and deterministic image. It is also meek and fierce which are features also corresponding with the *wu wei*. In relation, the water symbolism is related with Tao Te Ching: “The person who embodies this condition, says the Tao Te Ching, “works without working.” Such a one acts without strain ... and achieves results without violence, coercion, or pressure” (Smith, 2007, p.109). In the story, the water metaphor of Taoism can be seen at the unnamings of fishes in the sea: “As for the fish of the sea, their names dispersed from them in silence throughout the oceans like faint, dark blurs of cuttlefish ink, and drifted off on the currents without a trace” (Le Guin, 1985, p.27). The deterministic submission of fish, without a hesitation and resistance, shows the symbol of water metaphor of Taoism.

Furthermore, the *ying and yang* concept which is about the dualist perception of the *things* in general, could be contextualized for the power relations and religious contradiction for *She Unnames Them*: Spivack (1984) states that “Taoism asserts, furthermore, the mutual interdependence of male and female, visually depicted in the yin-yang symbol of interlocking dark and light semicircles (p.7)”. Here, it is highlighted that there is a mutual completion between men and women to each other in the philosophy of Taoism. There is an infollution and assertion with the particular group of successors of the Taoism or in some of the texts written for Taoism as it is praising the women rather than approaching in an androgynous mind. In Taoism, there is a peaceful and embrative understanding in its core teaching. In *She Unnames Them*, Eve feels more powerful when the unnamings ends and leaves her anxiety behind before talking to Adam. This means that the balanced duality makes her feel like renewed and strong. It can be observed that there is a patriarchal attitude of Adam in the story; “Adam asks when’s dinner?”, instead of doing it himself (Le Guin, 1985, p.27). If he was in a state of duality, that is, interdependent perception of each other, he would ask the question “When will we prepare the dinner?” or something similar to that which embraces duality.

This mentality defended by Taoism comes into conflict with the perceptions and mentality of Bible in theory. In the Bible, men have superiority in some aspects of human life. Supportingly, verses from the Old Testament state the following: “To the woman, he said, I will make your pains in childbearing very severe; with painful labor you will give birth to children. Your desire will be for your husband, and he will rule over you” (*New International Version*, 2011, Genesis 3:16) and “You shall not allow a woman who practices sorcery to live” (*Amplified Bible*, 2015 Exodus 22:18). From the Bible, there is another verse saying that “But I want you to realize that the head of every man is Christ, and the head of the woman is man, and the head of Christ is God” (*New International Version*, 2011, 1 Corinthians 11:3). The above-mentioned verses from the Bible, which are but a few of them, testify enough to the problem in question. Thus, this optimistic teaching of Taoism, which is about duality, was meaningful for Le Guin to externalize in her writings, as well as in the present study. This view of Daoism, which is about the mutual interdependence of sexes, is not only an equalitarian view but also an optimistic one rather than separating one from the other. To sum, Le Guin provides that natural balance and the equality of man and woman with the idea of *ying and yang*.

The other concept which is called “*Bianhua*” meaning “transformation” is also at the touchstone of understanding Eve in Le Guin’s *She Unnames Them*. In *She*

Unnames Them (1985), after unnamng all the creatures, Eve feels closer to them. She thinks that this unnamng event lets them be like her in terms of their position. They transformed into something quite similar that she feels one with them. She feels even her emotions are becoming one and the same with them. They, after this unlabeled status, are one step closer to Eve. This unnamng can also be evaluated in a different context. In people's daily lives, there are ego satisfactions with the titles that people have with their name. Conflicts of titles and positions cause discrimination between people and create these class discriminations. These are tearing us apart and detaining us from transforming into these unnamed positions.

Women's presence in Daoism which is related to the story can be also approached as a goddess, life-giver and mother as in the Religious Taoism. Women in Daoism have been observed in different characterizations. They have been assigned different roles in comparison to old Chinese tradition's contradictory positioning of women in time. Their social position plays an important role with its esoteric and philosophical approach to women.

For this subject, one of the major roles of the women which is stated by Despeux&Kohn (2003) as "female as mother, the life-giver and nurturing power of the universe in ancient Daoism expressed in the philosophy of the Daode jing (p.6)". Motherhood in Chinese culture is embraced in the Daode Jing as it has expressed the Dao as the great mother and it possessed the feminine features such as, softness and weakness. The Dao as mother or woman imaged as a God, from which everything emerged and returns. As Despeux&Kohn (2003) explain, it is also seen as the life-giving and source of everything, a nurturer. It can be likened to the goddesses of the ancient mythologies such as Babylonian, Greek, etc. Daode Jing asserts a predominance of feminine essence for the Dao ideal. Le Guin gives Eve a guiding role, savior to those animals by unnamng them and taking them with her at the end. Eve representing here, the Dao's feminine features and matches with the characteristics of it. She overcomes Adam with her stillness; her calm attitude and leaving the area of battlefield with all her femininity. She takes the animals and becomes like a goddess; for, they are now free, she becomes their life-giver, they are reborn.

Overview

In the view of such findings, it can be assumed that literature, philosophy and religion have an inseparable bond with each other. The phallogocentric approach in the religions influences the place of women in society. Patriarchal language is also related with religious background and "She Unnames Them" is a great

example of it. In the story, language plays an important role in destroying the idea of labelling and losing the self, the nature. By being labelled, everything is being categorized and alienated from emotions as a result of this discrimination. Le Guin emphasizes the issue by unnamng the animals to extinguish all the meanings that are given to them by Adam. As it is stated in the Taoist idea of this issue, there is a vagueness of words and the insufficiency of meaning but Le Guin clears all the vagueness through unnamng.

To sum up, Ursula K. Le Guin has criticized the religious doctrines, taboos and philosophical doctrines of Taoism in her short story “She Unnames Them”. The inclusion of Taoism and Christianity in Ursula K. Le Guin's fiction has been discussed thoroughly. All being said, it is an undeniable fact that philosophical perception of the story has Taoist and Christian traces. Her interest in Taoism has its marks and influence in a philosophical way in the act of being critical of Christianity. Throughout the story, it can be observed that Le Guin showed her tendency towards Taoism with the idea in the background of the story. In addition to this, the ideals and concepts of Taoism, which can be traced deeply in the subtext of the story are religiously and philosophically compromise with the story and pertinent to define and discuss notions like equality, discrimination, power, religion and language. The three main concepts which are *wu wei*, *ying and yang*, and *Bianhua* are elaborated according to the text. The boundaries in religions are open to be evaluated but the main idea of equality between the genders seems to be allegorically interrogated in *She Unnames Them*. Ursula K. Le Guin has successfully managed to fit so much into such a small number of pages. In all conscience, it can be said that Le Guin blended the eastern tradition, monotheistic religion, and the criticism artistically and succinctly in her work of art.

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