October 2024

INTERNATIONAL STUDIES AND EVALATIONS IN THE FIELD OF

SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

EDITORS

PROF. DR. HAKAN ALTINTAŞ

PROF. DR. MUSTAFA METE

ASSOC. PROF. DR. SALİH BATAL

INTERNATIONAL STUDIES AND EVALUATIONS IN THE FIELD OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

Ekim 2024

Editors

PROF. DR. HAKAN ALTINTAŞ
PROF. DR. MUSTAFA METE
ASSOC. PROF. DR. SALİH BATAL

Contents

Chapter 1

ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE APPLICATIONS IN CORPORATE COMMUNICATIONS[1]

Yarkın ÇELİK[2]

2 Lec. Tekirdağ Namık Kemal University, Marmaraereğlisi Vocational School, Media and Communication, Tekirdağ, Türkiye. ycelik@nku.edu.tr, ORCID ID 0000-0002-9615-7904

Introduction

The increasing influence of digital technologies in all areas is transforming the world of communication. The opportunities offered by artificial intelligence, in particular, have the potential for significant transformation in the media and communication sector. The use of artificial intelligence in areas such as marketing, public relations, and advertising is helping communication professionals to carry out their work more efficiently and effectively.

Artificial intelligence is used in various areas of the communication sector. One of the most common areas of use is content creation. Artificial intelligence can generate content in various formats such as text, image, video, and audio. This content can be used in many different areas such as news sites, blogs, social media platforms, and advertising campaigns (Çelik, 2022: 110). For example, artificial intelligence can be used to write news articles, create product descriptions, or prepare social media posts. Through data analysis, artificial intelligence and the analysis of large datasets, important information about the target audience can be obtained. This information can help marketing campaigns to be planned and executed more effectively. For example, artificial intelligence can be used to identify potential customers who are interested in a particular product or service. Personalization should also be considered. Artificial intelligence can be used to provide a unique experience for each user. For example, artificial intelligence can offer personalized content recommendations to users based on their past behavior and interests. Artificial intelligence also enables communication professionals to use their time and resources more efficiently by automating many manual tasks. For example, it can be used to manage email marketing campaigns or update social media accounts.

The term new media refers to a range of digital communication tools and platforms such as social media, mobile applications, and interactive media (Altunay, 2012: 20). New media has had a profound impact on all aspects of our lives by changing the way we communicate with each other.

The rise of new media has been accompanied by a series of challenges and opportunities. In this context, new media has integrated and developed with aggressive technical knowledge (Bayrak, 2021: 497).

On the one hand, new media facilitates people's connection and information sharing by building environments such as the metaverse and initiating a global economy (Aydoğan, Yengin, & Bayrak, 2022: 62). On the other hand, it has also made it easier for people to spread misinformation and cyberbullying. As we continue to use and trust new media, it is important to be aware of both its benefits and risks.

Brand identity is the set of perceptions and emotions a person has when they think of a particular brand. It is the result of all of a person's interactions

with a brand, including advertising, customer service, the product itself, and word-of-mouth communication (Atıgan, 2016: 1). A strong brand identity can help a company, institution, or service stand out from its competitors, build customer loyalty, and increase sales. It can also facilitate the charging of high prices for products and services.

For consumers to return and purchase the product again, the brand must be easily remembered. To establish a positive relationship with consumers, the brand must also be likable. The brand must be understandable so that consumers can understand what the product is and what it does. The brand must be sustainable so that it can be easily maintained and used by consumers (Elden, 2009: 113). The brand must be adaptable to be easily changed or modified to meet the needs of consumers.

Researchers have put forward various definitions of artificial intelligence as its use has become widespread in different fields. Among these definitions, Ergen's approach is noteworthy for its concise expression of the essence of artificial intelligence. According to Ergen, artificial intelligence is a powerful and effective technology that enables a digital brain to perform fundamental cognitive functions such as perception, comparison, and learning (Ergen, 2019: 6). This definition clearly reveals the basic functions and potential of artificial intelligence.

From Kaya and Engin's perspective, artificial intelligence is a technology that enables machines to learn from experiences, adapt to new information, and mimic human tasks. Essentially, it aims to emulate human intelligence by combining information collected through various systems and thus generating solutions to problems (Kaya and Engin, 2005: 106). Artificial intelligence tools are used in a wide range of fields, from finance to healthcare, marketing to defense, and are leading to significant transformations in every field (Bostrom, 2018: 184).

It is expected that artificial intelligence will change the nature of existing jobs in the coming years. This change and transformation, which can be called a technological revolution, is also shaking the foundations of the economy and labor force (Acemoğlu and Restrepo, 2019: 2189). According to Köse, with artificial intelligence, data privacy, privacy violations, ethical dilemmas, and cyberattacks are identified as the most prominent challenges (Köse, 2018: 185). Zohar states that the human brain is still a universe that contains countless mysteries and cannot be easily understood in the near future (Zohar, 2003: 67). Doğan, on the other hand, states that artificial intelligence is directly related to many scientific disciplines and industries and examines the studies of artificial intelligence in terms of imitating human intelligence and vitality (Doğan, 2002: 32).

Artificial intelligence offers numerous benefits to communication professionals in various fields. These primarily include increased efficiency, effectiveness, and creativity (Aydoğdu Çelik and Çelik, 2023: 31).

It can automate many manual tasks, enabling communication professionals to utilize their time and resources more efficiently. By providing valuable insights about target audiences and offering personalized experiences, artificial intelligence aids in conducting communication campaigns more effectively. It also helps communication professionals become more creative by providing new ideas and solutions.

Artificial intelligence has the potential to significantly transform the communications sector. It assists communication professionals in more efficiently and effectively carrying out their work in areas such as marketing, public relations, and advertising. Its use in the communications sector is expected to become even more widespread in the coming years, leading to a radical transformation of this sector.

Artificial intelligence is a branch of technology that mimics human intelligence and performs cognitive functions such as problem-solving, decision-making, and learning. It is currently used in many different fields and offers significant advantages. The fact that it can imitate human cognitive processes, "it has emerged as one of the most revolutionary technological advancements of the 21st century" (Aydoğdu Çelik, 2024: 341). In fact, by automating repetitive tasks, solving complex problems quickly, and reducing human error, artificial intelligence can significantly increase efficiency and productivity (Manyika et al., 2013). It can significantly reduce costs by optimizing production and business processes, reducing errors and waste, and minimizing the need for human labor (McKinsey Global Institute, 2018). It can help make better decisions by analyzing large datasets, identifying patterns and trends, and making predictions (Brynjolfsson & McAfee, 2017). Artificial intelligence can also be used to develop new products and services. For example, it can be used to develop new drugs and treatments (Topol, 2019). It can help improve the customer experience by providing personalized recommendations, optimizing customer service, and improving interactions with customers (Accenture, 2018).

One of the most significant advantages of artificial intelligence in content creation is its speed and efficiency. Trained on vast datasets of text and images, artificial intelligence can generate content much faster than humans. Moreover, AI-generated content can be customized for specific target audiences, making it more engaging and effective. Another crucial benefit of artificial intelligence in the communications sector is its creativity. By surpassing the limitations of the human brain, AIs can generate novel ideas and content that have never been considered before. This allows for more original and impactful communication campaigns.

The increasing influence of digital technologies across all sectors is transforming the world of communications. In particular, the capabilities offered by artificial intelligence hold significant potential for revolutionizing the media

and communications industry. The use of AI in fields such as marketing, public relations, and advertising is helping communication professionals to carry out their work more efficiently and effectively.

AI is employed in various areas of the communications sector, with content creation being one of the most common applications. AI can produce content in various formats, including text, images, videos, and audio. This content can be utilized in numerous contexts, such as news websites, blogs, social media platforms, and advertising campaigns.

Artificial intelligence (AI) is playing a significant role in brand creation, as it does in many other areas today. AI tools help brands better understand their target audiences, build stronger connections with them, and optimize the customer experience.

AI provides great convenience for brands in collecting and analyzing customer data. Thanks to this, brands can better understand their customers' demographic information, shopping habits, interests, and expectations. Based on the information obtained, brands can develop products and services specifically for their target audience, increasing their competitive power in the market.

AI not only analyzes customer data but also helps to proactively improve the customer experience using this data. In addition, it can be used to provide personalized experiences in areas such as product recommendations, content marketing, and email marketing. AI tools help brands build a strong brand identity and increase their competitive power in the market. Brands that take advantage of the opportunities it offers can build stronger relationships with their customers and achieve more sustainable success.

AI has become the key to corporate success today. AI tools provide a competitive advantage for businesses by enabling them to stay one step ahead in competition and market share, automate functions, stay informed about the latest trends, and make better strategic decisions. AI helps businesses grow successfully and sustainably by providing them with a competitive advantage. Organizations that take advantage of the opportunities offered by AI can gain a competitive edge, increase customer satisfaction, and increase their profitability.

Artificial intelligence holds the potential to revolutionize the advertising industry. By harnessing the power of AI, organizations can better understand their target audience, create personalized advertisements, and drive higher conversions.

Corporate advertising, on the other hand, focuses on building a company's corporate image and reputation rather than promoting specific products or services (Peltekoğlu, 2014). Such advertisements do not mention goods or

services (Ülger, 2003). Today, AI tools are being used in all corporate communication processes to target, identify, and analyze specific demographic groups, enabling more effective targeting of efforts.

AI helps identify trends and create relevant advertisements by analyzing consumer preferences and behaviors. This data-driven approach allows for the design of more successful ads that capitalize on current trends. AI can also be used to create more personalized ads than traditional media. By analyzing data and identifying specific interests, AI targets communication strategies accordingly. As a result, ads with higher click-through and exposure rates are produced.

Artificial intelligence plays a significant role in optimizing advertising campaigns in real-time. By continuously analyzing data, AI can determine which ads are performing well and which are not, allowing for necessary adjustments. This ensures that campaigns consistently achieve maximum success. AI can also be used to measure ad performance. By analyzing data, it can identify which ads are successful and which are unsuccessful. This information is crucial for improving future advertising campaigns and making them more successful. As a result, AI is rapidly transforming the advertising landscape. Businesses can leverage the power of AI to create more effective and targeted ads, reach more customers, and increase sales.

The advancement of technology is also transforming the way we generate and implement ideas in fields such as advertising, public relations, propaganda, and marketing. With the power of AI, it is now possible to create posters without human intervention or with minimal involvement. This is achieved through computer programs that can generate posters based on specific parameters. For example, by inputting information such as the poster's theme, color palette, and the desired message, the program can generate poster designs. This eliminates the need to hire a designer or spend hours designing posters for events or campaigns. Computer programs can also create different variations of a single poster. This allows for the selection of the most preferred design or the testing of different options to identify the most effective poster.

As technology continues to evolve, the use of artificial intelligence in creative fields is also increasing. Slogan writing is one such area. While some argue that the use of AI in this field stifles creativity, others see it as a way to leverage the power of data and machine learning to create more effective slogans.

AI can generate slogans by analyzing the brand, product, target audience, and the current advertising environment. These slogans can then be presented to corporate communications experts for evaluation. In this way, a series of potential slogans are generated for consideration.

Writing has been defined as a technology that is consciously designed and

inevitably subconscious, a technology that externalizes mental labor. (Ong, 2018). The creation of brands, corporate identities, advertising scripts, public relations campaigns, slogans, films, and visuals with basic words by AI is, as Walter J. Ong states in his book *Orality and Literacy*, means the technologization of the word.

Method of the Research

This study examines the quantitative use of artificial intelligence in corporate communication, branding, and advertising activities. The case study method, a type of qualitative research method, will be used in the research. The potential of artificial intelligence in content creation will be examined using the example of Hayrabolu Dessert, a geographically indicated product of Tekirdağ. In the study, elements such as brand logos, slogans, and advertising texts will be designed using different text and visual generation tools of artificial intelligence. The designed elements will be analyzed with expert opinions and evaluations of the target audience. Artificial intelligence applications Art Breeder, Gemini, and Brandmark have been used within the scope of the study.

The purpose of this research is to examine the potential of artificial intelligence in generating written and visual content for the Hayrabolu Dessert brandand to evaluate the contribution of this content to the city's image. In the study, elements such as brand logos, slogans, and advertising texts will be designed using various text and image generation tools of artificial intelligence. The findings will provide valuable information on how artificial intelligence can be used for creative content generation in the communication sector. This study aims to investigate and analyze how artificial intelligence can assist in branding processes, creating corporate identities, preparing advertising texts and slogans, and generating visuals in sectors such as business communication, public relations, advertising, and marketing.

Although there are numerous studies on the applications of artificial intelligence in academia, this research focuses on current artificial intelligence application examples conducted in the fields of public relations, advertising, marketing, and communication design. Therefore, the importance of the study is that it is based on current data. This research will contribute to the literature on the use of artificial intelligence as a new tool in the communication sector. In addition, it will reveal the potential of using artificial intelligence as a tool to improve the city image. The findings of the study will offer a new perspective on the marketing and communication strategies of the Hayrabolu Dessert brand.

Artificial Intelligence Applications in Corporate Communications

In the findings section of the study, artificial intelligence-based tools such as Art Breeder, Google Gemini, and Brandmark were used to design brand and corporate communication components for the Hayrabolu Dessert brand.

Initially, the Google Gemini application was given the command to generate five brand names in Turkish for Hayrabolu Dessert, a product with a geographical indication from Tekirdağ.

Hayrabolu'nun İncisi

Tatlının Sultanı

Hayrabolu Hünkâr Tatlısı

Tekirdağ'ın Lezzeti

Hayrabolu Sevdası

Table 1. Brand Name

• Hayrabolu'nun İncisi; The dessert stands as a prominent emblem of Hayrabolu.

• Tatlının Sultanı; It states that the sweetness and quality of the dessert are unparalleled.

• Hayrabolu Hünkâr Tatlısı, It shows that the tradition of dessert has existed since the Ottoman period.

• Tekirdağ'ın Lezzeti, It emphasizes that desserts are one of the most important flavors of Tekirdağ.

• Hayrabolu Sevdası, It shows that desserts are a great passion for the people of Hayrabolu.

Within this segment, we have tasked Google Gemini with developing a comprehensive vision and mission statement for the Hayrabolu Dessert brand that we are establishing.

Vision: Hayrabolu Dessert is one of the most important flavors of Tekirdağ. Our vision is to introduce this unique flavor to people all over Turkey and the world, and to make Hayrabolu Dessert a world-famous dessert.

Mission: Our mission is to preserve the traditional flavor and quality of Hayrabolu Dessert and to offer a world-class product using modern production techniques. We want to make Hayrabolu Dessert a dessert that stands out for its taste and quality, and that people always enjoy consuming. In line with this vision and mission, companies producing Hayrabolu Dessert should take care to preserve the traditional flavor and quality of the dessert. They should also strive to make the dessert accessible to a wider audience by using modern production techniques.

In this part of the research, we have instructed the Google Gemini to generate a slogan for our Hayrabolu Dessert brand that we will create.

Lezzetin sırrı	The secret of taste
Tekirdağ'ın lezzeti	The taste of Tekirdağ
Osmanlı'dan gelen lezzet	A taste from the Ottoman Empire
Ağızda dağılan lezzet	A taste that melts in your mouth
Tatlı bir tutku	A sweet passion
Her an yanınızda	With you every moment
Tatlı bir hediye	A sweet gift
Sevdiklerinize sunun	Offer it to your loved ones

Table 2. *Slogans*

Within this segment of the research, we have assigned the BrandMark application the task of generating a logo for the Hayrabolu Dessert brand which we intend to establish.

Visual 1. *Logos*

In this section of the research, the Art Breeder application was instructed to create creative visuals for the brand we are developing. The results are shown in Visual 2.

Visual 1. Posters

Below is the output generated by Google Gemini when we asked it to create an advertising text and campaign for our new Hayrabolu Dessert brand.

A Taste of Tradition: Hayrabolu Dessert, Indulge in Hayrabolu Dessert, a timeless treasure from Tekirdağ. Crafted with a harmonious blend of semolina and cheese, this Ottoman-era delight has captivated taste buds for centuries. Our traditional recipes and techniques ensure that every bite is a journey through culinary history. Soaked in sweet syrup, this dessert offers a melt-in-your-mouth experience that will leave you craving more. Share the joy of Hayrabolu Dessert with your loved ones.

Google Gemini was tasked with the command "create an advertising text and campaign for a Hayrabolu Dessert brand we are developing." The result is presented below.

Activities: As part of the advertising campaign, various events will be organized to promote the taste and quality of Hayrabolu Dessert. These events will include tasting events where Hayrabolu Dessert is distributed free of charge, workshops demonstrating the preparation of Hayrabolu Dessert, and competitions where dishes made with Hayrabolu Dessert are prepared.

Message: Hayrabolu Dessert is a dessert that captivates everyone with its unique flavor, deserving the title of "Sultan of Desserts".

The success of the advertising campaign will be measured by considering the following criteria:

• Awareness: Increasing awareness of Hayrabolu Dessert

• Sales: Increasing sales of Hayrabolu Dessert

• Social media engagement: Increasing social media engagement related to Hayrabolu Dessert

Finally, the command "Create a corporate social responsibility campaign for the brand using the Google Gemini application" was given. The results are presented below.

Campaign Name: Hayrabolu Sweet: A Boost for Tekirdağ

Campaign Objective: To enhance Tekirdağ's economic growth by promoting Hayrabolu Dessert and to preserve and disseminate Hayrabolu's cultural heritage.

Campaign Example: The campaign will include free tasting events of Hayrabolu Dessert in various locations across Turkey, such as shopping malls, entertainment centers, and cultural hubs. These events will provide an opportunity for the public to experience the unique flavor of Hayrabolu Dessert and learn about its history. Furthermore, the campaign will involve the creation of promotional materials to highlight Hayrabolu's rich historical and cultural background. These materials may include guidebooks featuring historical and cultural sites, cookbooks showcasing traditional dishes, and informative brochures about Hayrabolu. These materials will be distributed at retail outlets selling Hayrabolu Dessert and offered as complimentary gifts to tourists visiting Hayrabolu.

Conclusion

Today, artificial intelligence is widely and effectively used in companies' communication strategies to create targeted ads for specific audiences or to identify target audiences. In this context, algorithms that analyze consumer data are integrated with artificial intelligence tools. The integration of artificial intelligence into corporate communication strategies is used to create more personalized and customized advertising and marketing strategies. In this way, target audiences are better understood, and ads with high potential to attract attention are created. The semantic web works by using data obtained from a user's online activities.

Research findings, analyzed through content analysis, demonstrate that artificial intelligence significantly contributes to the work of public relations professionals, experts, advertisers, and those working in related fields. The re-

search has determined that artificial intelligence provides the most significant benefit by saving time in generating different and original ideas. Additionally, it has been concluded that corporate communication studies conducted with artificial intelligence can create highly personalized advertisements with greater potential for impact and conversion among consumers.

A significant finding from the research is that it is currently impossible to create campaigns in fields such as public relations, advertising, and corporate social responsibility without human input and contribution. This finding demonstrates the continued critical importance of the human factor in areas such as creativity, strategic planning, and building emotional connections. However, the research also concluded that artificial intelligence plays a significant supporting role in these areas. The contributions that artificial intelligence can provide in areas such as data analysis, trend identification, creating content tailored to the target audience, and optimizing campaign performance are quite significant.

The transition of artificial intelligence into advertising is being used to create more personalized and targeted ads. By better understanding the target audience, it is possible to create ads with a much higher potential to attract attention. This can be done using data obtained from a user's online activity. Research findings, evaluated through content analysis, show that artificial intelligence is of great help to public relations professionals, experts, advertisers, and those working in related fields. First of all, according to the research, the most significant benefit it provides is saving time in creating different and unique ideas.

Research has shown that artificial intelligence is still in its early stages of development for graphic designers. However, several AI tools that have begun to be used by graphic designers have been examined in this article. These include AI-powered design programs that can automatically generate design ideas, as well as software that can help identify errors in designs. As AI technology continues to evolve, it is likely that more AI tools will be offered to graphic designers, corporate communication designers, and professionals in related fields.

Bibliography

Accenture. (2018). The future of retail: Reimagining the customer experience in a digital world. Accenture.

Acemoğlu, D. & Restrepo, P. (2020). Robots and Jobs: Evidence from US Labor Markets. Journal of Political Economy, 128 (6), 2188-2244.

Altunay, A. (2012). Yeni Medya ve... (D. Yengin, Edt.) İstanbul: Anahtar Kitaplar.

Atıgan, F. (2016: 1). Marka Yönetimi. Ankara: Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık

Aydoğan, D., Yengin, D. ve Bayrak T. (2022). Sanatın hibrit gerçeklik alanı: "Metaverse". yedi: Sanat, Tasarım ve Bilim Dergisi, 28, 53-66. doi: 10.17484/yedi.102884

Aydoğdu Çelik, M. How Does Artificial Intelligence Function in Education? A Google Gemini Experiment. Yeni Medya Çalışmaları ve Yapay Zeka-I içinde (ss. 339-371). Yengin, D., Bayrak, T. (Eds). İksad Yayınevi, 2024.

Aydoğdu Çelik, M., & Çelik, Y. (2023). İngiliz Romantik Şiirinin Yapay Zekâ Teknolojisiyle Görselleştirilmesi. HUMANITAS - Uluslararası Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 11 (INCSOS VIII Özel Sayısı), 21-36. https://doi.org/10.20304/humanitas.1247607.

Balta Peltekoğlu, F. (2014). Halkla İlişkiler Nedir? İstanbul, Beta Yayınları, 8. Baskı.

Bayrak, T. (2021). Transformation of digital games in the context of simulation. T. Bayrak (Ed.) Digital future içinde (s. 495-511). Berlin: Peter Lang GmbH.

Bostrom, N. (2018). Süper Zekâ: Yapay Zekâ Uygulamaları, Tehlikeler ve Stratejiler, (Çev. Ferit Burak Aydar). İstanbul: Koç Üniversitesi Yayınları-184.

Brynjolfsson, E., & McAfee, A. (2017). Machine learning and the future of work. Technology Review, 120(2), 28-32.

Çelik, Y. (2022). A'dan Z'ye İletişim Çalışmaları-7. Ilgın, H., Ö., Çiftçi, H. (ed), Kurumsal İletişimde Yapay Zekâ Kullanımı, (91-114) İksad Yayınevi.

Doğan, A. (2002). Yapay zekâ. Ankara: Kariyer.

Elden M. (2009). Reklam ve Reklamcılık. İstanbul: Say Yayınları

Ergen, M. (2019). What is Artificial Intelligence? Technical Considerations and Future Perception. The Anatolian Journal of Cardiology, 22(2), 5-7.

Kaya, İ., & Engin, O. (2005). Kalite İyileştirme Sürecinde Yapay Zekâ Tekniklerinin Kullanımı. Pamukkale Üniversitesi Mühendislik Bilimleri Dergisi, 11(1), 103-114.

Köse, U. (2018). Are We Safe Enough in the Future of Artificial Intelligence? A Discussion on Machine Ethics and Artificial Intelligence Safety. Broad Research in Artificial Intelligence and Neuroscience, 9(2), 184-197.

Manyika, J., Chui, M., Miremadi, M., Bughin, J., George, K., McKinsey Global Institute, & McKinsey & Company. (2013). A future that works: Automation, employment, and productivity. McKinsey Global Institute.

McKinsey Global Institute. (2018). Jobs lost, jobs gained: What the future of work will mean for jobs, skills, and wages. McKinsey Global Institute.

Ong, W. (2018). Sözlü ve Yazılı Kültür Sözün Teknolojileşmesi, İstanbul, Metis Yayınları, 6. Baskı

Topol, E. (2019). Deep medicine: How artificial intelligence can make healthcare human again. Basic Books.

Ülger, Y. D. (2003). İşletmelerde İletişim ve Halkla İlişkiler, İstanbul, Der Yayınları.

Zohar, D. (2003). Kuantum benlik (Çev: Seda Kervanoğlu). Ankara: Doruk Yay
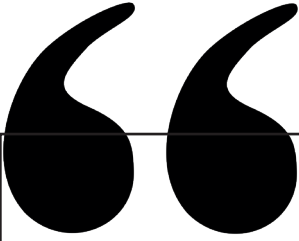
Chapter 2

FINANCING AND ACCESSIBILITY OF HEALTHCARE SERVICES THROUGH ISLAMIC FINANCE INSTRUMENTS

Selçuk BAKAN[1]

1 Dr., Ağrı İbrahim Çeçen Üniversitesi, Doğubayazıt Ahmed-i Hani Meslek Yüksekokulu, Dış Ticaret Bölümü, sbakan@gmail.com

Health is a crucial factor in enhancing the quality of life and combating diseases. In the modern world, the financing and management of healthcare services have become significant issues. Islamic finance is a system in which financial transactions are conducted based on ethical principles derived from Islamic law. It plays an essential role not only in the fields of economics and banking but also in the healthcare sector. The role of Islamic finance in healthcare has a significant impact on both the financing of healthcare services and the management of healthcare institutions.

The intersection of Islamic finance and healthcare services represents a significant area in terms of enhancing social welfare and promoting human-centered economic approaches. Islamic finance, based on the principles of prohibition of interest (riba), risk-sharing, and fair trade, offers a human-centric financial system. These principles can provide ethical and sustainable solutions for the financing of healthcare services. Since healthcare directly impacts social welfare, Islamic finance models can contribute to strengthening healthcare infrastructure and promoting fair and accessible healthcare services. Particularly, Islamic charitable instruments such as zakat, waqf, and sadaqah, when combined with social responsibility projects, present effective mechanisms for financing and improving healthcare services. This intersection presents an area where both the public and private sectors can collaborate with the aim of protecting public health.

1. Introduction

Islamic finance, as a system based on the principles of economic and social justice in Islam, offers innovative and sustainable solutions in various sectors. Among these, the healthcare sector is increasingly attracting attention for developing new financing models aligned with Islamic financial principles. Financing healthcare services poses significant challenges in many countries, while concepts such as interest-free financing, risk-sharing, and social solidarity offered by Islamic finance present potential solutions to these challenges (Ahmed, 2011; Mirakhor et al., 2020).

Islamic finance is not merely an economic system but also aims to enhance social welfare. In this context, ensuring equitable access to healthcare services is in line with the social responsibility ethos of Islamic finance. Mechanisms of Islamic social solidarity, such as zakat, sadaqah, and waqf, are considered crucial resources for enabling disadvantaged groups to access healthcare services (Hassan and Lewis, 2009). For instance, zakat funds can be used to pay health insurance premiums for low-income individuals, while waqf systems can play an effective role in financing hospitals and health centers (Siddiqi, 2004).

Moreover, innovative solutions such as sukuk (Islamic bonds) and murabaha (profit-sharing-based financing), which are among Islamic financing instruments, are increasingly being used in the financing of healthcare proj-

ects. Sukuk has become a significant tool in the financing of infrastructure investments, particularly for the construction of hospitals, the purchase of medical equipment, and the support of large-scale healthcare projects (El-Gamal, 2006). Similarly, Islamic financing tools like murabaha provide an interest-free solution for meeting the financial needs of hospital administrations and healthcare providers (Mirakhor et al., 2020).

The role of Islamic finance in healthcare services is not limited to financing models alone. It also offers an ethical framework that ensures healthcare services are more just and accessible. The concept of social justice in Islam advocates that access to healthcare services should be considered a human right. According to this understanding, it is emphasized that everyone should have equal access to basic healthcare services and that justice should be upheld in the financing of these services (de la Santé, 2020).

The growing need for alternative financing models for the expansion and improvement of healthcare services necessitates the exploration of Islamic finance. The tools offered by Islamic finance possess significant potential in enhancing the accessibility and sustainability of healthcare services (Ahmed, 2011).

Islamic finance is a financial system based on Sharia principles, prohibiting interest (riba), uncertainty (gharar), and speculation (maysir). This system provides an ethical framework that balances social justice and income distribution while supporting sustainability. The healthcare sector, which is critical for improving human quality of life, can benefit significantly from exploring the efficacy of Islamic financial instruments within this sector.

In this section, the impacts and contributions of Islamic finance on healthcare services will be examined in detail, and practical applications for delivering healthcare services in line with Islamic finance principles will be evaluated.

2. Principles of Islamic Finance and Their Application to Healthcare Services

Islamic finance aims to manage economic activities in accordance with the principles of Islamic Sharia. Unlike traditional financial systems, Islamic finance is based on key principles such as the prohibition of interest (riba), avoidance of uncertainty (gharar), prohibition of speculation (maysir), asset-based financing, and risk-sharing. These principles not only aim to align the financial activities of individuals and institutions with ethical and social responsibilities but also lead to the development of different methods for providing financing in the healthcare sector (Khan, 1992; Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011). Islamic finance, while providing funds to the healthcare sector, also includes models that encourage social solidarity. For example, Islamic social responsibility tools such as zakat, sadaqah, and waqf have been effective in meeting the

health needs of communities (Sadeq, 1999).

To understand how Islamic finance can be applied in the healthcare sector, it is important first to grasp the fundamental principles of Islamic finance. These principles reflect Sharia's understanding of social justice and economic sustainability.

2.1. Prohibition of Interest (Riba)

One of the fundamental principles of Islamic finance is the prohibition of interest. Riba, defined as any fixed return received in exchange for a monetary value increase, is haram according to Islamic law. This principle aims to prevent unjust gain in debt relations and ensure a fair distribution of wealth (Ayub, 2007). The prohibition of interest is addressed in the Islamic banking system through alternative financial products such as murabaha, mudaraba, musharaka, and ijara, which are based on profit and loss sharing, thus conducting financial transactions on a moral basis (Usmani, 2002). Interest-free healthcare financing models aim to increase access to healthcare services, especially for low-income individuals. For example, Islamic banks in Malaysia have contributed to the expansion of healthcare services by providing interest-free credit models for hospital infrastructure projects (Rahman, 2010).

2.2. Avoidance of Uncertainty (Gharar)

Another important principle of Islamic finance is the avoidance of uncertainty. Gharar refers to the presence of uncertainty or deceptive risks in commercial transactions and is prohibited in Islamic law. This principle ensures that parties are mutually informed and transparent during transactions (El-Gamal, 2006). In Islamic finance, the prohibition of gharar limits certain practices in insurance and derivative markets due to the presence of uncertainty in these transactions (Chapra et al., 2008). Conventional health insurance systems may be deemed inappropriate by Islamic finance due to the gharar principle. Instead, the takaful system, which is an Islamic health insurance model, has been developed. Takaful eliminates uncertainty by ensuring risk-sharing among participants (Billah, 2007). Takaful systems offer an affordable health insurance solution, particularly for low-income individuals (Billah, 2019).

2.3. Prohibition of Speculation (Maysir)

Islamic finance prohibits maysir, which means speculation and gambling. Maysir involves unfair gain and the unjust distribution of risk. This principle encourages investors to take conscious risks while preventing random or uncontrolled risk-taking (Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011). In the context of healthcare services, this principle becomes particularly significant in the insurance sector. Conventional insurance systems, built on high uncertainty and risk-sharing, may conflict with the prohibition of maysir (Ayub, 2009). Hence, in Islamic societies, risk-sharing mechanisms such as takaful are preferred over conven-

tional health insurance (El-Gamal, 2006). Takaful offers a system where participants pool their risks into a common fund, providing a model that avoids speculative gains. In healthcare service delivery, such models create a fair and sustainable financial structure (Zaman and Asutay, 2009).

2.4. Asset-Based Financing

Islamic finance mandates asset-based financing. Financial transactions must be supported by real assets. This means that financing should have a tangible basis rather than being speculative. Islamic banks offer products based on ownership and asset transfer, contributing directly to the real economy (Warde, 2010). Asset-based financing, a fundamental principle of Islamic finance, can play a significant role in healthcare services. This principle requires that assets have a tangible counterpart; it can be applied in hospital construction, the purchase of medical equipment, and the financing of healthcare infrastructure. Such investments can be realized through Islamic finance instruments such as sukuk (Islamic bonds), thus enhancing the sustainability of the healthcare sector (Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011). This ensures financial sustainability in healthcare services while adhering to principles of risk avoidance and fair profit (El-Gamal, 2006; Obaidullah, 2005).

2.5. Profit-Loss Sharing (Mudaraba and Musharaka)

Islamic finance encourages business models based on profit and loss sharing. Mudaraba and Musharaka are two significant financing methods based on this principle. In Mudaraba, one party provides capital while the other contributes labor, and the resulting profit is shared. Musharaka, on the other hand, involves partners contributing capital to a business partnership, where both profits and losses are shared proportionally (Usmani, 2002). The principle of profit and loss sharing in Islamic finance operates through Mudaraba and Musharaka contracts. In the healthcare sector, this model can be applied as a partnership model between hospital management and financial investors. For example, in a Mudaraba contract, investors provide capital for healthcare projects while the healthcare institution acts as the managing party. The revenue generated is distributed based on a pre-determined profit and loss sharing ratio. This model creates a system where risks and gains are shared equally, thereby improving the quality of healthcare services (Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011).

2.6. Social Justice and Responsibility

One of the primary objectives of Islamic finance is to ensure social justice. In this respect, zakat and sadaqah, as forms of social welfare, are integral to Islamic finance. Moreover, Islamic financial institutions ensure that their financial activities contribute to society and address economic imbalances (Chapra, 2008). Islamic finance targets not only individual welfare but also the general well-being of society. Equitable and fair distribution of healthcare services is

one of the fundamental objectives of this financial model. Zakat and sadaqah-based systems play a crucial role in providing healthcare to the weaker and more vulnerable sections of society. Islamic finance particularly highlights the concepts of mutual assistance and solidarity and advocates that the financial system should contribute to the general welfare of society in accordance with these principles. In the context of healthcare services, Islamic financial institutions can establish funds and insurance systems (takaful) to provide free or low-cost healthcare services to disadvantaged groups (El-Gamal, 2006). Such approaches support equitable access to healthcare services and aim to reduce health disparities in society (Siddiqi, 2004).

The social responsibility principles of Islam play a critical role in financing healthcare services. Specifically, zakat and waqf have been utilized to provide healthcare to poor and disadvantaged communities (Cizakca, 2000). Zakat is a mandatory charitable tool in Islam, and its use for healthcare has been expanded to cover the treatment costs of impoverished individuals (Kahf, 2003). Waqfs (endowments), particularly during the Ottoman period, were used to finance hospitals and healthcare centers (Singer, 2006). Today, the contributions of waqfs to health projects continue in countries such as Saudi Arabia and Malaysia (Cizakca, 1998).

3. Islamic Finance Models in Healthcare Services

Islamic financial instruments have gained significant traction in the healthcare sector, particularly with their structures emphasizing social justice and risk-sharing. Islamic finance, by offering an interest-free economic model, brings forth a system that prioritizes social justice and economic welfare. Islamic financial instruments present significant alternatives in the financing of the healthcare sector.

The foundational tools of Islamic finance, built on an interest-free structure, create many opportunities for the financing of healthcare services. Especially zakat, waqf, and sukuk are considered powerful financing models that can be used to improve the accessibility and enhancement of healthcare infrastructure. Zakat, as an application aimed at ensuring social justice in income distribution in Islamic societies, can be used as a crucial tool to provide access to healthcare services for low-income individuals (Kahf, 2003). The waqf system has historically been directly associated with healthcare services. During the Middle Ages, numerous hospitals were established through waqfs in the Islamic world, providing free access to healthcare services for the public (Çizakça, 2000). In the modern era, restructuring the waqf system to be an effective financing tool in healthcare services offers significant opportunities for sustainable healthcare investments (Sadeq, 2002). For example, resources can be created through waqfs for the construction of healthcare institutions, the development of healthcare technology, and healthcare education.

In this section, major Islamic finance models that can be used in the financing of healthcare services will be examined.

3.1. Islamic Microfinance and Healthcare

Islamic microfinance aims to increase access to healthcare services for low-income individuals by providing interest-free small loans. This model can be a significant solution for individuals facing difficulties accessing healthcare services, especially in developing countries. Funds provided through microfinance enable patients to cover their medical expenses and pay their health insurance premiums (Obaidullah and Khan, 2008). Islamic microfinance offers financing options based on interest-free and profit-sharing principles, making it possible to sustainably cover such emergency health expenses (El-Gamal, 2006). Islamic microfinance aims to increase access to healthcare services for low-income individuals (Obaidullah, 2008). Interest-free credit models have been used as a significant tool in the establishment of health clinics and the financing of small-scale healthcare services (Wajdi Dusuki, 2008). Moreover, Islamic microfinance institutions finance projects that increase women's access to prenatal and postnatal healthcare services (Obaidullah, 2015).

Islamic microfinance also plays a crucial role in reducing poverty and improving health outcomes. In this context, poverty has adverse effects on health, and Islamic microfinance programs improve health outcomes for the poor by increasing their income levels and improving their access to healthcare services. Islamic microfinance contributes to the accumulation of social capital and thus to better health outcomes (El-Ghazali, 1994).

3.2. Takaful (Islamic Insurance)

Takaful is the Islamic insurance system and means "mutual guarantee." This system has been developed to promote cooperation and solidarity among Muslims. Unlike conventional insurance systems, participants contribute to a risk pool, and the funds in this pool are used to cover any participant's losses (Hassan, 2020).

As the Islamic insurance system, takaful plays a significant role in the healthcare sector. Takaful, unlike conventional insurance, is based on the principles of risk-sharing and mutual assistance. This system offers participants risk management solutions while avoiding the prohibitions of interest (riba), uncertainty (gharar), and gambling (maysir) in Islam. Examining the relationship between takaful and the healthcare sector is crucial for understanding the integrated structure of Islamic finance and healthcare services.

Takaful, based on risk-sharing among participants, offers a low-cost health insurance solution (Billah, 2019). The relationship between Islamic microfinance and healthcare is also strengthened by Islamic insurance products developed for low-income individuals, known as "Micro Takaful." Micro

Takaful helps participants cover their healthcare expenses, thereby alleviating the financial burden in the event of illness. This type of insurance provides critical protection for communities without access to conventional health insurance (Ahmed, 2011).

Takaful offers an alternative model for covering individuals' healthcare costs in the health insurance system. Based on the principles of risk-sharing and social solidarity, this type of insurance can provide a more accessible solution for low-income individuals. Studies on the implementation of the takaful system within health insurance in Malaysia and Gulf countries show that this model can be effectively used (Alokla and Daynes, 2017).

3.3. Waqf and Zakat

Islamic charitable financing tools such as waqf and zakat are crucial for the sustainability of healthcare services. Waqfs can be used to establish and manage healthcare centers, while zakat funds can be utilized to enhance access to healthcare services for those in need (Çizakça, 1998). Waqf and zakat, representing social responsibility and mutual assistance in the Islamic finance system, play a significant role in the healthcare sector. Historically, waqfs have contributed significantly to the establishment and sustainability of healthcare services such as hospitals, clinics, and medical education centers. For example, hospitals established through the waqf system during the Ottoman Empire provided free healthcare services to the public, forming the basis of the social state understanding (Islahi, 2003).

Zakat not only meets the basic needs of individuals living below the poverty line but also facilitates their access to healthcare services. Particularly in cases of chronic illnesses or urgent medical interventions, zakat funds can be used to cover the treatment costs of poor individuals (Kahf, 2003). Zakat functions as an effective financing mechanism to promote social equity in access to healthcare services and to address inequalities in the healthcare field (Obaidullah, 2016).

Zakat and waqf funds can be used to expand and improve the quality of service delivery in the healthcare sector. These two instruments of Islamic finance can be considered alternative financing sources for the sustainability of the health system, especially in developing countries (Auda, 2008). In this context, the more effective application of Islamic financing models in the healthcare sector has the potential to improve public health and increase access to healthcare services (Siddiqi, 2004).

The association of zakat and waqf concepts in the Islamic financial system with the healthcare sector demonstrates the significant role of Islamic economics in achieving social justice and equality. The establishment of health facilities such as hospitals and clinics through waqfs ensures that healthcare

services reach all segments of society, while covering the healthcare expenses of poor individuals through zakat funds contributes to improving the overall health level of society (Çizakça, 2000; El-Gamal, 2006).

3.4. Islamic Bonds (Sukuk) and Healthcare Infrastructure

Islamic finance, by offering interest-free banking and investment models, supports economic development while emphasizing social and environmental sustainability. In this context, sukuk, known as Islamic bonds, can play a significant role in financing healthcare infrastructure. Sukuk are structured in compliance with Sharia rules and are typically asset-based or asset-backed (Ahmed, 2011). Sukuk is an important tool that can be used for financing infrastructure projects in the healthcare sector. Particularly in developing countries, the inadequacy of healthcare services poses a significant problem, requiring large-scale infrastructure investments that can be financed through public and private sector partnerships (Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011). At this point, sukuk issuances not only provide interest-free returns for investors but also contribute to meeting the infrastructure needs of the healthcare sector (Jobst et al., 2008).

The use of sukuk in the healthcare sector plays a significant role in the construction of large-scale hospitals, the expansion of healthcare facilities, and the financing of innovative healthcare projects (Rohmatunnisa, 2017). Moreover, sukuk is recognized as an essential financial instrument for enhancing the sustainability and quality of healthcare services (Jobst et al., 2008). One of the most significant advantages of sukuk issuances for healthcare infrastructure is that this financing instrument appeals to a broad investor base. Unlike traditional financing instruments, sukuk issuances offer a suitable investment tool for Muslim investors while providing attractive returns for international investors. Additionally, sukuk issuances enhance transparency and accountability in the financing of healthcare projects, ensuring efficiency in project management and implementation processes (Mahomed, 2022).

4. Advantages of Islamic Finance in Healthcare Services

The Islamic financial system is not just an economic structure but also a financing model that prioritizes social and ethical responsibilities (Chapra, 2016). Applying this system to the healthcare sector not only meets financing needs but also facilitates the equitable access of disadvantaged groups to healthcare services, thereby contributing to social justice (Mannan, 1989). Islamic financial instruments offer various advantages in healthcare services. These advantages include approaches aimed at increasing social justice and the general welfare of society. This section will discuss the advantages of Islamic financial instruments in healthcare services and how these instruments can be used in the healthcare sector.

4.1. Murabaha and Healthcare Financing

Murabaha is one of the most commonly used financing methods in Islamic banking. The murabaha transaction involves selling an item at cost plus a specified profit margin (Siddiqi, 2006). In the healthcare sector, hospitals and clinics can use the murabaha method to obtain interest-free financing for the purchase of medical equipment and supplies. For example, if a hospital wishes to purchase an MRI machine, an Islamic bank would buy the machine in cash and sell it to the hospital at a price that includes the cost plus a profit margin, payable in installments. In this way, the hospital can acquire modern medical equipment without being exposed to high interest rates.

4.2. Ijara and Healthcare Financing

Ijara is a leasing-based financing method that can be used in the healthcare sector for the leasing of buildings, medical equipment, and supplies (Usmani, 2002). For example, when a clinic wants to move to a new building or renew its medical equipment, it can meet these needs by using the ijara method. The bank or financial institution purchases the desired equipment or building and leases it to the clinic, with ownership transferring to the clinic at the end of a specified period. This method allows healthcare institutions to continue their operational activities without requiring initial capital.

4.3. Waqf and Zakat Funds

Waqf and zakat represent the concepts of social responsibility and mutual assistance in the Islamic finance system (Cizakca, 1998). Historically, waqfs have played a significant role in education, healthcare, and social services. Today, waqf and zakat funds can be used in projects targeting disadvantaged groups with no access to healthcare services. For example, a waqf can establish mobile clinics to provide access to healthcare services for people in impoverished areas or create special funds for costly healthcare services such as cancer treatment. Such practices contribute to providing healthcare services within the framework of social equality and justice (Kahf, 1999).

4.4. Sustainability and Long-term Investments

The interest-free and risk-sharing nature of Islamic finance ensures that investments in the healthcare sector are sustainable. Islamic finance, which offers an appropriate financing model for long-term projects, prioritizes long-term social benefit over short-term profit-oriented investments (Kamali, 2008). Islamic finance provides a sustainable economic model in healthcare services by offering interest-free financing opportunities. This allows investments made in the healthcare sector to be based on risk-sharing and social responsibility principles (Iqbal and Mirakhor, 2011). Islamic finance, in financing models for the healthcare sector, adopts an interest-free structure. This, in particular, allows for a reduction in the financial burdens on public

healthcare services and enables more sustainable budget management (Hassan and Lewis, 2009). Financial instruments such as sukuk support long-term sustainable development by providing funds for the development of healthcare infrastructure (Jobst, 2007). Asset-based financing instruments such as sukuk provide long-term financing for expanding and modernizing healthcare infrastructure. This contributes to improving healthcare systems, particularly in developing countries. On the other hand, Islamic financial instruments can offer various sustainable financing models in the healthcare sector. Specifically, Islamic bonds such as sukuk can be used to finance large-scale healthcare projects. These types of financing methods not only provide a secure return for investors but also help develop the infrastructure of healthcare services (Khateeb et al., 2023).

4.5. Ethical Investment Approach

The ethical values of Islamic finance encourage more responsible and sustainable investments in the healthcare sector. This supports the financing of projects aimed at improving the quality of healthcare services while also considering environmental and social responsibilities (Chapra, 1992). (Bacha, 2008). Islamic financial instruments encourage investments in line with ethical and sustainability principles. In the healthcare sector, this can be applied across a wide range of projects, from environmentally friendly hospital projects to social responsibility initiatives (Dusuki and Abdullah, 2007).

4.6. Financial Access and Inclusion

Islamic finance has the potential to increase financial access and inclusion. Social financing tools such as zakat and waqf play a crucial role in enhancing access to healthcare services for disadvantaged groups. This contributes to reducing income inequality in the healthcare sector (Hassan, 2010). Social financing tools such as waqf and zakat prioritize disadvantaged groups in access to healthcare services and promote social equity (El-Gamal, 2006). These instruments not only provide individual assistance but also create a broader social safety net by increasing the general welfare of society (Ahmed, 2004).

5. The Future of Islamic Finance and Healthcare Services

Islamic finance is increasingly being recognized in the healthcare sector. This section will discuss the future role and potential contributions of Islamic finance in the healthcare sector.

5.1. Technological Developments and Digital Health

When combined with digital health technologies, Islamic finance can create new opportunities. Financing telemedicine can provide broader access to healthcare services, while Islamic financial instruments can ensure sustainability in this area (Alam, 2022).

5.2. Contributions to the Global Health System

Islamic finance can play an effective role not only in the Islamic world but also in the global health system. Islamic financial instruments can make significant contributions to the development of healthcare infrastructure, particularly in developing countries (El-Gamal, 2006).

5.3. Role of Civil Society and Waqfs

In the future, it is expected that civil society organizations and waqfs will use Islamic financial instruments more effectively in the healthcare field. These organizations have the potential to ensure that healthcare services reach a wider audience (Cizakca, 1998).

5.4. Future Perspectives and Challenges

- **Fintech Integration:** New solutions can be developed for financing healthcare services through Islamic financial technologies (fintech). For example, zakat and donation campaigns can be organized through digital platforms. Additionally, blockchain-based solutions can make health insurance transactions more transparent and reliable (Khateeb et al., 2023).

- **Regulation and Standards:** For the more widespread use of Islamic finance in the healthcare sector, it is necessary to establish regulatory frameworks and standards at both national and international levels. Strengthening existing regulatory frameworks is important for integrating Islamic financial products into healthcare services (Chapra, 2008).

- **Awareness and Education:** Awareness of the use of Islamic financial products in the healthcare sector should be raised among healthcare professionals and the public. Educational programs and awareness campaigns can help communicate the opportunities and solutions offered by Islamic finance to a broader audience (Hudaefi et al., 2020).

6. Conclusion

Research on Islamic finance and healthcare services reveals the potential of Islamic financial instruments to improve access to and quality of healthcare services. Islamic finance, by offering solutions particularly targeted at the poor and financially excluded, contributes to the sustainability and accessibility of healthcare services. Islamic social financing tools such as zakat, waqf, and sadaqah can facilitate access to healthcare for low-income communities and thus help reduce health disparities. Integrating Islamic financial products and services into the healthcare sector is also an important tool for achieving sustainable development goals. However, this integration process poses some challenges in terms of existing regulations and monitoring mechanisms. More research and regulation are needed, especially on transparency, accountability, and risk management (Qudah et al., 2023; Alshater et al., 2021).

The relationship between Islamic finance and healthcare services has great potential in terms of social justice, sustainability, and ethical values. Increasing the use of Islamic financial instruments in the healthcare sector will enhance both financial and social sustainability. The integration of Islamic finance into healthcare services presents a significant opportunity not only for the Islamic world but also for the global health system.

Islamic finance offers significant advantages in financing healthcare services. Tools such as microfinance, waqf, zakat, and participation banking can provide more sustainable and fair access to healthcare services. This is expected to contribute significantly to access to healthcare services, especially for low-income and disadvantaged groups.

One of the methods used in healthcare services is Islamic microfinance, which plays a significant role in accessing healthcare services. By providing interest-free financing and risk-sharing models, it helps poor communities meet their healthcare expenses and improves health outcomes by reducing poverty. Further research on the impact of this financing model on health is crucial to understanding its effects on healthcare in more detail. Studies on the impact of Islamic microfinance on health show that this financing model improves health outcomes in poor communities. For example, in a study conducted in Pakistan, Khan and Noreen (2012) found that the economic empowerment of women through microfinance increased access to healthcare services, which had positive effects on child health.

Another Islamic model used in healthcare services is sukuk, which provides a Sharia-compliant solution for financing healthcare infrastructure and contributes to improving healthcare services in developing countries. In this context, the wider use of sukuk issuances in the healthcare sector will provide significant benefits in terms of both economic development and social welfare.

Islamic financial instruments offer alternative and sustainable solutions for financing healthcare services. Instruments such as murabaha, ijara, sukuk, and waqf can be used in different areas of the healthcare sector and have the potential to promote social justice. These solutions not only provide economic benefits but also uphold the principles of social equity and justice. The wider use of Islamic finance models in the healthcare sector will contribute to both economic development and social welfare.

Islamic financial instruments also offer alternative and sustainable solutions for financing healthcare services. In this context, the effective use of Islamic financial instruments in healthcare services should be encouraged through public-private partnerships.

7. Recommendations

- **Policy and Regulation Development:** Governments and regulatory bodies should develop legal regulations that facilitate the use of Islamic financial products in the healthcare sector to support the integration of Islamic finance with healthcare services. Regulations that comply with transparency and accountability principles will increase confidence in the sector.

- **Use of Social Financing Tools:** Technological solutions should be developed for the efficient collection and distribution of social financing tools such as zakat, waqf, and sadaqah. Directing these funds to healthcare services can increase access to healthcare services, particularly in low-income communities.

- **Financial Inclusion Strategies:** Strategies should be developed to increase financial inclusion by combining Islamic financial products with tools such as health insurance and microfinance. Such combinations can provide more opportunities for disadvantaged groups in financing their healthcare expenses.

- **Research and Data Collection:** More empirical research and data collection are needed to better understand the relationship between Islamic finance and healthcare services. Comparing applications in different countries can contribute to the development of universal models in this field.

- **Education and Awareness:** Educational programs and seminars should be organized to raise awareness about the intersection of Islamic finance and healthcare services. Thus, the potential role of Islamic financial instruments in healthcare services can be conveyed to a broader audience.

Conventional financing methods are not sufficient for healthcare services and infrastructure projects worldwide, as these projects are often costly and long-term, making them less attractive to investors. Additionally, economic instabilities create obstacles in securing financing. At this point, Islamic finance can provide an alternative solution with its features such as risk-sharing and interest-free financing. In particular, financial instruments such as sukuk (Islamic bonds) and waqf can be used to provide resources for healthcare infrastructure projects. The ethical and social responsibility approach of Islamic finance can provide an advantage in investing in projects that serve the public interest, such as healthcare services.

While Islamic finance has a high potential to contribute to the financing of healthcare infrastructure worldwide, challenges such as the lack of regulatory infrastructure and lack of awareness and knowledge exist. Therefore, it is crucial for local governments and international organizations to collaborate for the effective use of Islamic financing instruments.

References

Ahmed, H. (2004). *Role of zakah and awqaf in poverty alleviation*. Jeddah: Islamic Development Bank, Islamic Research and Training Institute.

Ahmed, H. (2011). Maqasid al-Shari'ah and Islamic financial products: a framework for assessment. *ISRA International journal of Islamic finance*, *3*(1).

Alam, K. (2022). Î-FinTech'in SWOT Analizi. *Karatay İslam İktisadı ve Finans Dergisi*, *1*(1), 27-43

Alokla, J., & Daynes, A. (2017). Risk management in the Takaful industry: An empirical study of the Kuwaiti market. *Journal of Islamic Economics, Banking and Finance*, *113*(6223), 1-21.

Alshater, M. M., Hassan, M. K., Khan, A., & Saba, I. (2021). Influential and intellectual structure of Islamic finance: a bibliometric review. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, *14*(2), 339-365.

Asutay, M., & Zaman, N. (2009). Divergence between aspirations and realities of Islamic economics: A political economy approach to bridging the divide. *IIUM Journal of Economics and Management*, *17*(1), 73-96.

Auda, J. (2022). *Maqasid Al-Shari'ah as philosophy of Islamic law*. International Institute of Islamic Thought (IIIT).

Ayub, M. (2009). Understanding islamic finance. John Wiley & Sons.

Billah, M. M. S. (2007). Applied Takaful and Modern Insurance: law and practice. *(No Title)*.

Billah, M. M. S. (2019). *Islamic insurance products: Exploring takaful principles, instruments and structures*. Springer Nature.

Chapra, M. U. (2009). The global financial crisis: can Islamic finance help minimise the severity and frequency of such a crisis in future. *ICR Journal*, *1*(2), 226-245.

Chapra, M. U. (2016). *The future of economics: An Islamic perspective* (Vol. 21). Kube Publishing Ltd.

Chapra, M. U., Khan, S., & Al Shaikh-Ali, A. (2008). *The Islamic Vision of Development in the Light of Maqāṣid Al-Sharīâh* (Vol. 15). Iiit.

Cizakca, M. (1998). Awqaf in history and its implications for modern Islamic economies. *Islamic economic studies*, *6*(1).

Cizakca, M. (2000). *A history of philanthropic foundations: The Islamic world from the seventh century to the present* (pp. 2-10). Istanbul: Boğaziçi University Press.

de la Santé, O. M. (2020). World health statistics 2020: monitoring health for the SDGs, sustainable development goals. *Geneva: World Health Organization. Licence: CC BY-NC-SA.*.

Dusuki, A. W., & Abdullah, N. I. (2007). Why do Malaysian customers patronise Islamic banks?. *International journal of bank marketing*, *25*(3), 142-160.

El-Gamal, M. A. (2006). *Islamic finance: Law, economics, and practice*. Cambridge University Press.

El-Ghazali, A. H., & Series, I. E. T. (1994). *Man is the basis of the Islamic strategy for economic development*. Jeddah, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: Islamic Research and Training Institute, Islamic Development Bank.

Hassan, H. A. (2020). Takaful models: origin, progression and future. *Journal of Islamic Marketing*, *11*(6), 1801-1819.

Hassan, K., & Lewis, M. (Eds.). (2009). *Handbook of Islamic banking*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Hudaefi, F. A., Saoqi, A. A. Y., Farchatunnisa, H., & Junari, U. L. (2020). Zakat and SDG 6: A case study of Baznas, Indonesia. *Journal of Islamic Monetary Economics and Finance*, *6*(4), 919-934.

Iqbal, Z., & Mirakhor, A. (2011). *An introduction to Islamic finance: Theory and practice* (Vol. 687). John Wiley & Sons.

Mirakhor, A., Iqbal, Z., & Sadr, S. K. (Eds.). (2020). *Handbook of ethics of Islamic economics and finance* (Vol. 5). Walter de Gruyter GmbH & Co KG.

Islahi, A. A. (2003). *Waqf: A bibliography*. Jeddah: Islamic Economic Research Centre King Abdul Aziz University.

Ismath Bacha, O. (2008). The Islamic inter bank money market and a dual banking system: the Malaysian experience. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, *1*(3), 210-226.

Jobst, A. A. (2007). The economics of Islamic finance and securitization. *Journal of Structured Finance*, *13*(1).

Jobst, A., Kunzel, P., Mills, P., & Sy, A. (2008). Islamic bond issuance: what sovereign debt managers need to know. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, *1*(4), 330-344.

Kahf, M. (1999). Islamic banks at the threshold of the third millennium. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, *41*(4-5), 445-460.

Kahf, M. (2003, January). The role of waqf in improving the ummah welfare. In *International Seminar on Waqf as a Private Legal Body* (pp. 6-7).

Kamali, M. H. (2008). *Shari'ah law: An introduction*. Simon and Schuster.

Khan, M. A. (1992). Theoretical studies in Islamic banking and finance. *Theoretical Studies in Islamic Banking and Finance*.

Khan, R. E. A., & Noreen, S. (2012). Microfinance and women empowerment: A case study of District Bahawalpur (Pakistan). *African Journal of Business Management*, *6*(12), 4514.

Khateeb, S. H., Ali, S. N., & Jumat, Z. H. (2023). Islamic finance, FinTech and the road to sustainability: reframing the approach in the Post-Pandemic era—an introduction. In *Islamic Finance, FinTech, and the Road to Sustainability: Reframing the Approach in the Post-Pandemic Era* (pp. 1-11). Cham: Springer International Publishing.

Mahomed, Z. (2022). Assessing financing for healthcare infrastructure in Sub-Saharan Africa: can Islamic finance assist?. In *Islamic Finance in Africa* (pp. 167-192). Edward Elgar Publishing.

Mannan, M. A. (1989). *Economic development and social peace in Islam: an analytical study of the process of economic development in the Muslim community of today (with an account of real-life experiments in Bangladesh). (No Title)*.

Obaidullah, M. (2005). Islamic Financial Services, Islamic Economics Research Center. *King Abdul Aziz University, Saudi Arabia ISBN*, 9906-9960.

Obaidullah, M. (2008). Introduction to Islamic microfinance. *Mohammed Obaidullah, Introduction to Islamic Microfinance, IBF Net Limited*.

Obaidullah, M. (2015). Enhancing food security with Islamic microfinance: insights from some recent experiments. *Agricultural Finance Review*, *75*(2), 142-168.

Obaidullah, M. (2016). Revisiting estimation methods of business zakat and related tax incentives. *Journal of Islamic Accounting and Business Research*, 7(4), 349-364.

Obaidullah, M., & Khan, T. (2008). Islamic microfinance development: Challenges and initiatives. *Islamic Research & Training institute Policy Dialogue Paper*, (2).

Qudah, H., Malahim, S., Airout, R., Alomari, M., Hamour, A. A., & Alqudah, M. (2023). Islamic finance in the era of financial technology: A bibliometric review of future trends. *International Journal of Financial Studies*, *11*(2), 76.

Rahman, Y. A. (2010). The Art of Islamic Banking and Finance: Tools and Techniques for Community-Based Banking. *New York*.

Rohmatunnisa, A. (2017). *Pembinaan akhlak mulia siswa melalui kegiatan kepramukaan (Studi kasus di MTs MMA Gonggang Poncol Magetan)* (Doctoral dissertation, IAIN Ponorogo).

Sadeq, A. M. (2002). Waqf, perpetual charity and poverty alleviation. *International Journal of Social Economics*, *29*(1/2), 135-151.

Siddiqi, M. N. (2004). *Riba, bank interest and the rationale of its prohibition.* Jeddah: Islamic Research and Training Institute.

Siddiqi, M. N. (2006). Islamic banking and finance in theory and practice: A survey of state of the art. *Islamic economic studies*, *13*(2).

Singer, A. (2006). Soup and sadaqa: Charity in Islamic societies. *Historical Research*, *79*(205), 306-324.

Usmani, M. T. (2002). An Introduction to Islamic Finance, Kluwer Law International. *The Hague,(75-6)*.

Wajdi Dusuki, A. (2008). Understanding the objectives of Islamic banking: a survey of stakeholders' perspectives. *International Journal of Islamic and Middle Eastern Finance and Management*, *1*(2), 132-148.

Warde, I. (2010). *Islamic finance in the global economy*. Edinburgh University Press.
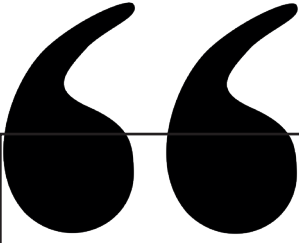
Chapter 3

EGE UNIVERSITY ETHNOGRAPHY MUSEUM

Dilek MAKTAL CANKO¹

1 Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ege University Faulty of Letters Department of Art History, Ege University Ethnography Museum Manager, dilek.m.canko@ege.edu.tr ORCID. 0000-0003-4034-6797

Museums are institutions created to protect and exhibit the works of science and art produced by societies, to present information about how societies and therefore people lived in the past, what they produced, and to shed light on the future in this direction (Maktal Canko, 2014, Introduction). Museums are about human beings and their past. The main purpose of collecting objects and information is to enable individuals to learn more about themselves by exhibiting protected objects. This has led to the main functions of museums being research, conservation and communication. Having conducted research on the object for many years, museums today re-evaluate the relationship between human and object with the physiology, psychology and worldview of the audience, as well as new developments in educational and communication institutions (Atagök, 2014, 29).

Museums specialise by collecting certain types of artefacts according to their areas of interest: Archaeology, art, history, ethnography, science, geology, geology, military, industry, etc. In recent years, the visitor-oriented nature of museology and changes in the tastes and interests of visitors have led museums to diversify and this has led to the establishment of a museum that emphasises almost every subject (toys, women, army, education, genocide, natural history, urban history, plants, shoes, etc.). Museum visitors now prefer museums that appeal to their own interests rather than watching the artefacts selected by a group of intellectuals (Karadeniz, 2014, 173-174). Ethnographic museums were among the first museums established to protect Turkish culture and to transfer culture.

Ethnographic Museums

Ethnography is a branch of science that examines the cultures of communities that have existed from the past to the present. In addition to providing information about the structure and functioning of a cultural group, ethnography also sheds light on cultural themes specific to certain societies and periods. The fact that it has a social perspective with its features such as the detailed description of the culture of a society and the attempt to explain human behaviour in the context of culture (Türk & Ekşi, 2017, 175) puts it in a special place in the field of museology. In this context, it can be said that ethnographic museums are the first museums to be established in terms of being one of the museums that best describes the society in which they are located.

The first serious museum studies in Türkiye began in 1846 with the efforts of Tophane-i Amire Müşiri Fethi Pasha (1801-1858) during the reign of Sultan Abdülmecid (1839-1861).[1] The proliferation of museums in the Republican

---

1 The artefacts recovered from the excavations and the artefacts collected in Hagia Irene were combined and the Museum-i Hümayun was opened to visitors in 1869 (Yücel, 1999, 31). A British director named Edward Goold, one of the Galatasaray High School teachers, was first appointed to this museum. In 1881, a Turkish Osman Hamdi Bey was appointed as the museum director (Hisar, 2010, 26-27). Osman Hamdi Bey, the first Turkish museum director, held this position between 1881

period and their spread throughout the country is an indication of the importance Atatürk attached to this issue from the 1920s onwards. Upon Atatürk's request to open a Hittite Museum in Ankara, the Ankara Archaeological Museum was opened in 1923. In 1930, it was renamed as the Hittite Museum and in 1967 as the Ankara Museum of Anatolian Civilisations (Kaya, 2007, 807). Another museum established in Ankara by Atatürk's order was the Ankara Ethnography Museum, which exhibits Turkish cultural heritage and preserves data on the art of Anatolia. The Ankara Ethnography Museum, which was planned as a symbol of social, architectural and cultural change in the Republican period, has become a place where cultural values are preserved and brought together with the public (Aysal & Avcı, 2019, 1434). After the Ankara Ethnography Museum was opened in 1930, state museums were established in many parts of Anatolia. In 1987, Izmir Ethnography Museum started to serve in its building built by the French in 1831 in Konak district of Izmir (Sel, 2020, https://turkiyeturizmansiklopedisi.com/izmir-etnografya-muzesi). The collection was moved to the building that was transformed into Izmir Culture and Art Factory with the restoration of the Alsancak Tekel Factory in 2023. (https://izmirkultursanatfabrikasi.gov.tr/tr/hakkimizda/hakkinda) In addition to the museums established by the state, ethnographic museums also took their place among the private museums established after 1980. Today, we encounter ethnographic museums in many cities in Türkiye.[2] One of these museums is Ege University Ethnography Museum established by Ege University.

History of Ege University Ethnography Museum[3]

Ege University Ethnography Museum is a museum that examines the culture of Anatolian and Balkan regions with the help of clothes, jewellery, accessories, household items and traditional instruments. In the museum, handicrafts belonging to traditional professions that are about to disappear today are exhibited, while professions such as tailoring, wood and copper processing, shoe and sandal making are also revived in order to ensure their sustainability (Maktal Canko, 2022, 43).

It is estimated that the museum building, popularly known as 'Sirkehane', was built in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Until 1943, when it was transferred to the Treasury of Finance, our knowledge about its history is un-

---

and 1910 and the Museum-i Hümayun made great progress during his time (Kaya, 2007, 802). For detailed information on Osman Hamdi Bey's museology, see: Cezar, 1995, 228-279. Osman Hamdi Bey, the founder of Turkish museology, reorganised the Asarı Atika Regulation in 1883, prevented the export of antiquities abroad, initiated Turkish excavations, and ensured the expansion of the museum's collection by bringing the artefacts to the museum. These works pioneered by Osman Hamdi Bey cover the part of Turkish Museology until the Republican period.

2 For information on ethnographic museums in Türkiye see: https://muze.gov.tr/ara

3 Information about the history and collection of the museum was presented and introduced as a paper at the International Symposium of Social Sciences of the Turkish World 2-3 December 2022 Izmir symposium. This section was published as full text in the symposium proceedings book: Maktal Canko, 2022, 41-49.

fortunately limited. However, in the light of the information we have reached, we think that the building called Sirkehane may have been the Canned Food Factory building of the Bornova Agricultural School. In the 1960s, the factory part was used as a vinegar and pickle production place by Ege University Faculty of Agriculture, Faculty of Food and Fermentation Technology, while the front part was used as a lodging house. In 1990, the building was transferred to Ege University and it is thought that it was used as a residence until the 1990s. According to the 30.11.2006 survey report prepared on 30.11.2006; the roof of the building is completely demolished, the walls are demolished up to the floor beams of the gallery floor. Only the south wall remained intact. All windows and the main entrance of the building are on the east facade. The north and east facades of the building used as a residence facing the main road are intact, but the other facades have been demolished. Started in 2007, the restoration works were completed in 2010 (Maktal Canko, 2022, 42-43). The restored museum building received the 'Substantial Repair Award for Changing the Original Function' as a result of the evaluation made by the selection committee within the scope of Izmir Metropolitan Municipality '2010 Respect for History/Local Conservation Awards' (Güngören, 2013, 94). The museum building was opened as 'EÜ Museum of Balkans and Anatolian Clothing' on 22.06.2010. The application for the status of a private museum affiliated to the Ministry of Culture was finalised on 02.11.2010 and the museum was named 'Ege University Ethnography Museum' (Maktal Canko, 2022, 44).

Figure 1. Ege University Ethnography Museum Garden and Main Entrance Gate
(Photograph: museum archive)

Ege University Ethnography Museum Collection

Ethnographic museums often start with field research while creating their collections. The collection studies of Ege University Ethnography Museum were also initiated with the field researches of the museum, which was established in 2004 under the chairmanship of Assist. Assoc. Prof. Dr. Cengiz Aydın with a staff of 20 experts consisting of Ege University State Turkish Music Conservatory Turkish Folk Dances Department lecturers. In addition to the studies in Anatolia, in order to investigate the cultures of the Turks living in the Balkans, which are in contact with the Ottoman Empire, and to follow the traces of cultural interaction, research, filming, oral history studies were carried out in 12 Balkan countries (Macedonia, Bulgaria, Greece, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Kosovo, Romania, Moldova, Serbia-Caradagh, Albania, Hungary, Slovenia, Croatia), Ukraine-Crimea and Azerbaijan through peoples, museums, institutions and organisations. The research aimed to examine and record the similarities and differences of clothing-dressing, games, musical instruments, jewellery, clothing accessories with Turkish culture (Aydın, 2004, 3-4). Ethnographic studies in Anatolia and the Balkans were carried out between 2004 and 2008 by 201 scientists interviewing 909 informants. Interviews and performances containing information on traditional games, music, clothing and local instruments compiled within the scope of the 'Project for the creation of a museum and archive of Folk Instruments, Folk Dances, traditional clothing and folk music in Anatolia and the Balkans' carried out with the support of the State Planning Organisation and Ege University were converted into digital text information in the form of 20,736 square photographs and 208 hours of video recordings, and a large data archive was created. All these data and records, in which the cultural characteristics of Anatolian and Balkan Turks are analysed in detail, are preserved in the museum archive. The researchers brought back to Türkiye the clothes and clothing pieces, jewellery-accessories, musical instruments, books and catalogues that were given as gifts or obtained for a fee during the research (Özbilgin, 2012, 3-4). In addition, a large part of the museum collection planned to be established with the project has been created.

As of 02.10.2024, there are 2,806 pieces of objects registered in the museum inventory book.

Figure 2. Museum main building lower floor Anatolia and Thrace collection
(Photograph: Museum archive)

The first group of this collection consists of examples of Anatolian and Balkan traditional clothing and accessories (weapons, belts, pediments, wristbands, bracelets, pendants, amulets, hamayıls, crests). The 3-room section in the gallery of the old building is named as 'Wedding House'. In each room in this section, the henna night, dowry writing and exhibition, and wedding dinner from the 19th century Aegean traditional wedding practices are animated. In this area, there are socks, pouches, needle laces, covers and loincloths, three skirts and traditional clothes. In addition, in the dowry writing room, the dowry writing minutes signed by the male and female parties by recording the dowry given with the bride before the wedding are also exhibited. The second group consists of traditional instruments. Exhibited in 2010 on the upper floor of the new two-storey building built during the restoration of the old building, these artefacts consist of traditional folk instruments, mostly from Anatolia and Balkan countries. (Maktal Canko, 2022, 43-44)

Figure 3. Museum main building upper floor Balkan collection (Photograph: Museum archive)

Ege University Ethnography Museum Educational Activities

The main goal of museums in their early years of establishment was to collect, document, preserve and exhibit objects and materials within the museum's area of expertise. This responsibility required defining the object, and in this case, the museum's activities were limited to object-oriented knowledge (Atagök, 2012, 172). It is usual for museums established for this purpose to prioritise the object in their museological practices and for all museological practices to prioritise the object. The idea that 'museums are not only about collections' is a new approach.

In contemporary museology, the main functions of museums are categorised under three main headings: conservation, research and communication. The conservation and research functions, which are the primary areas of responsibility of the museum, are a set of activities that help the museum to realise its communication function. In this case, communication has become the primary purpose and function in today's museology (Özkasım, 2012, 43). The communication function has two sides: Museum staff and visitors. The most important part of the communication function of the museum management with the visitors is the education function. This function started in 1857 when John Ruskin suggested to the British Parliament that museums should be used for the education of the working classes (Shabbar, 2001, 68). The establishment of museums with the mission of public education started with the Enlightenment Movement in France and the changing social structure with the French Revolution of 1789. The Louvre Museum, opened to the public in 1793, is a part of the state policy. Considered as the first public museum, it was opened

as a public education tool to spread the idea of nationalism (Duncan, 1995, 44). The educational function of museums has taken a step ahead of other functions in the 21st century.[4]

Educational activities in museums started to gain importance after the second half of the 20th century. While activities were planned mostly for school groups until the 1950s, activities for adults became widespread after the 1970s. Especially after the 1990s, the scope of education has been expanded by increasing activities for different audience groups such as teachers, students and adults as well as families. Especially after the 2000s, many museums have been trying to make museums more attractive for teachers and students by providing spaces and facilities for the interests and needs of school groups, which constitute a significant part of their audience, and supporting their exhibitions with audiovisual tools (Tezcan Akmehmet, 2012, 196-197). Today, museum education is seen as an integral part of all well-managed museums and is constantly renewed, evaluated and developed (Tezcan Akmehmet & Ödekan, 2006, 56).

In the 21st century, museums have transformed into a complex structure that collects, preserves, documents, exhibits, educates and entertains, serving as a research centre, open university, entertainment centre and cultural institution (Atagök, 1999, 131). Since the main goal of museology has changed as the transfer of culture to society, education has gained importance as the most important function of the museum. In addition to being places where artefacts are preserved and stored, museums are places that educate and inform the society. Especially associating the exhibited object with the present is an important part of education. What information does this object give about life in the past? Have you seen anything similar to this object? Questions such as these increase the comprehensibility of the object and reinforce learning through connection with the present (Hooper-Greenhill, 1999, 235).

In this sense, museum education is the field in which contemporary museums exhibit their efforts to attract visitors to the museum in the most effective way. It is certain that for a museum to survive, it must associate history with the contemporary world. In this context, exhibiting its collection is not enough to achieve this goal. Making the collection interesting for visitors will be ensured by the activities to be organised by the museum. Museums should enable their visitors to find their own answers to their questions about the past through educational activities, conferences, publications, digital technological presentations[5], etc. Today, museums do not forget that visitors also have a say

---

4 Today, one of the most important tasks of museums is to preserve the cultural heritage of the society for the benefit of the society and to carry out studies to increase the culture and education of the society. Museums fulfil this task through activities called 'museum education'. Museum education is the process of contributing to the lifelong education of the audience through objects and collections (Tezcan Akmehmet, 2014, 155).

5 For more information on display and presentation techniques in museums, see: Erbay, 2011

in determining collection management policies and making activity plans.[6] Nowadays, in museology all over the world, the understanding of visitor-centred museology is dominant instead of object-centred museology. The most important pillar of visitor-centred museology is museum management and visitor communication. This communication is best achieved through educational activities.

Ege University Ethnography Museum attaches great importance to educational activities in the context of museum management and visitor interaction. Especially in the last three years, the museum has been organising activities for its target audience, children. The activities conducted to this end include 'Ebru Workshop with Nuri Pınar for Children', 'Traditional Doll Making Workshop with Banu Kurt', 'Toy Making Workshop with Banu Kurt with Recycled Materials', 'Local Culture Workshops' in 2022; 'Anatolian and Balkan Clothing and Object Illustrations Workshop and Exhibition' in 2023, and 'Traditional and Experimental Photography Workshops', 'Anatolian and Balkan Instrument Illustration Workshop', 'Live Sculpture Workshop', 'Pantomime Workshop', 'Calligraphy Workshop', 'Drama in the Museum', 'Ceramic Workshop in the Museum' in 2024. These activities aim to develop and support the creativity of children aged 8-12 through handicrafts.

Figure 4. Ebru Workshop with Nuri Pınar for Children in 2022 (Photograph: museum archive)

---

6 The continuity of a museum depends on an increasing audience. According to the understanding of contemporary museology, these institutions should attract the society with the right policies. The most accurate way to do this is possible by giving the necessary care and importance to the collection policies that constitute the most decisive quality of museums (Şenel, 2014, 48). For more information on collection management, which is one of the most important tasks for museums to achieve their goals, see: Tezcan Akmehmet 2002, Şenel, 2014, 39-50.

Figure 5. Traditional Cloth Doll Making Workshop event in 2022 (Photograph: museum archive)

Examples of our educational activities for adults are as follows: 'Anatolian Folk Songs with Stories', 'Collectors Talks', 'Art History Talks', 'Ethnography Talks', 'Panel on Traditional Arts'.

Figure 6. 2023-2024 Museum Talks Collectors event (Photograph: museum archive)

Figure 7. 2023-2024 Museum Talks Art History event (Photograph: museum archive)

In addition, the exhibitions in the museum's temporary exhibition hall support the museum's area of expertise and ensure the continuity of cultural transmission: Orhon Saraç and Nuri Pınar's 'Raks with Ebrulars', Aynur Maktal's 'Calligraphy and Illuminations from Our Last Century', 'Beyond the Visible - Group Exhibition on Traditional Arts'.

Figure 8. 'Beyond the Visible' 8 March Group Exhibition in 2024 (Photograph: museum archive)

The museum education programme is carried out annually with the proposal of the advisory board, which meets once a year, and the planning of the

museum management. In addition to the museum staff, students of the Department of Art History work as museum volunteers in all activities.[7]

Conclusion

Ege University Ethnography Museum is a private museum that records and preserves the Anatolian and Balkan memory with the help of clothes, jewellery, accessories, household items and traditional instruments. The museum aims to bring together the cultural values of our geography with the society, to be a bridge in the transfer of our values, to contribute to the protection and development of cultural heritage by understanding the basic elements and processes that make up our culture. Since opening in 2010, the museum has adopted the mission of preserving our cultural heritage as well as knowing and learning today with its educational activities.

---

7 A detailed publication on the educational activities of Ege University Ethnography Museum is currently being prepared by us.

Bibliography

Atagök, T. (1999). "Çağdaş Müzeciliğin Anlamı, Müze ve İlişkileri". Rethinking Museology. Ed. Tomur Atagök. İstanbul: Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Basım-Yayın Merkezi. 131-142.

Atagök, T. (2012). "Müze Koleksiyonları ve Araştırma". Müzebilimin ABC'si. Ed. Nevra Ertürk and Hanzade Uralman. İstanbul: Ege Yayınları. 171-176.

Atagök, T. (2014). "Müze Kuruluşunda Dikkate Alınması Gereken Konular". Müzeler, Oyunlar, Oyuncaklar ve Çocuklar. Ed. Dilek Maktal Canko. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yayınları. 29-36.

Aydın, C. (Ed.) (2004), *Anadolu ve Balkanlarda Halk Çalgıları, Halk Oyunları, Geleneksel Giyim Kuşam ve Halk Müziği, Müze ve Arşivi Oluşturulması (2004)*, Cilt 1, İzmir: Ege Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Aysal N. ve Avcı A. (2019). "Cumhuriyet Dönemi Kültürel Değişimin bir Simgesi: Ankara Etnografya Müzesi, History Studies 11/5. 1433-1455.

Cezar, M (1995). Sanatta Batı'ya Açılış ve Osman Hamdi. İstanbul: Erol Kerim Aksoy Kültür, Eğitim, Spor ve Sağlık Vakfı Yayını.

Duncan, C. (1995). Civilising Rituals: Inside Public Art Museum. London: Rouledge.

Erbay, M. (2011). Müzelerde Sergileme ve Sunum Teknikleri. İstanbul: Beta Yayınları.

Güngören, A. (Ed.) (2013), *2008/2012 Tarihe Saygı Yerel Koruma Ödülleri*, İzmir: İzmir Büyükşehir Belediyesi Yayınları.

Hisar, A.Ş. (2010). Türk Müzeciliği. İstanbul: Yapı Kredi Yayınları.

Hooper-Greenhill, E. (1999). Museum Education. The Education Role of the Museum. London: Routledge. 229-257.

Karadeniz, C. (2014). "Çağdaş Müzelerde Eğitim Yaklaşımları ve Çocuk Müzeleri, Bilim, Teknoloji ve Keşif Merkezleri". Müzeler, Oyunlar, Oyuncaklar ve Çocuklar. Haz. Dilek Maktal Canko. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yayınları. 173-197.

Kaya, Ş. (2007). "Müzecilik ve Türkiye". Türkiye'de Müzecilik 100 Müze 1000 Eser. Ankara Kütür ve Turizm Bakanlığı. 796-862.

Madran, B. (2001). Ed. Kent, Toplu, Müze Deneyimler, Katkılar. İstanbul: Toplumsal Tarih Vakfı Yayınları.

Maktal-Canko, D. (Ed.) (2014), *Müzeler, Oyunlar, Oyuncaklar ve Çocuklar*, Ed: D. Maktal Canko, R. Yağcı, S. Gündüz-Küskü, İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Müzecilik Bölümü Yayınları.

Maktal-Canko, D. (2022), "Anadolu ve Balkan Kültürünün Aktarımında Ege Ünı̇versı̇tesı̇ Etnografya Müzesı̇'nı̇n Rolü", Uluslararası Türk Dünyası Sosyal Bilimler Sempozyumu 2-3 Aralık 2022 İzmir, Bildiri Tam Metin Kitabı C. 3, Ed: Fatih Sansar, Aygül Uçar, Aytekin Erdoğan, 41-49.

Özbilgin, Ö. (Ed.) (2012), *Anadolu ve Balkanlarda Halk Çalgıları, Halk Oyunları, Ge-*

leneksel Giyim Kuşam ve Halk Müziği, Müze ve Arşivi Oluşturulması (2007), Cilt: 3, İzmir: Ege Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Özkasım, H. (2012). "Müzelerde Koleksiyon Yönetimi". Müzebilimin ABC'si. Haz. Nevra Ertürk ve Hanzade Uralman. İstanbul: Ege Yayınları. 43-56.

Shabbar, N. (2001). "Çocuklar için Müze Eğitimi". Kent, Toplu, Müze Deneyimler, Katkılar. Ed: Burçak Madran. İstanbul: Toplumsal Tarih Vakfı Yayınları. 68-73.

Sel, Z. G., "İzmir Etnografya Müzesi", Türkiye Turizm Ansiklopedisi, https://turkiyeturizmansiklopedisi.com/izmir-etnografya-muzesi

Şenel, E. (2014). "Koleksiyon Yönetim Politikası Oluşturmanın Müzecilik Açısından Önemi ve Düzenleyici Faktörler". İdil Cilt: 3 S: 14. S. 39-50.

Tezcan Akmehmet K. (2002). Haz. Müzelerde Koleksiyon Oluşturma ve Geliştirme. İstanbul: Yıldız Teknik Üniversitesi Yayınları.

Tezcan-Akmehmet, K. Ve Ödekan A. (2006). "Müze Eğitimin Tarihsel Gelişimi". İTÜ Dergisi C: 3. S: 1. s. 47-58.

Tezcan-Akmehmet, K. (2012). "Müze Eğitimi: Okul Programları". Müzebilimin ABC'si. Haz. Nevra Ertürk ve Hanzade Uralman. İstanbul: Ege Yayınları. 195-208.

Tezcan-Akmehmet, K. (2014). "Eğitim ve Müzeler". Müzeler, Oyunlar, Oyuncaklar ve Çocuklar. Haz. Dilek Maktal Canko. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Yayınları. 155-161.

Türk, T. ve Ekşi, H. (2017), *Etnografya*, İstanbul: EDAM yayınları.

Yücel, E. (1999). Türkiye'de Müzecilik. İstanbul: Arkeoloji ve Sanat Yayınları.

https://izmirkultursanatfabrikasi.gov.tr/tr
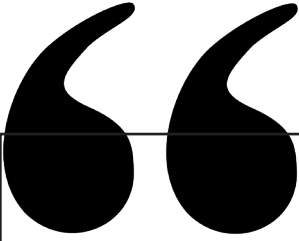
Chapter 4

CORPORATE COMMUNICATION AND SPORTS IN THE DIGITAL AGE: THE STRATEGIC ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA

Şeyma CEYLAN[1]

Ataman TÜKENMEZ[2]

---

1 Graduated Student, Istanbul University-Cerrahpasa, Sports Sciences Faculty, Sports Management Department, seyma.ceylan1@ogr.iuc.edu.tr, ORCID: 0009-0009-9702-689X.

2 Res. Asst. PhD, Istanbul University-Cerrahpasa, Sports Sciences Faculty, Sports Management Department, ataman.tukenmez@iuc.edu.tr, ORCID: 0000-0003-0405-7023.

Since the beginning of the 21st century, digital transformation has led to profound changes in the social, cultural, and economic structures of societies. The most notable outcome of these changes is that digital communication platforms, especially social media, have become the primary means of interaction for both individuals and organizations. Institutions effectively utilize the opportunities presented by social media to reach their target audiences, increase brand awareness, and strengthen their reputation. Due to its two-way communication structure and ease of interaction, social media has surpassed traditional media tools, becoming an indispensable component of corporate communication strategies.

The role of social media in corporate communication has reshaped the strategic communication approaches of organizations with the rapid transformation of the digital age. Social media facilitates a two-way communication process, not only between individuals but also between institutions and their target audiences, thereby creating a new-generation interaction platform. These platforms are utilized as effective tools in a wide range of areas, from corporate reputation management to crisis communication, and from marketing strategies to public opinion formation processes.

Unlike traditional media channels, social media enables institutions to reach a broad audience rapidly. These digital channels provide innovative solutions in communication by eliminating temporal and spatial boundaries with the ability to instantly deliver messages. At the same time, by creating a dynamic process based on user feedback, they allow institutions to adopt a data-driven approach in their strategic decisions (Sağlam, 2019).

Social media has also revolutionized the marketing and public relations activities of organizations. Traditional advertising and public relations approaches have been replaced by a user-oriented, interaction-based structure. Through this, institutions gain the opportunity to communicate directly with their target audiences, making this communication an effective tool for strengthening brand loyalty (Akkaya & Zerenler, 2017).

Another significant advantage of social media for organizations is its effectiveness as a communication tool during crisis periods. The need for rapid response in times of crisis can be easily met through the real-time communication features of social media platforms. In this context, social media transcends being merely a communication channel and becomes a strategic tool in crisis management processes (Bat & Vural, 2010).

Social media also plays a critical role for sports institutions. The interactions between athletes, clubs, and fans are enhanced through these digital platforms, redefining the dynamics of the sports industry. Especially in sports marketing, the use of social media has become an important tool by enabling clubs and athletes to engage directly with audiences, thereby contributing sig-

nificantly to both brand value creation and commercial success (Geurin & Burch, 2017).

Social media has become an indispensable element in corporate communication. With the innovations brought by the digital age, social media plays a transformational role in the communication strategies of organizations and is gaining more importance every day. By effectively utilizing these digital platforms, organizations can establish a strong interaction network with both internal and external target audiences, gaining a competitive advantage (Mutlu & Yorulmazlar, 2021).

1. Communication

When examining the earliest examples of communication, it becomes evident that this phenomenon has existed since the beginning of humanity. The sounds produced and signs used by primitive communities represent the earliest forms of communication. The figures and symbols drawn on cave walls can be considered the first instances of visual communication in this context. Communication emerged simultaneously with human existence and has continued to evolve through an ongoing process of development.

Various definitions of communication have emerged where it intersects with different disciplines. These definitions have been shaped by diverse perspectives and contributions throughout its historical development, and each is considered valid within its own context (Aziz, 2016).

Humans need to establish social relationships to sustain their existence and maintain their social life. In these relationships, the way individuals express the messages they want to convey holds great significance. During the communication process, factors such as word choice, tone, and the style used can have diverse effects on the receiver. The continuation of social relationships is dependent on the presence of effective communication and interaction processes. In this regard, communication can be seen as the most fundamental and smallest unit of relationships (Demirel, 2018).

Communication is as old as human history itself, emerging alongside human existence and evolving over time. The need for individuals to express themselves has been shaped through various symbols, figures, and signs, and this process has persisted since the early periods of human history (Söylemez, 2015).

Communication carries a deeper meaning than merely exchanging messages. Understanding life, attributing meaning to events and situations, correctly interpreting what is being said, and providing the necessary responses are fundamental functions of communication. People have always felt the necessity to be in continuous cooperation and communication to better comprehend external elements. The ways early humans expressed themselves through sounds, movements, and symbols gradually evolved into a more complex and

systematic structure over time (Tuna, 2012).

Individuals need to communicate to socialize and establish their place within society. Regardless of the form of relationship, communication serves as the "cement" that forms the foundation of social unity and holds communities together (Demirel, 2018).

Communication is a process of exchanging messages that encompasses both verbal and nonverbal elements. In this process, the transmission of a message occurs through interaction between a sender and a receiver. For communication to exist, there must be a sender, a receiver, and a specific communication channel. However, various factors that can reduce or distort the clarity of the message are present; these factors are commonly referred to as communication barriers (Munodawafa, 2008).

1.1. Types of Communication

1.1.1. Verbal Communication

Speech is a type of verbal communication performed by individuals using their linguistic abilities. Verbal communication involves the exchange of messages and dialogues between individuals. Through this method, people communicate both orally and in writing. Language is the fundamental element that enables verbal communication (Fer, 2018).

Another definition of verbal communication emphasizes that this form of communication can occur between individuals or through mass communication tools such as telephone, television, and radio. Verbal communication plays a significant role in interpersonal communication as it ensures that messages are clearer and more understandable, keeps mutual interaction under control, and allows the other person to provide feedback on missing or unclear points (Javornick et al., 2020; Bietz, 2008).

1.1.2. Nonverbal Communication

Nonverbal communication is a form of communication conducted through body language and gestures instead of words and sentences. Although this communication method has a long history, its significance has become more apparent in recent times (Burgoon & Bacue, 2003). People use both verbal and nonverbal communication methods at all times and in all places. In this context, body language, voice tone, and verbal expressions form an effective and meaningful communication combination. A study has revealed that only 7% of communication consists of words, while 38% is conveyed through the voice, and 55% through body language (Mehrabian, 1972). The most successful forms of communication incorporate nonverbal cues such as tone of voice, facial expressions, and hand gestures alongside body language. Especially in the transmission of emotions, nonverbal communication plays a prominent role, making this type of communication highly significant (Buğdaycı, 2018).

1.1.3. Written Communication

Writing is a concrete reflection of the verbal language system used by humans through specific signs and symbols (letters). In this context, writing is considered a secondary form of communication and has been a significant tool produced by humans in the social and cultural development process of human history (Innis, 1999). Developed five thousand years ago, the invention of writing fundamentally changed humanity's cultural progress and significantly accelerated this process. Written communication plays a binding and safeguarding role in interpersonal relationships, while also allowing verbal communication to transcend time and space constraints (Boyes, 2023).

The social and cultural evolution processes of societies and individuals have influenced the production of writing. Although not every society developed its own writing system, societies seeking to transmit significant knowledge to future generations formed their unique writing systems, enabling them to preserve and convey this knowledge (Downey, 2014).

1.2. Communication Process

Communication is a dynamic process that involves creating meaning for a specific purpose and sharing that meaning. In its simplest form, it can be defined as the expression of one's thoughts and feelings through interaction with others. Communication can also be described as "a process in which meanings are conveyed between people using shared symbols" (Adair, 2006; Çolakoğlu, 2020).

The primary elements in this process are the sender, who conveys the message, and the receiver, who receives it. Effective communication depends on the presence of mutual interaction. In other words, it is impossible to speak of healthy and efficient communication without feedback. If the receiver's interpretation of the message does not align with the sender's intended meaning, a communication breakdown or disruption occurs.

Communication can be thought of as a process in which meaningful messages are generated and transmitted from a source to a receiver. This process progresses in a structured manner, with meanings emerging between individuals, and advances based on the belief that the meaning will be understood or interpreted by the receiver (Güz, 2012). This aspect of communication reveals that the creation of meaning is not solely a unilateral action of the source but rather a reciprocal process in which the receiver also plays an active role.

1.3. Characteristics of Communication

Communication has a dynamic structure that adapts to and is shaped by the cultural context in which it occurs. Over time, new elements emerge in language; culturally specific patterns, new words, and expressions contribute

to the development of language, while some older expressions are replaced by these innovations (Demirel, 2018).

Baltaş and Baltaş (1994) explain the various characteristics of communication as follows:

Communication is a Whole: All the components that constitute communication should be considered as a whole. One-sided approaches to communication can lead to misunderstandings and misleading outcomes. In this regard, different forms of communication are complementary to each other, and analyzing them separately makes it challenging to reach an accurate conclusion.

Communication is Not Merely the Exchange of Information: When body language is overlooked in the communication process, only a superficial understanding of the conveyed information is possible. However, it may not be sufficient to fully convey and comprehend the experiences of the speaker. Thus, communication not only involves the transmission of information but also encompasses emotional and experiential sharing.

Initial Interaction in Communication: The first encounter and interaction play a critical role in the communication process. This initial interaction includes many factors, such as the person's attitude and behavior during communication, physical appearance, environmental factors, and objects present in the setting. These elements can directly influence the quality of communication and the perception of the receiver.

Communication is Conducted with the Person, Not to the Person: Communication is a process that occurs with the active participation of at least two individuals. If one of the parties remains passive, communication cannot be fully realized. If the receiver is not ready to engage in the process, healthy communication and meaning creation will not be possible.

2. The Concept of Institution

Life, shaped by individuals' and societies' processes of choosing from among multiple tools and techniques to achieve their fundamental needs and objectives, resembles a structured game. The rules governing this game are formed by both written and unwritten regulations (North, 1981).

Throughout their lives, people require various resources to meet their needs. When existing resources are insufficient, they strive to increase them. However, since these efforts occur within a shared motivation and goal framework with other individuals, people inevitably find themselves in competition with one another. When goals are similar, this competition can arise between individuals or groups. The diversity of human and group objectives creates new competitive environments, and as the number of such competitions increases, establishing fundamental rules for managing these competitions becomes es-

sential for maintaining social order. In this context, institutions are defined as a set of constraints that regulate social interactions within a community and are shaped by its members. Norms such as language, units of measurement, traffic rules, and laws are examples of institutions formed by authorities to regulate these interactions (Hodgson, 2006).

From past to present, institutions have been analyzed through various lenses and have expanded in scope with the establishment of new structures. The sociology of institutions examines social structures such as family, law, politics, economy, and religion. Over time, these structures have expanded with the addition of new institutions like media and the military, becoming integral parts of the social system. Each institution is organized to meet a specific societal need and fulfills a designated function (Kasapoğlu, 2011).

The concept of an institution can be defined in both broad and narrow terms. For instance, universities, high schools, and primary schools are considered institutions on their own, yet all are united under the broader category of the education institution. When considered narrowly, educational institutions operate within the framework of a shared educational policy (Ozankaya, 1991).

Generally speaking, societal institutions such as family, economy, politics, religion, and education work together to form a harmonious whole. Any discord among these institutions can lead to a state of social disorder, as examined by Durkheim (2023).

An institution can be defined as a stable system of norms and values that meets a significant societal need. In other words, an institution is a system of beliefs and traditions implemented to address the fundamental needs and goals of a community (Türkkahraman, 2009).

2.1. The Concept of Sports Institutions

Sports federations, sports clubs, sports groups, and similar organizations are structured entities established for the purpose of planning, executing, and overseeing sports activities and are thus defined as sports institutions (Slack & Parent, 2006).

Sports institutions play a crucial role at various levels by providing the necessary infrastructure and organization for the practice of different sports disciplines. These organizations are of critical importance for the management of sports and the development of sports policies (Hoye et al., 2015).

3. The Concept of Corporate Communication

For institutions to sustain their existence and continue successfully, they must carefully manage their communication processes with their target audiences. Corporate communication has become a management function that

organizes and oversees all communication processes carried out with both internal and external target groups as part of the institution's managerial responsibilities (Cornelissen, 2023).

Since the inception of corporate communication, numerous interpretations have shaped the scope of this field. Early conceptualizations defined corporate communication as an all-encompassing framework that included "various forms and formats of communication" (Shelby, 1993).

Corporate communication encompasses the flow of information to ensure sustainability both in the internal operations of the organization and in its relations with stakeholders. Additionally, it involves the management of symbols, expressions, and the exchange of ideas to facilitate effective interaction. The external evaluation of corporate performance and obtaining feedback play a crucial role in managing activities aimed at enhancing performance and organizational strength (Cornelissen, 2023).

3.1. The History of Corporate Communication

Although modern corporate communication is rooted in traditional discourse, it became more prominent in the early 20th century, with the initial studies conducted in the fields of organizational psychology, organizational behavior, and management. Particularly from the 1950s onward, corporate communication began to develop as an autonomous discipline, focusing on topics such as the flow of information, network analysis, and the effects of systems theory on organizational structures (Christensen & Cornelissen, 2013). These studies were grounded in traditional rhetorical theory, mass communication, human relations, and management theories and were conducted using positivist methods (Zalac, 2018; Bielicka, 2014).

Until 1980, modernist and empirical approaches dominated the field. However, after this period, methodological and theoretical debates began to emerge as a result of criticism directed at modernism and positivism. It was argued that corporate communication should be conceptualized by placing it at the core of organizational structures, which led to a clearer definition of the discipline's boundaries and theoretical framework. After the 1980s, interpretive and critical approaches gained prominence, focusing more on issues such as internal meaning-making, interpretation processes, and power relations within organizations. This shift reflected new epistemological and ontological trends in the social sciences, supported by theoretical approaches such as the construction of social reality, symbolic interactionism, and phenomenology. The Frankfurt School's critical theory and cultural studies also influenced this period by addressing issues such as power dynamics and inequalities in communication.

These new approaches resulted in the classification of the field of corporate communication into three main paradigms: functional, interpretive, and

critical. Each of these paradigms contributed to the development of the discipline and enabled more in-depth research (Yüksel, 2019).

3.2. The Importance of Corporate Communication

Corporate communication is crucial for the sustainability of businesses. In addition to maintaining relationships with internal and external stakeholders, the accurate, timely, and comprehensive execution of daily internal operations is facilitated through effective management of corporate communication, thereby increasing efficiency and eliminating negative situations such as dissatisfaction (Salvioni & Bosetti, 2014).

Neill (2015) emphasizes that corporate communication provides access to the necessary data for decision-making processes, making it extremely significant. Corporate communication enables managers to effectively implement their strategic decisions and communicate these decisions clearly to employees. It is also noted that these communication processes increase employee motivation and have positive effects on job satisfaction and performance. Through this process, internal tensions and conflicts within the organization are minimized, creating a collaborative and stable working environment. Consequently, achieving the organization's long-term goals becomes easier, while a suitable foundation is laid for the development and implementation of innovative ideas (Jameendar, 2014).

3.3. Functions and Responsibilities of Corporate Communication

The role and function of corporate communication in businesses are continuously evolving and gaining new dimensions. Since the corporate communication department encompasses both internal and external communication activities, some authors define its broad range of functions as "mass communication." Beyond managing the flow of information, the corporate communication department is also responsible for maintaining and enhancing the organization's image, reputation, and brand value. The roles and functions of this department are outlined by Ravinderam (2014) and Oliver (2004) as follows:

• Managing customer relations and advertising campaigns within the framework of marketing communication,

• Overseeing business-to-business (B2B) communication activities,

• Implementing image and profile-building initiatives, such as sponsorship campaigns,

• Supervising investor relations and financial communication processes,

• Maintaining lobbying, media, and governmental relations,

• Managing both financial and non-financial reporting processes,

- Handling employee communication and recognition,

- Managing problem-solving and communication activities during crises,

- Conducting personnel communication activities, such as training programs and guidelines,

- Providing technical communication.

In other words, the corporate communication department is responsible for integrating the institution's unique symbols, activities, messages, and behaviors to various target audiences in a way that preserves legitimacy and trust among these groups. In this context, the department's primary function is to manage and integrate existing activities, ensuring alignment for both internal and external stakeholders.

4. Social Media

Social media can be defined as Web 2.0-based digital platforms that facilitate global communication and interaction. These platforms provide a two-way communication environment that enables active participation and interaction, allowing individuals and organizations to create thoughts, ideas, and content. Since the 2000s, with the widespread adoption of social networking sites, social media has emerged as a new domain in digital communication.

The new communication opportunities provided by Web 2.0 technology allow users to play a more active role in content creation and enable brands to establish stronger interactions with their target audiences. Organizations can use social media platforms to deliver marketing, public relations, and advertising campaigns to their target audiences more quickly and effectively. These platforms allow organizations to manage their reputations and receive feedback, enabling them to dynamically manage communication processes (Güçdemir, 2017).

According to Sağlam (2019), social media platforms are used as online platforms that allow individuals to share their ideas, thoughts, experiences, and perspectives while also enabling them to communicate with one another. With features such as easy accessibility and scalability, these platforms are at the core of social participation and sharing. Kirtiş and Karahan (2011) define social media as social networking sites that facilitate online communication between users through functions like content sharing and private messaging.

4.1. The Evolution of Social Media

In today's world, human needs have shifted in line with technological developments, leading to the digitalization of communication forms and their evolution into a multidimensional structure. In this context, new media, referred to as social media tools, have undergone a significant transformation

compared to previous periods. The most striking aspect of this transformation is the concept of speed, which has become a fundamental dynamic shaping communication processes and social structures. During this era, in which daily life and commercial relationships are redefined around the concept of speed, communication procedures and tools are both the subject and the aim of change. The distinct structural features of social media platforms constitute the core elements behind this transformation. Individuals assume the role of participants and active subjects on social media, forming the basis for social interactions in these digital environments.

The relationship between society and internet technologies has been analyzed through two main theories. The first theory views the internet as a tool that enables global information exchange. In this regard, the internet is emphasized as creating an impartial audience and making information more accessible and usable. The second theory focuses on the commercialization of the internet through online advertisements. The concept of speed is considered a key element that shapes all resources and orientations of the modern world (Bulat Demir, 2021).

The emergence of social media began with the concept of the World Wide Web (www), first introduced in 1989 by British computer scientist Tim Berners-Lee and made available in 1991. Technological developments over time led to the transformation of the first stage of the internet, Web 1.0, into a more interactive and user-centered structure known as Web 2.0. With Web 2.0, social media platforms have become a vital component of this new structure (Güzel, 2016).

In the course of the internet's evolution, the launch of Sixdegrees.com in 1997 is considered the first example of an online social network. Following this, platforms such as Facebook, Twitter, YouTube, Myspace, Wikipedia, and Instagram emerged. These platforms offered new channels for interpersonal communication and information sharing compared to traditional media, facilitating the rapid adoption and widespread use of social media. Today, approximately two billion people worldwide actively use these platforms, benefiting from the advantages they provide (Avcı, 2023).

4.2. Characteristics of Social Media

Social media is defined as digital platforms that facilitate the sharing of personal information, thoughts, experiences, and areas of interest among users. These platforms provide flexible and up-to-date communication environments that allow users to express their ideas, engage in discussions around these ideas, and develop new thoughts. Additionally, social media enables users not only to share text-based content but also to create visual and video-based materials, search for jobs, and even apply for positions. Thus, social media allows individuals to recreate their real-world experiences in a virtual

environment (Özçiftçi, 2020).

Mayfield (2008) emphasizes some of the core characteristics of social media, summarizing the dynamic nature of these platforms as follows:

Participation: Social media platforms encourage active user participation and feedback.

Openness: Social media is generally open to user comments and participation. Users can contribute to the evaluation of content and share information. However, at times, this process may encounter access restrictions and barriers.

Two-Way Communication: Unlike traditional media, social media allows users to engage in two-way communication and interact with content creators.

Community Building: Social media enables individuals with common interests to form communities and interact effectively.

Connectivity: Social media platforms create a broader interaction network by connecting with other websites and online communities, thus intensifying the communication process.

These features highlight the fundamental qualities that differentiate social media from traditional media tools and demonstrate how it has integrated into the communication processes of the digital age.

5. The Impact of Social Media on Corporate Communication

Today, the rate of internet usage is rapidly increasing across all sectors. Organizations utilize the internet intensively for various purposes, including informing customers about their products, services, and other assets; establishing effective interaction; analyzing customer needs and preferences; developing sales strategies accordingly; and conducting direct business transactions (Chaffey, 2009).

The ease of accessing information, along with speed and interaction capabilities, has transformed communication processes and methods in social life, paving the way for the development of new "relationship management" approaches. The phenomenon of social media has become more powerful and diversified with the widespread use of smartphones. During this process, internet and computer technologies have also had a profound impact on social life (Castells, 2011).

Social media offers businesses significant advantages by providing fast, low-cost, and two-way interaction opportunities. Recognizing these benefits, companies strive to interact directly with their target audiences through social media platforms (Kaplan & Haenlein, 2010). With the capacity to reach

millions simultaneously, social media plays a vital role in the corporate communication activities of businesses. People can express their issues, thoughts, and feelings about institutions through social networks, making social media platforms a highly effective tool in corporate communication (Kara, 2013).

Current trends in corporate communication research have entered a digital transformation process due to developments in information and communication technologies. Social media and the internet have an increasing impact on public relations and business communication processes every day. Organizations use these digital tools to analyze the needs of their target audiences and develop strategic communication plans to meet these needs (Grunig, 2009). International studies reveal that social media is increasingly being used by organizations as an effective communication tool, and this usage continues to grow (Macnamara, 2016).

In this context, the effective management of social media and digital communication tools is crucial for modern businesses to gain a competitive advantage and establish healthy interaction with their target audiences.

6. Social Media and Sports

Today, social media is becoming an increasingly important strategic tool for the sports industry (Williams & Chinn, 2010). Athletes, teams, fans, and other stakeholders interact through social media, and this communication is directed and transformed by social media platforms (Lamirán-Palomares et al., 2019). These platforms are effectively used by many sports organizations in their business models and communication strategies. For instance, professional sports teams and sports equipment companies integrate the opportunities offered by social media into their business processes (Geurin & Burch, 2017).

Moreover, for athletes who have retired from active sports, social media provides an additional opportunity with the potential for generating income. According to Korzynski and Paniagua (2016), for athletes with millions of followers, social media accounts function as a "retirement plan" that can generate economic gains post-retirement. Companies looking to advertise and promote products consider the large follower bases of these athletes and invest in advertising through social media. These developments are transforming the perspectives of sports managers, fans, and other sports industry stakeholders toward sports consumption. Horozoğlu and Yağan (2022) emphasize the need for future sports managers to be educated on how to effectively integrate social media with sports management, keeping in mind this digital transformation.

The sports sector benefits from the rapid, reciprocal, and interactive communication capabilities of social media. Rothschild (2011) states that social media has replaced traditional marketing strategies within the sports industry. Athletes, clubs, and sports organizations use these opportunities to increase

fan loyalty, promote product and ticket sales, and communicate more quickly and effectively with fans.

Gürbulak (2010) notes that sports teams are turning to digital platforms to establish stronger communication with their fans. Social media platforms provide sports teams with opportunities to engage with their fan base through corporate communication, marketing, public relations, and other management strategies. Teams that effectively utilize these opportunities gain a competitive advantage and stand out.

The active use of social media platforms by sports clubs extends club-fan interaction beyond a specific group, offering the potential to reach broader segments of society. Social media serves as a versatile tool for sports clubs in their communication and marketing activities, enabling them to interact not only with fans but also with the general public and various stakeholders (e.g., sponsors and businesses) more effectively. In this context, social media platforms offer numerous opportunities for creating brand value, building communities, and developing strategic partnerships in the sports world, thereby enabling the adoption of new strategic approaches in sports communication and marketing (Hutchins & Rowe, 2012).

The primary reasons for the active use of social media by sports clubs are as follows (Pedersen, 2011):

- Fans desire to interact with their clubs.

- Fans need to express their emotions and thoughts.

- Athletes and club employees are considered effective communication symbols.

- Fans influence each other, forming communities.

- Social media facilitates easy access to fans.

- It provides the opportunity to attract new fans from all over the world.

- Fan loyalty involves an emotional bond and long-term commitment.

- Fan loyalty plays a critical role in the economic success of clubs.

- The mobile-oriented nature of social media enables sports to engage in mobile interactions as well.

- Social media transforms clubs into global brands.

- It serves as an effective communication channel between athletes and fans.

In this framework, the effective management of social media strategies by sports clubs enhances fan engagement and loyalty, strengthens the club's brand value, and positively influences commercial success.

7. Strategic Integration of Sports, Social Media, and Corporate Communication

Today, social media serves as a critical bridge between the sports industry and corporate communication. Unlike traditional communication channels, social media platforms provide a direct and dynamic communication environment among sports clubs, athletes, and fans. This interactive environment offers sports organizations the opportunity to communicate directly with their target audiences, increase brand value, and build a loyal fan community. Williams and Chinn (2010) emphasize that social media has become a strategic communication tool for the sports industry, stating that the digitalization of sports, along with social media, has transformed into a platform that brings together all stakeholders in the sector.

The significance of social media in this context stems from the ability of sports organizations and individual athletes to establish their digital identities and promote their brands to broader audiences. Particularly, athletes create their own personal brands through social media and expand their spheres of influence by engaging directly with fans (Korzynski & Paniagua, 2016). Similarly, sports clubs use these digital platforms to establish an emotional bond with fans and encourage greater engagement with the club. This dynamic strengthens brand loyalty for clubs and sports organizations, thereby positively contributing to their commercial success.

Moreover, social media has redefined corporate communication strategies for the sports industry. During the era when traditional media played a dominant role, clubs and organizations had to rely on mass communication tools to reach their target audiences. However, the rise of social media has transformed this process into a two-way interaction platform, enabling fans to express their opinions, requests, and complaints directly. This development has compelled sports clubs to adopt more transparent and participatory digital communication strategies. Consequently, social media has become an essential tool for clubs in crisis communication and reputation management.

The use of social media in the sports sector has become not only an enhancement of communication processes but also an integral part of marketing strategies. Through social media campaigns, clubs can promote products, boost ticket sales, and strengthen relationships with sponsors. Rothschild (2011) points out that social media has replaced traditional marketing strategies in sports marketing, and this transformation has heightened the importance of digital marketing in the sports industry. Thus, social media provides economically significant opportunities for clubs and sports organizations.

In conclusion, the relationship among sports, social media, and corporate communication has deepened with the digitalization of the sports industry. Social media offers sports clubs and athletes the opportunity to interact direct-

ly with fans and build their digital identities while enabling corporate communication strategies to evolve into a dynamic and interactive structure. This shift allows sports stakeholders to engage more actively, create brand value, and strengthen long-term fan loyalty. In the future, the development of digital technologies and social media platforms is expected to further complicate and diversify this relationship.

References

Adair, J. (2006). Effective Communication. Pan Books.

Akkaya, Ö., Zerenler, M. (2017). Sosyal Medya ve Spor Pazarlaması İlişkisi Taraftar Tutumlarını Belirlemeye Yönelik Bir Araştırma: Beşiktaş Spor Kulübü Örneği. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 22(4), 945-963.

Aziz, A. (2016). İletişime Giriş, Hiperlink Yayınları, İstanbul.

Avcı, S. (2023). Spor ve Sosyal Medya: Türk Futbolunun Dönüşümü. Gazi Kitabevi, Ankara.

Baltaş, Z., Baltaş, A. (1994). Bedenin Dili. Remzi Kitabevi. İstanbul.

Bat, Z. B. A. V. M., Vural, Z. B. A., Bat, M. (2010). Yeni Bir İletişim Ortamı Olarak Sosyal Medya: Ege Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesine Yönelik Bir Araştırma. Yaşar Üniversitesi E-Dergisi, 5(20), 3348-3382.

Bielicka, B. (2014). The role of internal communication in the company management. Torun Business Review, 13(13), 11-26.

Bietz, M. J. (2008). Effects of Communication Media on the Interpretation of Critical Feedback. In Proceedings of the 2008 ACM Conference on Computer Supported Cooperative Work (CSCW '08). Association for Computing Machinery, New York, NY, USA, 467–476. https://doi.org/10.1145/1460563.1460637.

Boyes P. J. (2023). The Wider World of Writing. Networks of People, Practice and Culture Underpinning Writing in Late Bronze Age Ugarit. Cambridge Archaeological Journal., 33(2):181-192. doi:10.1017/S0959774322000245

Buğdaycı, S. (2018). Antrenörlerin İletişim Becerileri ile Öz Yeterliliklerinin İncelenmesi, Doktora Tezi, Konya: Selçuk Üniversitesi.

Bulat Demir, S. (2021). İnternet Galaksisi, İnternet, İş Dünyası ve Toplum Üzerine Düşünceler. Etkileşim, (8), 240-247. https://doi.org/10.32739/etkilesim.2021.4.8.146

Burgoon, J. K., Bacue, A. E. (2003). Nonverbal Communication Skills. In. Handbook of Communication and Social Interaction Skills, (Ed: Greene J. O., Burleson B. R.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates. New Jersey: 179-219.

Castells, M. (2011). The Rise of the Network Society. John Wiley & Sons.

Chaffey, D., Ellis-Chadwick, F., Mayer, R. (2009). Internet Marketing: Strategy, Implementation and Practice. Pearson Education.

Christensen, L., Cornelissen, J. (2013). Bridging Corporate and Organizational Communication: Review, Development and a Look to the Future. In: Zerfaß, A., Rademacher, L., Wehmeier, S. (eds) Organisationskommunikation und Public Relations. Springer VS, Wiesbaden: 43-72.

Cornelissen, J. P. (2023). Corporate Communication: A Guide to Theory and Practice. London: SAGE Publications.

Çolakoğlu H. (2020). İletişim Süreci. Tüm Yönleriyle Bütünleşik Pazarlama İletişimi, Ed: Aytuğ Mermer Üzümlü, Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık, Ankara, ss.1-17.

Demirel, A. (2018). Fitness Eğitmenlerinin İletişim Becerilerinin Müşteri Memnuniyeti Üzerindeki Etkilerinin İncelenmesi, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul: Bahçeşehir Üniversitesi.

Downey, G. (2014), All Forms of Writing. Mind Lang, 29: 304-319. https://doi.org/10.1111/mila.12052

Durkheim, E. (2023). The division of labour in society. In Social Theory Re-Wired: New Connections to Classical and Contemporary Perspectives (3rd ed.). Longhofer, W., Winchester, D. (Eds.). (pp. 15-34). Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003320609.

Fer, S. (2018). Verbal Communication As a Two-Way Process in Connecting People. http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.3128115.

Geurin, A. N. ve Burch, L. M. (2017). User-Generated Branding via Social Media: An Examination of Six Running Brands. Sport Management Review, 20(3), 273–284.

Grunig, J. E. (2009). Paradigms of Global Public Relations in an Age of Digitalisation. PRism, 6(2), 1-19.

Güçdemir, Y. (2017). Sosyal medya: Halkla ilişkiler, reklam ve pazarlama. İstanbul: Derin Yayınları.

Gürbulak M. (2010). Dört Büyüklerin Digital Tribünleri. Digitalage Dergisi, 26, 16-26.

Güz, N. (2012). İletişim Süreci ve Temel Ögeler. İstanbul Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesi Dergisi (7), 121-142. https://doi.org/10.17064/iüifhd.14934

Güzel, E. (2016). Dijital Kültür ve Çevrimiçi Sosyal Ağlarda Rekabetin Aktörü: Dijital Habitus, Gümüşhane Üniversitesi İletişim Fakültesi Elektronik Dergisi, 4(1), s.82-103.

Hodgson, G.M. (2006). What are Institutions?, Journal of Economic Issues, 40(1), 1-25.

Horozoğlu, M. A., Yağan, K. (2022). "Spor Pazarlamasında Sosyal Medyanın Rolü", Journal of Social, Humanities and Administrative Sciences, 8(56), 1225-1235.

Hoye, R., Smith, A. C. T., Nicholson, M., Stewart, B., Westerbeek, H. (2015). Sport Management: Principles and Applications, Routledge

Hutchins, B., Rowe, D. (2012). Sport Beyond Television: The Internet, Digital Media and the Rise of Networked Media Sport. Routledge.

Innis, H. A. (1999). The bias of communication. University of Toronto Press.

Jameendar, R. (2014). Impact Of Effective and Powered Communication in The Modern Organizations and Suggestions to Remove Barriers In The Way of Effective Communication. International Journal of Interdisciplinary and Multidisciplinary, 1(7) 48-54.

Javornik, A., Filieri, R., Gumann, R. (2020). "Don't Forget that Others Are Watching, Too!" The Effect of Conversational Human Voice and Reply Length on Observers' Perceptions of Complaint Handling in Social Media. Journal of Interactive Marketing, 50(1), 100-119. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.intmar.2020.02.002

Kaplan, A. M., Haenlein, M. (2010). Users of the World, Unite! The Challenges and Opportunities of Social Media. Business horizons, 53(1), 59-68.

Kara, T. (2013). Sosyal medya endüstrisi. İstanbul: Beta Yayıncılık, 11.

Kasapoğlu, A. (2011). Kurumlar sosyolojisi. Ankara: UZEM.

Kirtiş, K. A., Karahan, F. (2011). To be or not to be in Social Media Arena as the Most Cost- Efficient Marketing Strategy after the Global Recession. Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences, 24, 260-268.

Korzynski, P., Paniagua, J. (2016). Score a Tweet and Post a Goal: Social Media Recipes for Sports Stars. Business Horizons, 59(2), 185-192.

Lamirán-Palomares, J. M., Baviera, T., Baviera-Puig, A. (2019). Identifying Opinion Leaders on Twitter During Sporting Events: Lessons from a Case Study. Social Sciences, 8(5), 141.

Macnamara, J. R. (2016). Organizational Listening: The Missing Essential in Public Communication. Peter Lang Publishing.

Mayfield, A. (2008), "What is Social Media?", available at: https://crmxchange.com/uploadedFiles/White_Papers/PDF/What_is_Social_Media_iCrossing_ebook.pdf (accessed: 03.10.2024).

Mehrabian, A. (1972). Nonverbal Communication. Routledge. 1st Edition. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351308724

Munodawafa D. (2008). Communication: Concepts, Practice and Challenges, Health Education Research. 23. 369-70.

Mutlu, E., Yorulmazlar, M. M. (2021). Kurumsal İletişimde Sosyal Medya Kullanımının Kadın Voleybol Spor Kulübü Açısından İncelenmesi. Eurasian Research İn Sport Science, 6(1), 42-55.

Neill, M. S. (2015). Beyond the C-Suite: Corporate Communications' Power and Influence. Journal of Communication Management, 19(2), 118-132.

North, D. C. (1981). Structure and Change in Economic History. New York: Norton.

Oliver, S. (2004). Handbook of Corporate Communication and Public Relations (No. 12924). London: Routledge.

Ozankaya, P. D. (1991). Toplumbilim, İstanbul: Cem Yayınevi.

Özçifçi, V. (2020). Sosyal Medyanın Tüketicilerin Satın Alma Niyeti Üzerindeki Etkisi. Ahi Evran Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Dergisi, 6(1), 206-223.

Pedersen, P. M. (2011). Contemporary Sport Management. Human Kinetics.

Ravinderam, M. (2014). The Vitality of Communication in Human Resource Management-A Study. Scholedge International Journal Of Management & Develop-

ment, 1(3), 2394-3378.

Rothschild, P. C. (2011). Social Media Use in Sports and Entertainment Venues. International Journal of Event and Festival Management, 2(2), 139-150.

Sağlam, M. (2019). Kurumsal İletişimde Sosyal Medya Kullanımı: Marmara Üniversitesi Örneği. Yüksek Lisans Tezi. İstanbul: Marmara Üniversitesi.

Salvioni, D. M., Bosetti, L. (2014). Sustainable Development and Corporate Communication in Global Markets. Symphonya Emerging Issues in Management, (1), 1-19.

Shelby, A. N. (1993). Organizational, Business, Management, and Corporate Communication: An Analysis of Boundaries and Relationships. The Journal of Business Communication (1973), 30(3), 241-267. https://doi.org/10.1177/002194369303000302

Slack, T., Parent, M. M. (2006). Understanding Sport Organizations: The Application of Organization Theory, Human Kinetics.

Söylemez Y. (2015). Görsel İletişimde Çocuk Afişlerinin Hedef Kitle Üzerindeki Etkisi, Yüksek Lisans Tezi, İstanbul: İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi.

Tuna, Y. (2012). İletişim, Pegem Akademi, Ankara.

Türkkahraman, M. (2009). Teorik ve Fonksiyonal Açidan Toplumsal Kurumlar ve Kurumlararasi İlişkiler. Süleyman Demirel Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 14(2), 25-46.

Williams, J., Chinn, S. J. (2010). Meeting Relationship-Marketing Goals through Social Media: A Conceptual Model for Sport Marketers. International Journal of Sport Communication, 3(4), 422-437.

Yüksel, Y. (2019). Kurumsal İletişim Üzerine: Geçmişi, Bugünü ve Geleceği. İstanbul Arel Üniversitesi İletişim Çalışmaları Dergisi, 6(13), 13-39.

Žalac, M. (2018). Utjecaj Komunıkacıje na Korporacıjsku Kulturu (The Influence of Communication on Corporate Culture) (Undergraduate thesis). Zagreb: Zagreb School of Business. Retrieved from https://urn.nsk.hr/urn:nbn:hr:180:663882
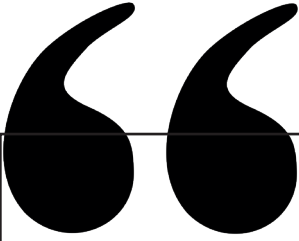
Chapter 5

THE KNOWLEDGE BASE OF SOCIAL WORK PRACTICE

Zeki KARATAŞ[1]

1 Assoc. Prof. Dr., Department of Social Work, Faculty of Health Sciences, Recep Tayyip Erdogan University, Rize, Türkiye. zeki.karatas@erdogan.edu.tr, https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5822-2904

Introduction

Social work as a profession, is a field that aims to improve the quality of life of individuals, groups and societies and includes a range of professional interventions aimed at empowering and liberating people. The main aim of social work is to promote social change, solve problems encountered in human relations and improve the well-being of individuals. In this process, social workers aim to help individuals realise their potential and increase their functionality in society. At the same time, social work is strongly committed to universal values such as contributing to the solution of social problems, ensuring social justice and protecting human rights (Mapp et al., 2019).

Social work has a multidisciplinary structure and aims to help individuals and communities cope with the social, economic and psychological problems they experience. For this purpose, social workers focus on basic principles such as ensuring social justice and supporting disadvantaged groups. The knowledge base of social work is fed by various disciplines such as social sciences, psychology, sociology, law and economics. This broad range of knowledge enhances social workers' ability to understand, evaluate and solve complex problems faced by individuals, groups and communities (Connolly et al., 2017).

The knowledge base of social work provides a strong theoretical foundation for practice. Social workers, using this infrastructure, evaluate the social environment of individuals, try to understand their living conditions and produce effective solutions to the problems they face. In this context, the knowledge, skills and value components of social workers form the basis of professional intervention. In order to understand the complex life situations of people and to intervene in their social problems, social workers need to have a broad set of knowledge and skills.

The difference of social work from other professional fields lies in the diversity of problems and interactions with individuals that this discipline focuses on. By working intensively with the most disadvantaged segments of society, social workers have developed the ability to develop effective interventions with limited resources. This process has resulted in social work having a different knowledge and skill base from other social sciences. In particular, practices such as household visits contribute to social workers' deeper understanding of individuals' living conditions and invaluable knowledge about their social environment.

However, it is a fact that social work stands out not only with its knowledge and skill base but also with its values. Social work values are at the centre of the profession and it is not possible for social work to survive without these values. The knowledge base of social work is blended with these values and serves the purpose of protecting social justice and human rights. Therefore, one of the most important features that distinguishes social work from other

professions is the unique set of knowledge, skills and values that social workers develop for the most vulnerable segments of society. Social work not only improves the quality of life of individuals and communities, but also stands out as a profession that enables social transformation. In this context, the knowledge base of social work is an important element that shapes the professional practice of the profession and contributes to society (Trevithick, 2008).

Knowledge Base of Social Work

The pursuit of knowledge is a fundamental drive of humanity and underpins our endeavour to understand ourselves, others and the world. This endeavour is shaped by the desire to discover what the truth is, and in the journey to knowledge, it becomes inevitable to question what constitutes reality. The concept of reality brings up an important dilemma between subjective and objective interpretations. What is true or real for one person may not have the same meaning for another. This situation leads to differences in how people perceive events and the meanings they give to their experiences. These differences, which lie at the heart of social work, have an important place in the essence of the profession because the concept of reality is at the centre of assessment processes and other functions of social work (Payne, 1991).

As its universal definition suggests, social work utilises multiple perspectives drawn from a range of different sources. Social work methodology is based on a systematic integration of evidence-based knowledge from research and practice evaluation, including context-specific local and indigenous knowledge. It recognises the complexity of interactions between people and their environment and the capacity of people to be both influenced by and change multiple factors, including the biopsychosocial dimension. The social work profession draws on theories of human development and behaviour and social systems to analyse complex situations and facilitate individual, organisational, social and cultural change (Gray et al., 2008).

The ability to benefit from and use knowledge is at the centre of effective social work intervention. Social workers benefit from the knowledge of social sciences to understand the context of practice, to evaluate human behaviour and social systems, and to comprehend the structure of society. Due to the wide scope of social problems, the knowledge base of social work is also quite complex. Knowledge, skills and values constitute the basis of social work and all three are important for a sound social work discipline and practice. These components cannot be considered separately from each other, because each of them complements the other. Social work knowledge can be considered in three main categories: theoretical knowledge, factual/reality/event knowledge and practice-based/personal knowledge. Theoretical knowledge includes theories about people, situations and events and explains the role, function and purpose of social work. This category consists of knowledge borrowed from

disciplines such as sociology, psychology, law, medicine, social policy. Factual knowledge comes from law/legislation and organisational policies and includes knowledge about specific groups of people. This type of knowledge is based on objective and provable data in fields such as physics and biology. However, it may be difficult to identify factual knowledge for a discipline such as social work, whose topics are vague and abstract. The third type of knowledge is personal knowledge and includes practice-based knowledge. This knowledge includes personal experience and knowledge gained by practitioners from fieldwork. Social work receives information from other professions, uses it in professional practices, and develops more effective intervention methods by combining the knowledge gained from its practices with this information (Trevithick, 2008). The knowledge used in the social work profession is knowledge about people and includes the effort to understand people who prioritise helping (Trevithick, 2011).

The focus of social work practice is the interaction and connections between people and resource systems and the problems faced in the functionality of individuals and systems (Pincus & Minahan, 1973). There are theories and approaches that guide generalist social work practices in understanding and eliminating these problems. Approaches developed based on theories that are supported by evidence obtained as a result of systematic observations and that explain the causes of the behaviours of phenomena facilitate the understanding of complex social problems. Approaches such as ecological system and empowerment, which are specific to the field of social work, help the social worker to choose the most appropriate method by guiding the social worker while working with the applicant. Social workers who carry out their professional work without basing their professional work on any approach will increase the likelihood of engaging in harmful and risky behaviours by bringing their personal values and assumptions to the fore (Teater, 2019). The knowledge base of social work consists of overlapping and complementary theoretical knowledge, factual knowledge and information obtained based on practice.

Theoretical Knowledge

Theoretical knowledge is considered as one of the cornerstones of scientific research and applications. Scientific theories are systematic conceptual frameworks developed to understand and explain complex phenomena and the relationships between these phenomena. Theories are comprehensive propositions that explain factual responses and generate questions for new research based on the evidence obtained as a result of systematic observations on a particular subject. These propositions play a critical role for the advancement of scientific knowledge and the elucidation of obscure phenomena. Social work has created its own unique theoretical structures using these theoretical foundations and has become an eclectic discipline that feeds on other social sciences (Klausen & Petersen, 2021).

Social work theories function as an important tool in the process of understanding and predicting human behaviour. At the same time, they provide guidance on how to intervene at the individual and community level (Teater, 2019). While explaining the complexity of human behaviour, these theories also take into account the individual's interactions with his/her environment. For example, ecological system theory helps social workers to determine intervention strategies by analysing the dynamic relationships between the individual and the environment. Such theoretical frameworks allow social workers to understand the complex situations they face when working with clients and to produce effective solutions.

Theories not only play an explanatory role, but also guide social work researchers and practitioners in organising and making sense of complex relationships. Theory is a fundamental tool for the production of scientific knowledge and scientific endeavours gain meaning when they are theory-based. A good theory should be clear, testable and empirically valid. It should also encourage practical, economic and scientific developments. These qualities increase the validity and usefulness of the theory in both academic and practical fields (Murdock, 2013).

Another important feature of social work theories is their capacity to guide practices. Practitioners can develop more effective and targeted interventions based on theoretical knowledge. This enables social work to achieve positive results at both individual and social levels. For example, empowerment theory allows social workers to develop strategies to help individuals maximise their abilities and resources. Such theoretical approaches guide the process of working with clients and ensure that the main goals of social work are achieved.

Social workers use various theories and approaches in social work practice. These theories and approaches include system theory, cognitive-behavioural, psychodynamic, interpersonal, existentialist, person-centred, humanist, gestalt theories and approaches. According to research, the majority of social workers applying psychotherapy adopt an eclectic/integrative approach and make use of multiple theories (Sharf, 2004). The theoretical knowledge used in the field of social work based on the eclectic approach can be categorised into three main categories (Connolly et al., 2017):

• Theories that enable us to understand people, situations and events,

• Theories explaining the role, task and purpose of social work,

• Theories directly related to practice, such as practice approaches and perspectives.

Looking first at the theories that provide an understanding of people, situations and events, we see that these theories draw on other sciences. These include psychology, sociology, law, social policy, business, medicine, political

science, economics, philosophy, history and anthropology. Some theories developed in the social sciences are brought together in overlapping ways. For example, social service agency policy and practice is influenced to varying degrees by relevant legislation, social policy, economics and organisational theory, and perhaps social psychology. Whilst the influence of some theories and approaches has declined in recent years, others have become more important. The need for theoretical knowledge may vary according to the field in which the social worker works. While the social worker working in the field of medical social work needs to have knowledge on issues such as mental health, psychopathology, therapy approaches, the social worker working in the field of forensic social work needs knowledge of law and legislation (Trevithick, 2008).

The second type of theoretical knowledge is related to the theories explaining the role, task and purpose of social work. There are some dilemmas that cause confusion in this regard. Should social work be about reform or radical change, about fitting people into the system, changing the system, or both? Is social work primarily a rational-technical activity or a practical-moral activity? The role, task and purpose of social work have been conceptualised in various ways, but the most appropriate classification is care, treatment and control (Trevithick, 2008).

The third strand of theoretical knowledge focuses on the theories taught in educational institutions and used directly by practitioners in their work with clients. As academics and practitioners do not necessarily share a common language to describe different aspects of practice, there is some disagreement on this issue. It is important for social workers to integrate theory and practice in order to use theoretical knowledge effectively in daily practice. Theory provides the basic principles and strategies that guide practice. However, this theoretical knowledge needs to be applied in a way that is compatible with cultural diversity. Experts in the field of social work can make effective interventions by combining theoretical knowledge with practical experience. Therefore, it is important for social workers to establish a balance between theoretical knowledge and practice and to demonstrate an ethical practice by considering cultural differences (Payne, 1991).

Factual Knowledge

Factual knowledge is a concept of great importance in scientific and professional fields. In order to fully understand this concept, it is first necessary to explain what the terms 'fact' and 'factual' mean. A fact refers to a situation whose existence is accepted, proven to be true or thought to have occurred. In other words, a fact represents a reality that is accepted as truth. Factual, on the other hand, is a term that describes events that can be proved by observations, have objective judgements and can be measured. In this context, factual knowledge refers to knowledge that exists in the real world and can be verified

and tested (Blackburn, 2016). Factual knowledge is based on concrete data and is usually obtained through scientific methods. This kind of knowledge is observable, measurable and repeatable and constitutes one of the cornerstones of scientific research.

In the field of social work, factual knowledge is of great importance. Social workers and researchers need factual information to develop effective practices and to better understand social work interventions. Factual knowledge plays a critical role in the process of developing intervention strategies and generating solutions appropriate to the needs of individuals. For example, a social worker can use factual information to understand the common social problems in a particular community and to identify strategies to deal with these problems. This information helps experts to develop more effective and targeted interventions to address social problems (Healy, 2014).

Factual knowledge is also an important tool in the process of evaluating the effects of social work interventions. Social work practice often relies on factual knowledge to evaluate its impact on individuals and communities. These evaluations are used to understand how practices work in the real world and to improve the effectiveness of intervention strategies. In addition, factual information plays a fundamental role in the process of formulating and improving social work policies. Policy makers and decision makers use factual information from scientific research to find solutions to social problems. This information enables social service policies to be more effective and targeted. Factual knowledge is also an important source of continuous professional development and training for social workers. Based on new scientific findings, social workers can update their practice and provide more effective services. For example, a social worker can learn a new intervention method based on the latest research and use it in their practice. This allows them to increase their professional competences and provide better services to their clients (Rogers et al., 2020).

Factual knowledge also helps social workers to develop effective strategies to improve the general welfare of society. Factual knowledge guides social work professionals to deal with social problems and support individuals. For example, a social worker working in a community struggling with poverty can use factual information to understand the causes of poverty and develop interventions to address this problem. This information allows the social worker to work more consciously and effectively and contributes to the production of more sustainable solutions to social problems (Trevithick, 2008).

In the field of social work, it is critical to update the theories and knowledge developed in the past with new research and developments in the field. In this updating process, factual information plays an important role in five main areas as well as theoretical knowledge. These five areas include; (a) law/

legislation, (b) social policy, (c) organisational policy, procedures and systems, (d) information on specific population groups and (e) information on specific personal and social problems. Factual knowledge helps social workers to understand current law and legislation in their work, enabling them to act ethically and fulfil their legal responsibilities. In the field of social policy, factual knowledge can be used to understand current policy changes and their impact on social work, enabling social workers to intervene more effectively in social problems. Factual knowledge is also used to understand the policies, procedures and systems of social service organisations. Factual information, which enables social workers to have up-to-date and verified information on specific groups of people, provides up-to-date data on the individual and social problems of client groups. This enables a more sensitive approach to the needs of individuals, groups and communities (Trevithick, 2011).

Practice Knowledge

Practice knowledge is an important concept that defines how to transform theoretical and factual knowledge into practice. This type of knowledge focuses on transforming theoretical knowledge from abstract to effective, valid and usable in real world conditions. The processes of acquiring, using and creating knowledge are closely interconnected and gain meaning when these processes are considered as a whole. Whether or not knowledge has actually been acquired becomes clear only when it is attempted to be applied. In other words, the practical use of theoretical or factual knowledge reveals whether the knowledge has been internalised or not. In addition, putting the acquired knowledge into practice enables the discovery of new knowledge and the development of a deeper understanding (Rein & White, 1981).

Practice knowledge takes the process of knowledge transfer to a more advanced stage and prevents the knowledge from remaining as a passive storage. This type of knowledge provides guidance to social workers on how to use theoretical knowledge effectively in their daily practice. While the process of acquiring knowledge enables the updating of existing knowledge and access to a broader perspective, the knowledge utilisation phase shows how this knowledge can be applied in practice and integrated in real world conditions. This process plays a critical role in transforming theoretical knowledge into practice.

The process of knowledge construction involves the accumulation of experiences and solutions that emerge when dealing with new situations and challenges encountered in practice. Social work practitioners contribute to the generation of new knowledge while managing the complex and variable situations they encounter in their daily professional practice. This enables social workers to continuously endeavour to produce and develop knowledge. For example, when a social worker encounters a situation that he/she has not

encountered before, he/she can develop an intervention strategy based on theoretical knowledge and acquire new knowledge and understanding while applying this strategy in practice. This process continuously enriches the professional experiences and knowledge of the practitioner (Cha et al., 2006).

Practice knowledge is an important tool for social workers to cope with various situations and problems they encounter in their daily practice. While practitioners apply strategies developed based on theoretical knowledge, they also generate new knowledge based on the difficulties and successes they encounter in this process. Therefore, practice-based knowledge enables not only the transfer of existing knowledge to practice, but also the generation of new knowledge in practice and the return of this knowledge to the field of social work.

Practice knowledge enables to see knowledge in the field of social work not only as a concept but also as a tool that forms the basis for effective actions. This process allows social workers to adopt a balanced approach to acquiring, using and creating knowledge and to be open to continuous learning. The ability to practice involves recognising the individual difference and value of people as well as seeing the power in their environment. Social workers should be open to learning from the lives of clients and shared experiences and should utilise these experiences. In this way, while the knowledge base develops, it also contributes to the empowerment of the clients (Fook, 2016).

Social work is a complex discipline that aims to improve the welfare of individuals and communities. Effective practice in this field should be based on up-to-date and accurate information. However, if the acquired knowledge is not effectively transferred to practice, it becomes difficult to assess whether this knowledge is really appropriate and effective. Social workers acquire theoretical, factual and practical knowledge from various sources. Sources such as literature reviews, research, trainings and field experiences provide information for social work practice. This knowledge forms a comprehensive basis for understanding the needs of individuals, intervening in social problems and providing effective support. Transferring acquired knowledge into practice is a vital step in increasing the effectiveness of social work. Unless knowledge is translated into practice, social workers cannot understand how best to help the individuals and communities they serve. Therefore, transferring knowledge into practice is one of the basic principles of social work (Thompson, 2000).

Effective transfer of knowledge to practice involves a series of stages. Firstly, the acquired knowledge should be evaluated to understand how it can be related and applied to everyday practical problems. Then, it should be determined how this knowledge can be integrated into concrete situations and utilised in intervention strategies. Practical experiences and feedbacks have an important role to understand how knowledge works in practice. In some

cases, the effective transfer of knowledge into practice may be hindered. These barriers may include lack of communication, organisational resistance, inadequate resources and a lacking culture of continuous learning. Overcoming these barriers is an important step to strengthen knowledge transfer in social work (Zastrow, 2016).

What the Social Worker Should Know

Social work is a discipline and profession that aims to deal with complex and multifaceted social problems. Accordingly, the knowledge base that social workers should have is eclectic, interdisciplinary, flexible and subjective. The knowledge base of social work brings together theoretical approaches and sources of knowledge from different disciplines. Information from psychology, sociology, law, medicine, education and other disciplines provide social workers with a broad perspective. This eclectic structure makes it possible to develop more effective and multidimensional solutions to complex problems faced by individuals and communities. For example, a social worker can use his/her knowledge of psychology when faced with a situation requiring psychological support and his/her knowledge of law when faced with legal problems. This diversity enables social work to be effective in a wide range of fields (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2014).

Social work is a field that works in cooperation with many disciplines. Social workers work together with psychologists, psychologists, doctors, lawyers, educators and other professionals to provide a holistic approach to clients. This interdisciplinary cooperation increases the capacity of social work to produce multidimensional solutions to social problems. For example, in a case of domestic violence, a social worker may collaborate with other professionals both to provide psychological support and to guide legal processes. In such cases, an interdisciplinary approach enables the needs of clients to be addressed in a more comprehensive manner.

Social work adopts a flexible approach when dealing with different situations faced by individuals and communities. Since each individual and community has unique needs and dynamics, social workers have to develop tailor-made solutions. This flexibility enables services to be individualised and sensitive to the personal needs of clients. For example, a social worker may apply a different intervention plan to a family experiencing economic difficulties, while developing different strategies for an individual with substance abuse problems. The flexible approach enables the development of interventions appropriate to the characteristics of each situation.

Social workers are often faced with complex and diverse problems. These problems may arise at individual, family, social or systemic level. Therefore, social workers should have a wide range of knowledge in order to understand this complexity and produce effective solutions. A social worker has to know

both individual therapy techniques and social policies. This complexity requires social workers to constantly update their knowledge base in order to be successful in providing services to different segments of society (Compton et al., 2005).

The knowledge base of social work is also based on subjective experiences and the individual perspectives of clients. Social workers should take their subjective experiences and values into account when focusing on the emotional and social needs of clients. In this context, the skills of empathy and understanding the individual's world are at the centre of social work practice. A social worker should have the ability to assess the difficulties experienced by clients from their own perspective. For example, when working with a migrant family, understanding their cultural background and the difficulties they experience is critical for an effective intervention. Understanding the subjective experiences of clients enables social workers to build a deeper and more meaningful relationship with them (Rooney et al., 2017).

The knowledge base that social workers should have is broad, multifaceted and constantly evolving. This knowledge base includes a combination of theoretical approaches drawn from different disciplines, flexible strategies that can be adapted to individual situations and understandings based on the subjective experiences of clients. By utilising this knowledge base, social workers are equipped to deal with complex social problems and provide effective support to their clients.

Human Behaviour and Development

Social workers should have a wide range of knowledge about human behaviour in order to understand the emotional, cognitive and social behaviours of individuals. Knowledge of human behaviour and development guides social workers in evaluating the clients and the situation they are in and determining solution options. There are many theories explaining human behaviour. These theories have generally emerged in the fields of psychology, sociology, anthropology and other social sciences. Biological theories try to understand the biological origins of behaviour by emphasising genetic, nervous system and hormonal factors and examine the effects of genetic factors, brain structure and chemistry on behaviour (Hutchison, 2018). Behaviourist theory is an approach that deals with human behaviour as a response to environmental stimuli. This theory argues that individuals' learning processes determine their behaviour and does not focus on internal processes. According to the social learning theory, the behaviours exhibited by individuals are learned under the influence of the social environment. Factors such as observation, imitation and rewarding shape behaviours. Cognitive behavioural theory offers an approach that focuses on cognitive processes to understand and change human behaviour. This theory suggests that thoughts, emotions and behaviours affect each

other and the relationships between these processes are determinant (Zastrow et al., 2019).

The theories explaining human development generally include general principles to understand and explain the changes in the individual's life process. Many theories emphasise that an individual's life includes life periods such as childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age and draw attention to the fact that the individual's development is affected by environmental factors such as family, friends, school and society. Development theories emphasise the importance of childhood and state that the individual gains basic skills and abilities in this period. Family, play, education and friendship relations affect the cognitive, emotional and social development of the child. Adolescence is considered as a stage in which physical, emotional and social changes are intense. Development theories emphasise adolescents' processes of finding identity, gaining independence and setting goals for the future. In adulthood, individuals build their careers, expand their relationship networks and start families. Work life, social connections and personal fulfilment are among the main focal points in adulthood. Old age is often characterised by physical, mental, social and emotional changes and different approaches are used to understand these changes (Zastrow & Kirst-Ashman, 2006).

Sigmund Freud's (1856-1939) theory of psychosexual development is a theory that tries to explain how sexual impulses and experiences affect development in the first six years of an individual's life. Freud argued that the stages of sexual development in childhood shape personality traits and behaviour in adulthood. Freud's theory of psychosexual development includes five main stages. In the oral stage (0-1.5 years), the baby discovers the world through the mouth. Sucking and swallowing actions are important. Parent-child interaction affects the development in this period. The child should develop feelings of trust and commitment at this stage. Anal stage (1.5-3 years) is the period when toilet training is given. The child is exposed to various experiences in the process of gaining bowel control. Conflicts during this period can affect personality traits related to issues of control and order. The phallic stage (3-6 years) is linked to the development of sexual identity. The child explores the genitals and may ask parents questions about sexual attraction. Conflicts experienced during this period affect the child's sexual identity and superego formation. The latent phase (6 years-adolescence) is a period of temporary suppression of sexual impulses. The child focuses on social relations and school life. In this period, children's energy is directed to areas such as friendship relationships and learning activities. The genital stage (adolescence-adulthood) is the peak of sexual maturity. Energy is directed towards sexual relationships and adult responsibilities. During this period the individual should be in the process of developing a healthy sexual life and a mature personality. Freud's theory of psychosexual development was developed to understand how sexual impulses

are shaped in the first years of life. However, this theory has been criticised over time and found to be limited in many aspects. Due to the criticisms, the influence of Freud's theory in modern psychology has decreased and other developmental theories have become more accepted (Santrock, 2012).

Jean Piaget's (1896-1980) theory of cognitive development states that children's understanding of the world is shaped by the development of cognitive structures that emerge at certain stages. Piaget associates cognitive development with the development of mental activities and how environmental interactions and experiences affect the thought processes of the individual and mentions four stages that the individual goes through to understand the world. These stages are ordered according to age and each represents a specific stage of the individual's intellectual abilities. In the sensory-motor period (0-2 years), children use their sensory and motor skills to perceive and understand the world. In the pre-operational period (2-7 years), children begin to think in symbols, but logical thinking is not yet fully developed. The use of language increases and children begin to express the world in symbols. In the concrete operations period (7-11 years), children develop the ability to make logical connections between concrete objects and events. However, abstract thought is not yet fully developed. In the abstract operations period (11 years and later), abstract thought and the use of formal logic develop. Children gain the ability to understand abstract concepts, form hypotheses and perform complex intellectual operations (Piaget, 1970).

Erik Erikson's (1902-1994) theory of psychosocial development focuses on the psychosocial tasks at different stages of the individual's life and how to complete these tasks successfully. Erikson suggests that an individual's personality development consists of eight stages and each stage involves a specific conflict. Each stage is characterised by the acquisition of a certain basic virtue (a basic motive, ability or value). In the stage of basic trust and distrust (0-1 years), the main task is for infants to develop a basic trust in the world and in other people as to whether they can be trusted. Consistency and sensitivity on the part of the caregivers help this phase to proceed in a healthy way. In the autonomy and shyness stage (2-3 years), the child's main task is to gain independence and make his or her own decisions. It is important that parents support and encourage the child's initiatives. In the initiative and guilt stage (3-5 years), children want to explore their environment more and take on a leadership role. Parents' support for these initiatives helps the child to take the initiative. In the achievement and inferiority stage (6-11 years), children develop a desire to learn various skills and compete with others. Achievements in this period help the child to develop a sense of diligence. In the stage of gaining identity and role confusion (12-18 years), the individual enters the process of finding his/her own identity and role. At this stage, an identity crisis may occur and the individual tries to define his/her own values, beliefs and goals. In

the intimacy and isolation stage (19-40 years), the individual entering young adulthood encounters the desire to establish romantic relationships and deep connections. At this stage, if the individual can develop healthy relationships with others, he/she gains a sense of closeness. In the stage of productivity and stability (40-65 years), the individual experiences the desire to contribute to society and care for future generations. Guiding others, starting a family and professional success are important at this stage. In the integrity and hopelessness stage (65 years and later), the individual who enters the aging process evaluates the value and integrity of his/her life. The value of lifelong experiences and relationships are considered. This stage is the key to a healthy old age. Erikson's theory suggests that a healthy personality development and life satisfaction can be achieved with the successful completion of each of these stages in an individual's life (Erikson, 1963).

In addition to the main theories of development, there are many different theories explaining human development. For example; Lev Vygotsky's (1896-1934) social development theory is a theory that argues that the mental development of the individual is shaped by social interactions and culture plays an important role in this process. Vygotsky's theory emphasises that language, culture and social interactions are key to understanding an individual's learning and mental development (Vygotsky, 1980). Abraham Maslow's (1908-1970) hierarchy of needs theory explains human development through five basic levels of needs (physiological, safety, love, respect and self-actualisation). This theory suggests that an individual's needs are organised in a hierarchy and that the satisfaction of needs at a certain level leads to the emergence of needs at the next level (Maslow, 1954). Albert Bandura's (1925-2021) social learning theory argues that individuals learn through interaction with their environment and that this learning can occur not only through personal experience but also through observation, modelling and feedback from others. This theory emphasises the importance of social interactions and environmental factors to explain an individual's behaviour and learning (Bandura, 1977).

Social Processes and Institutions

Human behaviour and development are always shaped within a specific social context and this context plays a major role in the formation of an individual's identity, attitudes and actions. The social work profession includes interventions that aim to improve the well-being of individuals and communities and therefore acts by taking into account social dynamics. One of the professional responsibilities of social workers is to consider human beings as a whole and to reflect this holistic perspective in all their practices. Problems that arise at the individual, group or community level are generally a result of the social environment in which individuals live and the interactions within this environment. Therefore, it is not enough to focus only on the problems of the individual during social work practices; it is also necessary to address the

environmental factors that cause the emergence of these problems (Bronfenbrenner, 1979).

Ensuring the desired changes in the individual and making these changes permanent becomes possible by reorganising the environment. For example, focusing only on the individual's own internal resources without improving the economic situation of an individual living in poverty or increasing social support may not produce a sustainable solution. In this context, social workers' focus on environmental interactions enables them not only to understand the inner world of the individual, but also to examine in depth the individual's relationships with family, community, institutions and broader social systems. This perspective contributes to social change processes by making social work interventions more inclusive and effective (Gitterman & Germain, 2008). Social workers should be in constant interaction with social systems in order to understand the effects of social processes and institutions on individuals and to develop solutions for these effects. Institutions, social norms and social processes are the elements that shape and direct the behaviours of individuals. Therefore, social work interventions should focus not only on the individual but also on institutions and social structures. Eliminating injustices in society, reducing inequalities and increasing social welfare become possible when social workers adopt this broad perspective. The importance of the social context, which is a vital part of the situations that social workers encounter and are expected to react to, can be listed as follows (Thompson, 2000):

- Most of the problems encountered are basically social in origin.

- Social problems are socially constructed.

- Potential solutions are often at the level of the community and society rather than the individual.

- Responding to problems of interest to social work often requires the use of a wide range of social resources.

- Personal and psychological factors do not occur in a vacuum.

- The involvement of a social worker in any situation can have social consequences.

- Social work intervention may result in exacerbation of social inequalities.

- The social policies that govern social work interventions are influenced by the social, political and economic conditions of the time.

It is critical for social workers to understand the social structure in which they practice in order to make effective interventions. Understanding the social structure means developing more holistic and effective interventions by evaluating the social environment, family dynamics and social factors in which

individuals live. For this reason, social workers should have the basic sociological knowledge necessary to understand how society functions in terms of social processes and social institutions. In this context, the importance of factors affecting social change such as social divisions, power distribution, ideology, law and order, and social institutions should be understood (Healy, 2014).

An organisational framework is also needed while carrying out social service activities. Monitoring and controlling the effectiveness of social service practices and supporting social service interventions cannot be carried out without an organisational structure. The organisational structure supports the processes of social workers in setting goals, creating programmes and managing resources effectively, ensuring that social service activities serve specific purposes. Carrying out social service activities within an organisational framework contributes to the follow-up of ethical rules and legal regulations and increases the reliability of services (Weinbach, 1998).

Interpersonal Relations and Group Dynamics

Interpersonal relationships are defined as social ties and interactions between two or more people, which involve different degrees of closeness and sharing. In social work practices, these relationships are of fundamental importance due to the social nature of human beings. The fact that human being as a social being should be handled as a whole with his/her environment and relationships is a critical element that should be taken into consideration in the interventions of social workers. The individual is constantly redefined within the relationships he/she establishes with others in order to realise himself/herself and give meaning to his/her life. In this process, the individual both affects and is affected by his/her environment; he/she maintains his/her existence and meets his/her basic needs through the interpersonal relationships he/she develops (Hargie & Dickson, 2004).

At the centre of interpersonal relationships is the concept of need. Human behaviours generally occur in order to meet these needs. For example, the need for status and control directs the individual's efforts to gain power in the social environment, while the need for love and emotional closeness encourages the individual to establish strong bonds with others. These needs shape people's motivation to form relationships with others. However, not only needs but also subjective factors such as the individual's personal history, personality structure and life experiences play an important role in the development of interpersonal relationships. In particular, relationships within the family, where the individual acquires his/her first life experiences and where the foundations of personality are laid, have a decisive effect on the shaping of later interpersonal relationships. These early relationships established within the family greatly affect the quality of the ties that the individual will establish with other people in his/her social life (Argyle, 1994).

Interpersonal relationships are generally classified under two main categories: intimate and superficial relationships. While intimate relationships are those in which deep emotional bonds are established and there is a high degree of sharing, superficial relationships are those that involve less emotional closeness and sharing. This categorisation provides a framework in which individuals' interactions with each other and their degree of emotional closeness are decisive. As a result, there is a dynamic in interpersonal relationships in which needs, motivation, personal history and personality structure are effective, and these dynamics are important elements that should be taken into account in social work interventions (Miller et al., 2007).

The problems faced by social workers in their fields of activity are generally based on the interactions between individuals. These interactions may occur between individuals, in groups or at the organisational level. The professional role of social workers is to understand and evaluate these interactions and identify the factors affecting them. The complexity and dynamics of relationships between individuals should be taken into account by the social worker when shaping intervention strategies. Important factors that require awareness in understanding interpersonal interactions are as follows (Thompson, 2000):

• **Communication:** Communication is defined as sharing thoughts, feelings, attitudes and ideas through the exchange of verbal and non-verbal symbols. Communication, in the shortest and broadest sense, is the act of sharing any information. Sharing emotions, thoughts, information by using symbols that the target will understand and ensuring mutual influence is the basic requirement of communication. In order for an effective and healthy communication to take place, the message must be understandable for both the source and the target. Communication involves the exchange of emotions as well as the exchange of ideas. Communication is an interactive cycle of coding, sending, receiving, processing and decoding verbal and non-verbal symbols that have no clear meaning. If the message we send is decoded in the sense we coded it, we realise ideal communication. Therefore, social workers should be aware of communication patterns and communication styles in interpersonal relationships.

• **Power:** It is defined as the ability to reach and control resources and people. Power can be analysed in three main categories. The first is individual power, which refers to the potential or ability of the individual to achieve the desired results. The second is hierarchical or authoritarian social power, which is closely related to inequality and dominance in relationships. The third is egalitarian social power, in which people come together as equal partners and valuing and respecting others is at the forefront in relationships (Erbay, 2019). Power relations are often reflected in interpersonal interactions and are reinforced or challenged by these interactions. Social workers should be aware of power in interpersonal relationships.

- **Context:** It is important to know the context in which interpersonal interactions take place. Because the context not only determines the interaction process but also affects the results. Every communication and interaction emerges and develops in a social context. For an in-depth understanding of interaction processes, it is necessary to know the role of contexts. For example, interactions at work may have different dynamics, while communication processes within the family may develop in a completely different context. It is also critical to understand how the context of interaction may change within a particular community or culture. Cultural norms, values and expectations can influence the tone and content of communication. Understanding how these contexts shape the relationships between individuals is important for social workers.

Group dynamics is a concept that refers to the effects and reactions of changes in any part of a group on group members and on the structure of the group in general. This definition is used to understand dynamic processes, relationships and interactions within the group. The main subject of the concept of group dynamics, which is based on the study of 'forces' within the group, is the effect of groups on individuals. The events that take place within the group, and especially the changes that occur due to environmental influences, affect the group structure, its members and the relationships between members in various ways. Dynamics within the group include the interactions of group members with each other, leadership structures, communication processes and efforts towards group goals. These dynamics reflect the efforts to achieve and maintain balance within the group (Forsyth, 2018).

Social Work Intervention Process

In social work practices, multiple and holistic interventions are required in order to strengthen the social functionality of the individual and to raise the standard of living. These interventions consist of various stages in a planned process based on the generalist social work approach. In social work practices, there are predetermined intervention stages to provide systematic guidance to the social worker in every field where problems are addressed by using methods of working with individuals, groups or society. Social work intervention, which includes social examination and planned change process, consists of seven successive stages (Sheafor & Horejsi, 2014).

In the introduction and connection stage of social work intervention, the social worker briefly gets to know the applicant after introducing himself/herself and his/her organisation, and then the purpose, roles and responsibilities are clearly and understandably expressed in order to structure the interview (Kadushin & Kadushin, 1997). Ethical confidentiality rules are explained and the client is informed that what they say cannot be kept in complete confidentiality. In social work practice, before establishing contact with the applicant,

it is necessary to obtain basic information about the applicant by making a preliminary assessment on the file. In the preliminary assessment process, information is collected and analysed in order to understand the situation of the applicant and to make a plan to take action. In order for the preliminary assessment to be multi-dimensional, it should be based on a large number of data sources reflecting different perspectives. In the planning phase, an intervention plan is prepared in line with the problems and needs of the applicant and reviewed by the applicant. The intervention plan should not be made without the approval of the applicant and without a joint decision with the applicant. In planning, the applicant's past and current situation should be taken into consideration. The intervention phase is the process of putting into practice the planning made with the applicant in line with the data obtained in the pre-assessment phase. The most basic intervention method is to conduct structured interviews with the applicant. A connection between the applicant and the resources should also be established with the interviews. Social service intervention is terminated when it reaches a natural end and there is a significant improvement or when the applicant does not want to participate in the work despite all kinds of persuasion efforts and no alternative remedy can be produced. Upon termination, progress is evaluated, follow-up is planned and the referral process, if any, is followed. As a result of the social service intervention, the applicant is expected to return to a normal lifestyle independently. Even if the social work intervention is terminated, the client should know that they can reach the social worker when necessary (Mattaini et al., 1998).

Intervention Methods of Social Work

As a profession of solidarity and assistance, social work serves people by using scientific principles, methods and techniques to enhance the well-being, quality of life and social functioning of individuals. (Compton et al., 2005). The social worker, who performs micro, mezzo and macro level applications based on eclectic knowledge, benefits from methods specific to the social work profession. Method is defined as the way, method, procedure, procedure or system followed to reach a goal. In other words, the method is the tool that helps the social worker to know what to do in order to initiate the change process when the social worker encounters the client. In order to fulfil his/her roles and responsibilities in a functional way, the social worker should correctly determine what, when and how to do. Within the scope of generalist social work practices, the social worker, who fulfils his/her roles and responsibilities within the framework determined by the laws, benefits from the methods of social work working with the individual, group and society. Since the social and physical environment in which the individual lives is inextricably linked, the social worker works on both problematic systems, other systems in their environment, and the interactions between these systems (Miley et al., 2016). The methods used in social work practices are as follows:

Social Work with the Individuals

Social work intervention with individuals, based on Mary E. Richmond's book 'Social Diagnosis' published in 1917, is basically a method of helping individuals (Richmond, 1917). In general, the focus of social work intervention with individuals is on people who have physical or mental needs or who are socially disadvantaged. Socially disadvantaged people may include the unemployed, the homeless, members of broken families, alcoholics, substance abusers and children who have been abused or dragged into crime. Social work with individuals is defined as 'a planned social work intervention method in which knowledge and skills related to human behaviour and social systems are used in order to increase the social functionality of the individual, solve their problems, and meet their psycho-social and economic needs' (Kirst-Ashman & Hull Jr., 2008).

Social work intervention with individuals also aims to increase the individual's self-confidence, strengthen his/her relations with his/her environment and ensure more active participation in social life. In this process, social workers make a comprehensive assessment to understand the difficulties experienced by the individual and create an intervention plan specific to the individual as a result of this assessment. This intervention plan aims to support the individual's strengths, to produce solutions for current problems and to ensure that the individual is prepared for the difficulties he/she may face in the future. The social worker encourages the individual to benefit from social support systems and directs the individual to the resources and services he/she needs when necessary. This comprehensive approach aims to both improve the well-being of the individual and to achieve a more sustainable quality of life in the long term (O'Loughlin & O'Loughlin, 2008).

Social Work with Groups

Group work is defined as 'a professional helping process carried out by a social worker experienced in this field, aiming to strengthen interpersonal relationships, focusing on the thoughts, feelings, values and attitudes of the members, and trying to ensure that the behavioural goal of each member is achieved' (Northen & Kurland, 2001). Group work is one of the basic psychosocial intervention methods of social work. Social workers working in institutions such as penal institutions or probation, where rehabilitation and rehabilitation programmes are implemented, benefit from group work as a professional who plans and implements psychosocial intervention services. Group work in social work practice is a useful method that strengthens mutual assistance within a group of individuals with common characteristics, qualities or experiences. The main source of change in group social work is the group itself. The fact that individuals involved in group work receive feedback on their attitudes and behaviours through mutual interaction between them makes them feel the need to take action for change (Toseland & Rivas, 2016).

Community Social Work

The community is the environment of the applicants, social workers and the organisation in which they work. Working with the community is defined as 'a series of approaches that focus on understanding individuals as part of a community and increasing the capacity of this community to address the social, economic or political challenges faced by its members.' Working with the community includes macro-level interventions in the social work literature, in other words, it includes social policy-oriented studies. It includes activities such as public awareness raising, social policy development, advocacy for rights, advocacy for legal regulations, and activities related to the reorganisation of the social service system for a specific need group, a community under pressure or a social problem(Brueggemann, 2013).

Working with the community also includes community-based organisation and participation processes. In this approach, social workers develop strategies to increase the capacity of the community to identify their own problems and develop solutions to these problems. In community-based work, it is essential to cooperate with local leaders, encourage the active participation of community members and ensure fair distribution of resources. In this process, the empowerment approach is prioritised and the ability of community members to solve their own problems and self-determination is supported. Social workers work in cooperation with public institutions, non-governmental organisations and other stakeholders in order to accelerate social change processes and produce sustainable solutions. In this way, it is aimed to eliminate social injustices, reduce inequalities and realise the structural changes necessary for communities to stand on their own feet (Tice et al., 2019).

REFERENCES

Argyle, M. (1994). *The psychology of interpersonal behaviour*. Penguin Books.

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory*. Prentice Hall.

Blackburn, S. (2016). *The Oxford dictionary of philosophy*. Oxford University Press.

Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Harvard University Press.

Brueggemann, W. G. (2013). *The practice of macro social work*. Cengage Learning.

Cha, T., Kuo, E., & Marsh, J. (2006). Useful knowledge for social work practice. *Social Work and Society*, *4*(1), 111–121.

Compton, B. R., Galaway, B., & Cournoyer, B. (2005). *Social work processes*. Brooks/Cole.

Connolly, M., Harms, L., & Maidment, J. (2017). *Social work: Contexts and practice*. Oxford University Press.

Erikson, E. H. (1963). *Childhood and society* (2nd ed.). Norton.

Fook, J. (2016). *Social work: A critical approach to practice*. SAGE Publications.

Forsyth, D. R. (2018). *Group dynamics*. Cengage Learning.

Gitterman, A., & Germain, C. B. (2008). *The life model of social work practice: Advances in theory and practice*. Columbia University Press.

Gray, M., Coates, J., & Yellow Bird, M. (2008). *Indigenous social work around the world: Towards culturally relevant education and practice*. Ashgate Publishing.

Hargie, O., & Dickson, D. (2004). *Skilled interpersonal communication: Research, theory, and practice*. Psychology Press.

Healy, K. (2014). *Social work theories in context: Creating frameworks for practice*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Hutchison, E. D. (2018). *Dimensions of human behavior: Person and environment*. SAGE Publications.

Kadushin, A., & Kadushin, G. (1997). *The social work interview* (4th ed.). Columbia University Press.

Kirst-Ashman, K., & Hull Jr., G. H. (2008). *Understanding generalist practice*. Cengage Learning.

Klausen, S. H., & Petersen, E. N. (2021). What is theoretical knowledge? *Theoria*, *87*(3), 559–577. https://doi.org/10.1111/theo.12292

Mapp, S., McPherson, J., Androff, D., & Gatenio Gabel, S. (2019). Social work is a human rights profession. *Social Work*, *64*(3), 259–269. https://doi.org/10.1093/sw/swz023

Maslow, A. H. (1954). *Motivation and personality*. Harper & Row.

Mattaini, M. A., Lowery, C. T., & Meyer, C. H. (1998). *The foundations of social work*

practice: A graduate text. NASW Press.

Miley, K. K., O'Melia, M. W., & DuBois, B. L. (2016). *Generalist social work practice: An empowering approach*. Pearson Education.

Miller, R. S., Perlman, D., & Brehm, S. S. (2007). *Intimate relationships*. McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Murdock, N. L. (2013). *Theories of counseling and psychotherapy: A case approach*. Pearson.

Northen, H., & Kurland, R. (2001). *Social work with groups*. Columbia University Press.

O'Loughlin, M., & O'Loughlin, S. (2008). *Social work with children and families*. SAGE.

Payne, M. (1991). *Modern social work theory: A critical introduction*. Lyceum Books.

Piaget, J. (1970). *Science of education and the psychology of the child*. Orion Press.

Pincus, A., & Minahan, A. (1973). *Social work practice: Model and method*. F. E. Peacock.

Rein, M., & White, S. H. (1981). Knowledge for practice. *Social Service Review*, *55*(1), 1–41. https://doi.org/10.1086/643889

Richmond, M. E. (1917). *Social diagnosis*. Russell Sage Foundation.

Rogers, M., Whitaker, D., Edmondson, D., & Peach, D. (2020). *Developing skills and knowledge for social work practice*. SAGE.

Rooney, G., Rooney, R., Hepworth, D., & Strom-Gottfried, K. (2017). *Direct social work practice: Theory and skills* (10th ed.). Cengage Learning.

Santrock, J. (2012). *Life-span development* (14th ed.). McGraw-Hill Higher Education.

Sharf, R. S. (2004). *Theories of psychotherapy & counseling: Concepts and cases*. Thomson/Brooks/Cole.

Sheafor, B. W., & Horejsi, C. R. (2014). *Techniques and guidelines for social work practice*. Pearson Education.

Teater, B. (2019). *An introduction to applying social work theories and methods* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill Education (UK).

Thompson, N. (2000). *Understanding social work: Preparing for practice*. Macmillan Press.

Tice, C. J., Long, D. D., & Cox, L. E. (2019). *Macro social work practice: Advocacy in action*. SAGE Publications.

Toseland, R. W., & Rivas, R. F. (2016). *An introduction to group work practice*. Pearson Education.

Trevithick, P. (2008). Revisiting the knowledge base of social work: A framework for practice. *The British Journal of Social Work*, *38*(6), 1212–1237. https://doi.org/10.1093/bjsw/bcm026

Trevithick, P. (2011). *Social work skills and knowledge: A practice handbook*. Mc-

Graw-Hill Education (UK).

Vygotsky, L. S. (1980). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Harvard University Press.

Weinbach, R. W. (1998). *The social worker as manager: A practical guide to success.* Allyn & Bacon.

Zastrow, C. (2016). *Introduction to social work and social welfare: Empowering people.* Cengage Learning.

Zastrow, C., & Kirst-Ashman, K. (2006). *Understanding human behavior and the social environment.* Cengage Learning.

Zastrow, C., Kirst-Ashman, K. K., & Hessenauer, S. L. (2019). *Understanding human behavior and the social environment.* Cengage Learning.
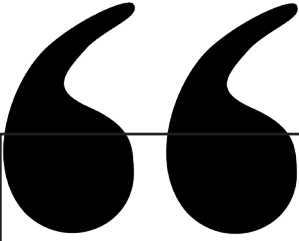
Chapter 6

SOME GEOGRAPHICAL DETERMINATIONS ON THE NATURAL LAKES IN THE WEST PART OF TURKEY[1]

Ali Ergin GÜMÜŞ[2]

Introduction

There are hundreds of natural lakes of every size in Turkey covering an area of 9500 km² in total but not equally distributed on the geographical territory throughout the country. Likewise, there exist no natural lakes in Southeastern Anatolia Region and in a major part of Karadeniz (Blacksea) and Aegean Regions whereas there are lakes more in Number and covering larger areas in southern part of Marmara Region, Lakes Region of the Mediterranean Region and the Inner and East Anatolia.

This study namely comprises 27 natural lakes and their near surroundings geographically located in the west part of the north-to-south line (32° longitude) between Zonguldak and Alanya aiming to cover the Lakes Region and Southern Marmara standing remarkable as the areas where lakes are grouped together. Comparing these independent lands on general geographical principles, the similarities and differences of these lakes, anthropological activities and various problems have been meant to be explained with an analytic point of view aided by graphs and tables drown (Fig.-1).
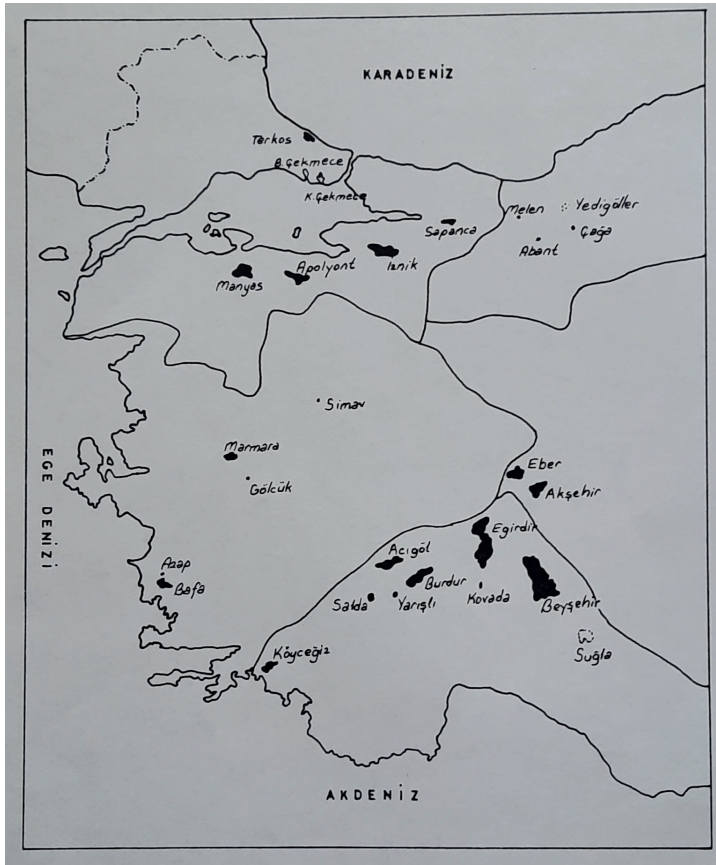

Fig.-1: Locations of the study areas

The first remarkable finding we have obtained on the lakes in the western part of Turkey is that the shallow lakes are rapidly drying and subject to a loss of area Drying process is most often realized by deepening the bed of the river pertaining to the emissary of the lake or preventing the lake from being fed by a single or a few rivers of the lake by the help of artificial flow channels. As a matter of fact, Simav, Suğla and Melen, a few of the lakes under examination, have lost a considerable area and been converted into temporary shallow swamps. On the other hand, apart from drying activities, Manyas and Marmara lakes are repeatedly being subject to loss of large areas during summer months due to excessive amount of water drawn for watering purposes. As for Apolyont (Uluabat) Lake, it is subject to area loss by being fillet with plenty of alluvion brought by Mustafa Kemal Paşa creek other than human originated effects. Loss of area encountered by the lakes due to any reason or whatsoever certainly brings along other problems. Disturbance of lacustral ecosystems cause total destruction of faunas and floras consequently resulting with massive decreases in the number of living organisms. Furthermore, the disputes and conflicts on right of possession and limits arising on some of the agricultural lands obtained after drying constitutes another problem encountered.

Additionally, the statistical data concerning our lakes such as depth, area and altitude are unfortunately quite old and unreliable, likewise such numeric values differ a great deal in various publications. For example, the depth figure given for Burdur Lake Differs between 50 and 110 m. for different publications or some other lakes are referred as "deep" or "slightly deep". Therefore, there is a requirement for preparation of precise and correct batimetric maps of all of our lakes. Furthermore, it is certainly another necessity that the small or medium scaled geographical maps to be prepared should incorporate actual areas of our lakes. For example, Simav, Melen, and Amik lakes are shown with a magnitude reflecting their previous area on the very recent maps (Table: 1).

Table-1: Area[1], depth and altitute of the lakes studied

Name	Area(km2)	Depth(m.)	Altitude(m.)
Beyşehir	656	10	1121
Eğirdir	468	13,5	916
Akşehir	353	7	958
İznik	298	65	85
Burdur	200	110	857
Manyas	166	4	15
Acıgöl	153	38	836
Apolyont(Uluabat)	134	7	0
Eber	126	3	967
Bafa	60	45	5
Köyceğiz	52	35	8
Sapanca	47	5	32
Salda	43	184	1139
Marmara	34	3	71
Durusu(Terkos)	25	11	11
Küçük Çekmece	16	20	0
Yarışlı	14	4	915
Büyük Çekmece	11	4	0
Suğla (1991)	9	2	1090
Kovada	8,5	6	908
Çağa(Reşadiye)	2,7	10	989
Abant	1,28	17	1328
Simav(1991)	1,1	1	780
Melen(Eften)(1991)	1	3	118
Azap	0,9	1	5
Gölcük(İzmir)	0,86	5	1049

Pollution is the very common problem in most of the lakes in the western part of Turkey, particularly Küçük Çekmece and Apolyont lakes in Marmara Region have encountered over-contamination. Though not to the same extent, nearly all of the lakes considered are under potential thread of pollution. Pollution is certainly directly related with population, excessive industrial activities and contamination of the lakes by the agricultural medicines used in the surrounding agricultural lands. The lakes are either directly polluted by the contaminants given or indirectly by the substances carried by the feeding rivers where the living organisms are negatively affected by heavy metals and pes-

---

1 Particularly the area covered by the shallow lakes very significantly throughout the year. The accepted value is the largest area covered by that lake during the year.

ticides. The suspended materials particularly settle down in these still waters thereby causing the lakes to become filled with harmful substances. The organic substances penetrating the lake cause reduction of oxygen consequently bringing the lake in an anaerobic condition thereby increasing the reproduction of nitrogenous and phosphated wastes and particularly algae. All living things in the water and the people supplying water from the lake are affected from this chemical event called eutrophication.

Another problem encountered besides pollution and contamination in the lakes examined is the "crawfish plague". Crawfish (Astacus leptodactylus) had been one of the most important inner water products of Turkey between 1970-1985 and a large quantity of 8000 tonnes of crawfish population undergone a rapid destruction after that date. Although the fungus type causing crawfish types. European types are not resistant to this fungi type. The first occurrence of disease in Europe was encountered in İtaly in 1860 and then rapidly spread becoming negatively effective in all fresh waters of Europe. As for Turkey Işıklı Lake was the first place where the disease was seen followed by Eğirdir, Beyşehir, Akşehir and Marmara lakes and then Apolyont, İznik, Manyas, Sapanca in the north and some other small lakes.

The water products obtained from our lakes have decreased at large quantities due to negative effects of both pollution and crawfish plague. In consequence of this negative development several fishing co-operatives founded around the lakes have been closed or have remained idle thus making it unavoidable for most people dealing with fishing and products to direct their economic efforts to other fields.

Another problem encountered around the lakes in Turkey is the over-flow risk of the lake water. As matter of fact, the land surrounding Akşehir, Eber, Suğla, Acıgöl, Burdur, Yarışlı, Manyas, Apolyont and Marmara lakes face the risk of flood every year due to yearly expansion and otherwise in the areas of the same. The lakes examined reveal the fact that the most risky season for over-flow of the lake water is spring.

The total area covered by 27 lakes, subjects of the study, and their near surrounding is 18 751 square kilometers[2] 2 882 km^2 of which is the actual area of the lakes. In the remaining 15,869 square kilometers area, the population density is 105.2 people per square kilometer. However, considering that Küçük Çekmece and Büyük Çekmece lakes are quite proximal to the center of İstanbul and bear a concentrated population around themselves exclusion of these lakes decrease the number of people per km^2 to 68,3 which is a more realistic figure for the population living around the lakes in Turkey (Fig.: 2,3).

2 The borders of water section are kept unchanging to the extent that determination of the outmost limits of the near surroundings of the studied lakes is possible. However, for some lands where the water collection basins are considerably large, the area to be examined is partially narrowed considering the geographical effective area of the lake.
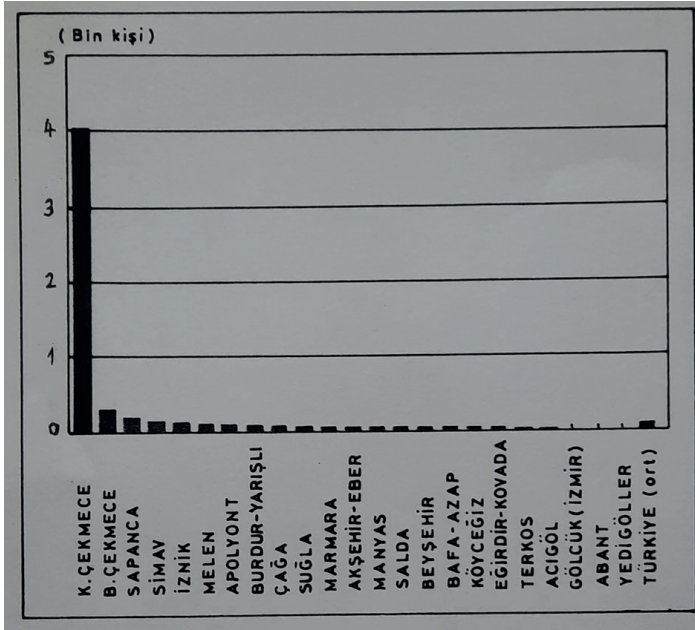
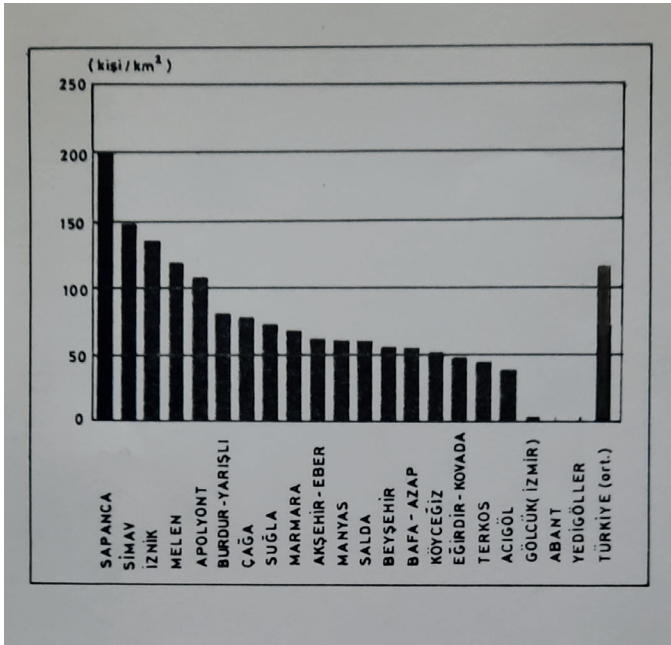Fig.-2: Population Density around the lakes studies

Fig.-3: Population density around the lakes sturdies (excluding Büyük Çekmece and Küçük Çekmece lakes)

As it can clearly be seen on the graphs, although all of the lakes under study are in the west part of Turkey where population is more concentrated, they bear values under the average of Turkey with respect to the population concentration in the surrounding (111 people-2024 January). Therefore, the areas surrounding the lakes are not attractive settlement places regarding population in in the western part of Turkey.

Furthermore, there exist no city centers around around lake studied and the settlement onits we may call as "shore towns" and of over a population of 20 000 people (Küçük Çekmece, Büyük Çekmece, Beyşehir, Sapanca, İznik-Köyceğiz and Eğridir) do not exceed that of a few numbers. Likewise, an evaluation of ours made excluding Çekmece lakes, reveals that the town population around the lakes does not to beyond 38% which is quite lower than Turkey's average[3] (93%-2024 January).

Despite the fact that the surrounding parts of lakes have come out to be under-populated zones today, they have born a significant portion of the population during historical eras, even before the same. Köyceğiz Lake with Caunos ruins beside, Bafa Lake surrounded by the ruins of Heracleia town, Marmara Lake near the renowned town Sardes, Suğla Lake with Suberde tumulus and Apolyont Lake shall be given as the first examples supporting this historical reality.

On the other land, we can not say that the tourism potential hold by our lakes are not utilized to full extent. Excluding Köyceğiz and Manyas (Bird Lake) lakes, it seems impossible to show other lakes frequented by the tourists. As for domestic tourism activities, the pattern is nearly the same only differing for Köyceğiz, Manyas, Sapanca, Abant and Yedigöller lakey which are visited not often but form time to time while the others bear no significance.

Utilization of the lands is concentrated on agricultural activities (fig.-4). The agricultural fields around the lakes covers about 43% of the while which is higher than the country's average figure (33,6%). Certainly, this originates from the proximity of the studied lands to the lakes, A major part of the agricultural fields (83%) is formed of cultivated lands namely consisting of grains. The irrigated lands are less in area compared to the lands treated on dry agriculture principles. Wheat, as in Turkey's whole, is the main culture plant crown around the lakes. Cotton sugar-beet, tobacco or potato are other culture plants grown no various places differing according to regional climatic conditions. As for the planted lands garden agriculture comes out to be the landing activity. While mixed fruit kinds are grown in gardens of Marmara, Aegean and West Blacksea regions, the Lakes Region may be characterized by apple and almond.

---

3 20 000 has been incorporated as a discriminative criterion in determining rural-town population.
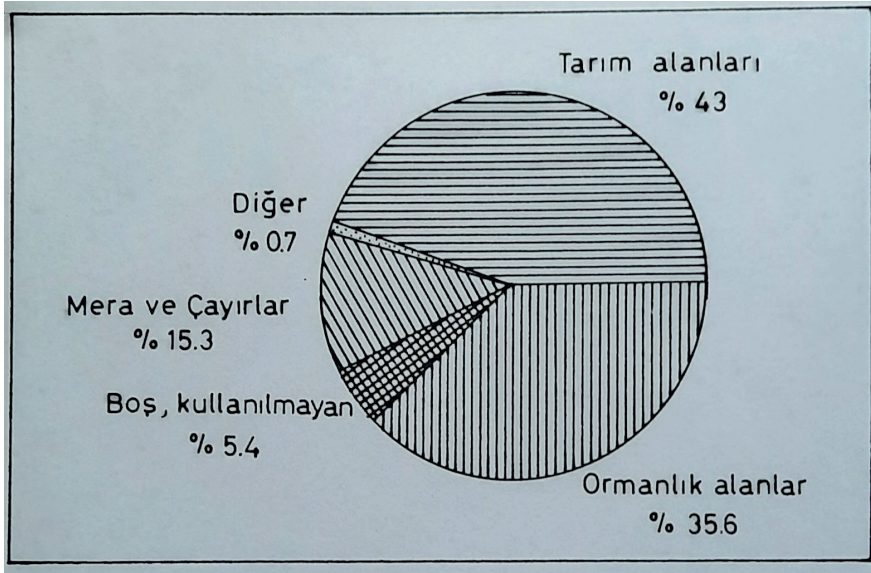
Fig.-4: Percentage of land-use forms in the study area to the total land.

Forest lands also cover a wide area besides the agricultural fields on the studied zones. In spite of the fact that roughly ¼ of Turkey's territory is covered by forests, the studied by forests only at a 35,6% and pastures-meadows at 15,3%. The percentage of pastures are under Turkey's average (24'6%).

The lands not utilized or not yielding products, generally consist of swamps-sandy fields and the rocky, stoned parts at higher levels. Which constitute 5,4% in general.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the lakes in all of Marmara and Aegean regions in the west part of Turkey, Antalya in Mediterranean Region, Bolu in west Blacksea Region and Konya in Inner Anatolia Region encounter quite serious problems today. The most important of which is the pollution and contamination of lakes thereby causing excessive decreases in the populations of water products, fungi disease seen in crawfish type and considerable loss of land by drying up process through humanly effects pointing out significant threat.

On the other hand, it has been clearly observed that our people can not obtain enough efficiency over the potential of the mentioned water resources, but are making their living mostly on agricultural activities. It is undeniable fact that an extremely advantageous situation might be created by providing the people suffering from the fruitlessness of the lakes with most utilization by way of proper arrangements, organizations and investments. Such efforts also bear a vital significance, and importance is cover our country's deficiency of water products in near future.

References

Ardel, A. (1951). Türkiye'nin Bazı Göllerinde Seviye Tahavvülleri. *Tedrisat Mecmuası*, No:6

Ardel, A. (1951). Göller Bölgesinde Morfolojik Müşahedeler I. *I.U. Coğ.Enst.Der,* Vol:1, No:2

Ardel, A. (1951). Göller Bölgesinde Morfolojik Müşahedeler II. (Burdur depresyonu Çevresi), *I.U. Coğ.Enst.Der,* Vol:2, No:3-4

Ardel, A. (1959). İzmit Körfezinden İznik Gölüne. *I.U. Coğ.Enst.Der,* Vol:2, No:10

Ardel, A. & Kurter, A. (1973). Marmara Denizi (Fiziki Etüd). *I.U. Coğ.Enst.Der,* Vol:10, No:18-19

Ardos, M. (1977). Eğirdir Gölü Güneyinin Jeomorfolojisi ve Davraz Dağında Pleistosen Buzullaşması. *I.U. Coğ.Enst.Der,* No:22 ,

Atalay, İ. (1977). Sultan Dağları ile Akşehir ve Eber Gölleri Havzalarının Strüktüral, Jeomorfolojik ve Toprak Erozyonu Etüdü. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Yayını,* No:500, Ed.Fak. No:91

Biricik A.S. (1982). Beyşehir Gölü Havzasının Jeomorfolojik Etüdü. *İstanbul Üniversitesi Yayını*, No: 2867, Coğ.Enst. No:119

Demir, A. (1963). Türkiye İçsularından Faydalanma. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Yayını*, No: 151

Erinç, S. (1949). Sapanca Gölünün Derinlik Haritası ve Morfometrisi. *Türk Coğ.Dergisi*, No:11-12

Erinç, S. & Bilgin, T. & Mener, M. (1961). Çağa Depresyonu ve Boğazı. *I.U. Coğ.Enst. Der,* No:12

Erinç, S. & Bilgin, T. & Mener, M. (1961). Abant Gölünün Menşei Hakkında. *I.U. Coğ. Enst.Der,* No:16

Hoşgören, Y. (1979). *Hidrografyanın Ana Çizgileri-I.* İstanbul: İst.Üniv.Yayınevi, No: 2619

Hoşgören, Y. (1994). Türkiye'nin Gölleri. *Türk Coğrafya Dergisi,* No:29, (19-51)

İnandık, H. (1960). *Akarsular ve Göller.* İstanbul: İst.Üniv.Yayınevi, No: 879

İnandık, H. (1965). *Akarsular ve Göller (Morfolojik ve Hidrolojik Özellikler).* İstanbul: İst.Üniv.Yayınevi, No: 1155

Karakoyun, S. (1991). Egirdir Gölü Ekolojisi ve Ekonomik Su Ürünlerinin İncelenmesi. *Debcag/51,* Su Ürünleri Araş.Enst,

Koswig, C. (1954). Türkiye Tatlısu Balıklarının Zoocoğrafyası. *Hidrobioloji Dergisi*, Vol: 2, No:1

Lahn, E. (1948). Türkiye Göllerinin Jeolojisi ve Jeomorfolojisi Hakkında Bir Etüd. *MTA Enst. Dergisi,* Series: B, No:12

Soylu, E. (1991). Türkiye'de Kerevit (Astacus Leptodactylus Esch) Stoklarını Yok Eden

Hastalık Kerevit Vebası (Crayfish Plague). *Anadolu Üniv. Fen Edeb. Fak. Dergisi*, No:11

Sugur, K.A. (1978). *Burdur, Acıgöl Depresyonları ve Tefenni Ovasının Fiziki Coğrafyası.* İ.Ü.Yayınları, No: 2397

Tuncel, M. (1975). *Göllerimiz.* İstanbul: Redhouse Yayınevi,

Woltereck, R. (1934). *Türkiye Göllerinde Araştırma. (*Dr.Mithat, Çev.Ed.), Ankara: Yüksek Ziraat Enst. Yayını, Book: 3
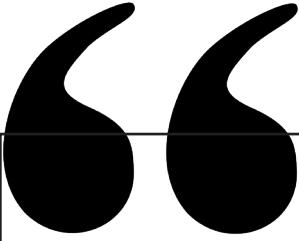
Chapter 7

WOMEN'S COOPERATIVES IN THE LIGHT OF TECHNOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENTS: AN EVALUATION ON TURKEY

Fatma Feyza GÜNDÜZ[1]
Selim GÜNDÜZ[2]

1 Associate Professor, Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, ORCID ID: 0000-0001-7603-6817
2 Associate Professor, Adana Alparslan Türkeş Science and Technology University, ORCID ID: 0000-0001-5289-6089

Introduction

The economic development or growth of countries is attributed to entrepreneurs creating new businesses, providing people with various products and services, intensifying competition, increasing productivity through technological change and positively affecting individual lives at many levels (Amorös, et al., 2014). Cooperatives, which are the most important initiatives of the registered economy in the world and in Turkey, have played a very important role in the social and economic development of all countries and in making this sustainable since the mid-nineteenth century. The cooperative movement, which was included in the Portuguese Constitution of 1976 as a third sector, has been defined as the third sector, along with the public and private sectors, by many sociologists and economists in recent years (Mülâyim, 2013).

Cooperatives are founded on values and principles determined globally by the international Cooperative Alliance. The core values of cooperatives have been determined as assistance, responsibility, democracy, equality, justice, honesty and solidarity. Cooperatives are based on a unique model that improves social development and have features such as joint ownership by members, service to members and democratic management by members. Cooperatives are operated based on the principles of voluntary and open partnership; democratic control of members, economic participation of members, autonomy and independence; education, training and information; cooperation between cooperatives and responsibility to society (ICA, 2022).

The first cooperative movements were seen in England and France in 1750, but the foundations of the cooperative movement were laid in the early 19th century by Robert Owen and William King in England and Charles Fourier in France. While Owen and King are considered the pioneers of consumer cooperatives in the world, Fourier is considered the pioneer of production cooperatives (Zeuli and Cropp, 2004). The Rochdale pioneers, founded in England in 1844, is considered the first modern cooperative in the world. The success of the Rochdale Pioneers led to the establishment of nearly 100 consumer cooperatives in England between 1844 and 1849 (Mülâyim, 2013).

The cooperative movement, which continued to spread throughout the world, led to the establishment of the International Co-operative Alliance (ICA) in London, England in 1895 by representatives from 13 member countries. The aim of the alliance is to ensure the exchange of information among members, to define and defend the principles of cooperatives, and to develop world trade. The alliance is the only international organization that survived the First and Second World Wars (ICA, 2016).

Although the history of cooperatives in our country dates back to the Ottoman Period, important developments began with the enactment of the "Cooperatives Law" numbered 1163. In our country, cooperatives are gener-

ally grouped according to their field of activity. While production, consumption, housing, supply-distribution and development cooperatives were predominant in the beginning, it is observed that sector-based cooperatives have been established recently. In terms of sectors, in addition to agricultural sales cooperatives, new types of cooperatives are also encountered in the fields of transportation, press-publication, health and education. Cooperatives, which initially operated as small economic enterprises and for the protection of common interests, are now considered the third sector with the economic size they have reached (Emiroğlu, 2019).

The most important way for countries to establish a functioning structure based on production and to get rid of external dependency is through comprehensive and well-equipped entrepreneurship. When evaluated from this aspect, entrepreneurship is an effective tool in the development of the economy and in achieving development. The restructuring trends carried out on the economies of countries in the world are generally tried to be built on entrepreneurship (Uzkurt, 2020). The most important reason for the increase in entrepreneurial activities and the emergence of new entrepreneurial activities in different sectors in recent years is the digital age we are in and the technological developments that cannot be kept up with.

Technological developments can significantly affect the way cooperatives do business, their productivity and competitiveness. The internet, e-mail, instant messaging and other communication technologies facilitate effective communication and collaboration among cooperatives' members. These technologies play a major role in members sharing information, collaborating on projects and providing rapid communication in decision-making processes. The internet and digital marketing tools allow cooperatives to promote their products and services to a wider audience. E-commerce platforms allow cooperatives to sell their products online and provide easy access to customers. This helps cooperatives improve their marketing activities and increase their income. Cooperatives strengthen their business performance with big data analytics, increasing efficiency, reducing costs and thus optimizing the process. In addition, artificial intelligence technologies help automate more complex tasks and make more strategic decisions. All these technological developments can help cooperatives become more competitive and achieve sustainable growth. The important point here is to provide the necessary training and support for cooperative members and employees.

Women's Cooperatives in Turkey

The women's cooperative movement in Turkey began in the early 2000s as a grassroots movement in response to the demands of women entrepreneurs in order to bring women's labor into the economy, to develop, protect and support women's social and cultural activities, and to ensure that they live

in a healthy and developed environment (KGM, 2012: 11). It has also spread rapidly in the last 10 years. Thousands of women under the roof of these cooperatives reproduce life for themselves and their surroundings, and by creating their own resources to a great extent, they carry out very serious works for the benefit of society. Especially women who have not been able to benefit from social, economic and cultural opportunities and who have never left their homes before are now coming together in cooperatives (KEDV and KKIA, 2013: 1). In our country, cooperatives owned and managed by women carry out social and economic activities together, some generate income for the cooperative and employees, while some do not generate income but work for the benefit of the partners and society. Therefore, they engage in multi-purpose activities (Akkaya, 2018).

The results of studies conducted on the impact of cooperatives on women have generally shown that the number of women in leadership positions in cooperatives is higher than in other businesses (ILO & ICA 2014). Women's general aims for establishing cooperatives are reported as accessing safer and better working conditions and paid employment, accessing lower-priced products, benefiting from financial services and finding solutions to gender-based discrimination and violence. Cooperatives are not only for-profit businesses but also value-centered initiatives. Cooperatives share international principles and values and encourage working together for a better world (Duguid et al., 2015).

Despite the obstacles they face, the most important factors that push women entrepreneurs all over the world to become entrepreneurs are unemployment and the need to earn income. Other factors that can be listed include the need for flexible working hours, the desire to control their lives and the desire to be their own boss, the expected financial freedom, ambition, the desire to increase their living conditions, and the expectation of personal development (Keskin, 2014). Although many of these factors that drive women to entrepreneurship are common, they can differ from country to country or depending on cultural conditions. Undoubtedly, individuals are the bearers of the cultural values of the society they live in. The level of development in societies also closely affects the understanding of entrepreneurship (Durak, 2011).

In the 2012-2016 Turkey Cooperative Strategy and Action Plan of the Ministry of Trade, under the strategy of 'Increasing Organizational Capacity and Cooperation Opportunities Between Cooperatives', the activity of 'Working to organize women under the roof of cooperatives in order to increase their entrepreneurial capabilities and ensure their place as actors in the economy' was defined and initiatives were taken to ensure that women produce and are employed in cooperatives (Turkish National Cooperative Union, 2012). In 2012, the Articles of Association of the Women's Initiative Production and Business Cooperative were published in accordance with Article 88 of the Cooperatives Law No. 1163. Women's cooperatives are cooperatives established

and operated by women, and they are no different from other cooperatives in terms of their legal status and responsibilities. Although they are no different from other cooperatives in terms of their legal responsibilities and obligations, women's cooperatives represent an important organization, especially for women, with their social and economic returns and solidarity economy potential (KEİG, 2018).

The fields of activity of women's cooperatives are; income-generating activities, social-cultural activities, vocational training and skill courses, consultant support in product development/design, disabled education and care, pre-school education. The reasons why women organize in cooperatives are; social and economic sharing, natural democratic environment, equality among members, motivations of women coming together under the roof of women's cooperatives with economic cooperation, legal restrictions of associations due to their fields of activity, heavy financial burdens of establishing foundations and advantages of cooperatives such as employment and job creation, tax exemption and having the status of civil society organizations. In these cooperatives, women can develop their self-confidence with the spirit of unity and solidarity (Özdemir, 2013).

In all economic systems, it is accepted that women are disadvantaged in terms of business life and participation in the workforce. The most important method that will ensure that women are less risky in economic activity and more effective in social life is cooperatives. In order to draw attention to the importance of the issue and to produce solutions, international organizations such as FAO and ILO have developed various projects in India, Iran, Nigeria and Thailand and provided support to the work of Women's Cooperatives. In our country, the issue has been approached in the most comprehensive way with the goal of "Increasing the entrepreneurial capabilities of our women and carrying out studies to organize them under the roof of cooperatives in order to ensure that they take part as actors in the economy" as set forth in the Turkey Cooperative Strategy and Action Plan. In order to achieve this goal; measures such as encouraging women who do not have the opportunity to work in another job to organize under the roof of cooperatives, increasing their working, producing and marketing opportunities, and carrying out studies to meet their social and cultural needs are included.

It is considered that one of the most suitable models for increasing the contribution of women, who are considered to be a disadvantaged group and who have difficulties in meeting their economic and social needs and creating jobs for themselves, and ensuring their active participation in social life will be cooperatives. Whether they are established for the purpose of social benefit, employment creation or production, cooperatives provide an opportunity for interaction and solidarity for women in every situation. The ability of women with different talents to come together and create a common capacity under

the roof of cooperatives will provide great benefits for the social and economic development of countries. In this context, women who can stand on their feet economically will be able to take their rightful place in social life as individuals who are more beneficial to their families, the social environment they live in and their country. Therefore, cooperatives can be evaluated as an important business model for women, especially in ensuring their participation in economic and social life in the society they live in. Although there has been development in women's cooperatives in our country in recent years, it is not possible to say that the desired results have been achieved yet. In the recently initiated cooperative supports, additional supports should be provided to the existing supports for women's cooperatives (Emiroğlu, 2019).

Evaluation of Women's Cooperatives in Turkey in Light of Technological Developments

Today, with the rapid developments in information technologies, there have been changes in the classical understanding of trade and entrepreneurial activities, and entrepreneurs have had to make a rapid entrance into the intense competition environment. The increase in the speed of technological developments has been reflected in every sector and has become an inevitable situation.

Keeping up with technology has become an important goal for women working in women's cooperatives and the businesses they establish. Although women's cooperatives are formed by women who entered working life after a certain age and partially did not complete their education, accepting the reality of technology and continuing on their way is also very important for them.

It is unquestionably very important for them to continue their entrepreneurial activities regardless of time and place by developing their skills such as using computers, promoting their products and activities through websites, and using social media platforms. At this point, they can develop themselves and increase their skills with certain trainings. It is clear that women's cooperatives have not yet reached the desired level in terms of keeping up with technological developments. Here, cooperative chairmen and the institutions they are affiliated with have a lot of work to do. Women's cooperatives can be provided with free training and applications to increase their technology skills, and they can be helped to reach a certain level. By creating mechanisms that aim to develop women's economic activities in digital environments, training programs and seminars can be organized to empower women entrepreneurs in e-commerce. In fact, free websites to be opened for women's cooperatives can be used to lead them to take their first steps.

There is nothing that women cannot achieve when they want to. What is important is to provide the conditions, opportunities and to provide motivation. As women's cooperative employees adapt to developing technology,

this will help increase the recognition of cooperatives, ensure that products reach all over the world and thus make women entrepreneurs more productive, more motivated and economically stronger.

When the technology groups of the enterprises are examined, enterprises operating in the high-tech class are those that have high R&D expenses, produce high value-added products and need the employment of qualified personnel. Enterprises producing pharmaceutical products, electronic, computer and optical products, manufacturing of transportation vehicles, consultancy, programming and publishing activities, computer programming, telecommunications, information service activities are evaluated in this class. Medium-high technology group represents enterprises classified as manufacturing of chemical products and chemicals, manufacturing of fabricated metal products, manufacturing of electrical equipment, manufacturing of machinery and equipment, manufacturing of trailers/semi-trailers and motor land vehicles, manufacturing of other transportation vehicles and other manufacturing. Low technology enterprises are classified as manufacturing of tobacco products, manufacturing of food products, manufacturing of beverages, manufacturing of textile products, manufacturing of leather and related products, manufacturing of clothing, manufacturing of articles made of reeds, straw and similar materials, manufacturing of paper and paper products, manufacturing of wood products and cork products (excluding furniture), printing and reproduction of recorded media, manufacturing of furniture and other manufacturing. In order for women entrepreneurs to have an active role in economic development, their enterprises should be pulled into medium-high or high-tech groups. As a matter of fact, making investments in high-technology sectors in Turkey and supplying the workforce employed in high-technology sectors will enable these sectors to operate more effectively and efficiently (Şeker and Özcan 2019).

In order to increase the contribution of women's cooperatives to rural and regional development nationally, in addition to the project calls announced at various intervals by regional development agencies, the Agricultural and Rural Development Support Institution, there are grant supports offered to women's cooperatives through project proposal calls by ministries, regional development administrations, foundations, associations and various embassies. The Ministry of Trade has a support program called 'Cooperatives Support Program' that supports cooperatives. This program was developed with the objectives of supporting investment projects that will contribute to production and employment of cooperatives and their upper organizations, increasing their competitiveness, supporting their use of technology and new production techniques, ensuring efficiency and productivity and providing individual savings as initiatives with appropriate cooperative models. Cooperatives and their upper organizations that are within the scope of the Ministry of Trade, whose

members are mostly women and whose aim is to utilize women's labor can apply to this program. A 75% grant is provided to cooperatives whose members are at least 90% women, regardless of the priority region for development (Ministry of Trade, 2021).

According to 2025 estimates, if the female labor force participation rate in Turkey increases to the OECD average of 63%, it is stated that the country's GDP could increase by 20%, or approximately 200-250 billion dollars on average (İKV, 2019). In order to ensure development, governments in Turkey use the tools of fiscal and economic policies to identify and encourage women entrepreneurs, support them technically and financially, train them, and create suitable environments to ensure the continuity of their businesses. The influences of developed countries, international organizations such as the OECD (Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development), the UN (United Nations), and the EU (European Union) are seen in the policies and studies created for women entrepreneurs (Özgül, 2019).

Gündüz (2022) listed her technology-based suggestions for women's cooperatives in his study as follows:

• In order to use e-commerce more effectively and to affect the entrepreneurial activities of women's cooperatives more positively, the number of employees in cooperatives should be increased, and especially women in the young age group and with a high level of education should be allowed to work in women's cooperatives, and they should be made more dynamic and open to technology.

• In order for women's cooperatives to become universal institutions, steps should be taken to minimize their concerns in terms of technology and e-commerce use.

• It is important to increase the technology use skills of women working in women's cooperatives with the necessary training and to organize frequent seminars and meetings on this subject.

Conclusions

The place of women in society is undoubtedly very important and effective. In addition to their role as mothers, it is very important for societies to progress that women also play an active role in social life and the economy. Especially women who have adapted to today's technology and developed themselves achieve great success in business life.

When the cooperative sector aims to use technology and become a more social structure, it will also establish a connection with the younger generation and expand its range. Cooperatives should think about how they will communicate with young people and how they are perceived by them. Only in this

way can they appeal to the new generation and maintain their dynamism. The use of social media is also very important here. The effective use of e-commerce together with social media will undoubtedly give great momentum to women's cooperatives. Human relations are at the center of cooperatives. The young generation will always be needed in shaping the cooperative identity and message.

The number of women's cooperatives in Turkey is rapidly increasing. Women's cooperatives play an important role in the empowerment of women in Turkey, ensuring local development and supporting women's entrepreneurship. In order to develop the impact and capacity of women's cooperatives in Turkey, various unions and foundations provide communication, cooperation and coordination support, while there are grants and loans provided by national and international institutions that support cooperatives with project proposal calls. The effective use of all these opportunities will again be possible with adaptation to technological developments. The way for women's cooperatives to grow and provide employment to more women will be possible with their ability to use technology correctly and effectively.

In addition to the policies that lead the increase in women's entrepreneurship in Turkey, there are many institutions and organizations that operate for the purposes of supporting women entrepreneurs, increasing their numbers and developing their capacities. It is seen that institutions and organizations that support women's entrepreneurship have initiatives such as increasing women's employment, providing vocational training, providing legal support for women and providing financial support. These initiatives will strengthen the concept of women acting independently in society and enable them to achieve economic freedom. When all these facts are evaluated in today's conditions, the basis for women's economic empowerment lies in their ability to keep up with the pace of the changing world and developing their skills through technological transformations. Incorporating technology into the operation of women's cooperatives in Turkey is a very effective and rational method. Providing employment, especially to young people who have recently graduated from university and are successful in using technology, is one of the factors that will positively affect the dynamics of women's cooperatives.

As a result, it is possible to say the following: Adapting to the rhythm of the globalizing world depends on the positive relationship you establish with technological developments. This situation may not always be accessible and easy for women working in women's cooperatives. The way to improve this situation and bring women employees together with technological developments will be possible through training. At this point, managers, relevant institutions and administrators have important duties. Trainings to be provided at every level and stage are very important for women to reach a stronger future and increase their economic power. In particular, the increase in women's entre-

preneurship and their presence in different business areas can be explained by the use of technology and e-commerce. Although preserving the traditional structure of cooperatives is of great importance for our country, it is equally important to carry cooperatives to international platforms and ensure that they open up to the world.

And finally, women's cooperatives are the most concrete proof that women can achieve the success they want under all conditions, at all ages and at all levels of education.

REFERENCES

Akkaya, F. A. (2018). Türkiye'de Kadın Kooperatiflerinin Sürdürülebilir Kırsal Turizmdeki Önemi Ve Finansal Performanslarının Analizi (Basılmamış doktora tezi). İnönü Üniversitesi, Malatya.

Amorös, J. E., Bosma, N., & Kelley, D. (2014). Global Entrepreneurship Monitor: 2013 Executive Report. London, GB: London Business School, and Wellesley, MA: Babson College.

Duguid, F, Durutaş, G., & Wodzicki, M. (2015). The Current State of Women's Cooperatives in Turkey. World Bank, Washington, DC. https://openknowledge. worldbank. org/handle/10986/25977.

Durak, İ. (2011). Girişimciliği Etkileyen Çevresel Faktörlerle İlgili Girişimcilerin Tutumları: Bir Alan Araştırması. Yönetim Bilimleri Dergisi, 9(2), 191-213.

Emiroğlu, M. (2019) Kooperatifçilik ve Kadın Kooperatifleri, https://ticaret.gov.tr/ data/5d41e48b13b87639ac9e02df/7458fc6b58 05cfbbaf4a3f0d76ad0bf5.pdf

Gündüz, F.F., 2022 Determining The E-Commerce Perception Of Women's Cooperatives, Üçüncü Sektör Sosyal Ekonomi Dergisi, 57(3), 1701-1718.

ICA (2016). www.ica.coop.en, "History of the Co-operative Movement"

ICA (2022). www. https://ica.coop/en/cooperatives/what-is-a-cooperative.

ILO-ICA. (2014). Cooperatives and Sustainable Development Goals: A Contribution to the Post-2015 Development Debate A Policy Brief. Brüksel, Belçika: International Labour Organization & International Cooperative Alliance,. https:// www.ilo.org/wc   msp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/documents/publication/ wcms_240640.pdf

İKTİSADİ KALKINMA VAKFI (İKV), (2019). AB Katılım Sürecindeki Türkiye'nin Kadın İstihdamı Karnesi. Dünya Süper Veb Ofset AŞ, İstanbul.

Kadın Emeğini Değerlendirme Vakfı (KEDV) ve Kadın Kooperatifleri İletişim Ağı (KKİA), (2013). Türkiye'de Kadın Kooperatifleri Durum, Sorunlar ve Öneriler, KEDV Yayınları, İstanbul.

KEİG. (2018). Kadın Kooperatifl eri Kılavuzu, Kadın Emeği ve İstihdamı Girişimi Platfor mu Yayın Dizisi. İstanbul. http://www.keig.org/kadin-kooperatifl eri-kilavuzu-2018/

Keskin, S. (2014). Türkiye'de Kadın Girişimcilerin Durumu. Journal Of Entrepreneurship & Development/Girisimcilik Ve Kalkinma Dergisi, 9(1).

Kooperatifçilik Genel Müdürlüğü (KGM), (2012), Kooperatifçilik ve Kadın Kooperatifleri, Gümrük ve Ticaret Bakanlığı, Ankara.

Ministry of Trade (2021). Koop-Des Kooperatiflerin Desteklenmesi Programı: Uygulama ve Değerlendirme Kılavuzu. https://ticaret.gov.tr/kooperatifcilik/koop-des.

Mülayim, Z. G. (2013). Kooperatifçilik.(7. Baskı). Ankara: Yetkin Yayınları.

Özdemir, G. (2013). Women's Cooperatives in Turkey. Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 81, 300–305. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2013.06.432.

Özgül, S. Y. (2019). Kamu Desteklerinden Yararlanan Kadın Girişimciler: Ankara İli Örneği,

(Yayımlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi) . Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi, Ankara.

Şeker, A., & Özcan, S. (2019). Yüksek Teknolojili Ürün İhracatı Ve Ekonomik Büyüme İlişkisi: Türkiye Örneği. Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi İktisadi ve İdari Bilimler Fakültesi Dergisi, 6(3), 865-884.

Turkish National Cooperative Union. (2012). Türkiye Kooperatifçilik Stratejisi ve Eylem Planı 2012-2016. http://www.turkey.coop/menu/Turkiye-Kooperatifcilik-Strateji si-ve-Eylem-Plani--2012-2016-/26.

Uzkurt, C. (2020). KOSGEB Girişimcilik El Kitabı. Editör: B. Zafer Erdoğan. KOSGEB.

Zeuli, K., & Cropp, R. (2004). Cooperative Principals And Practices. Madison Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Extension.
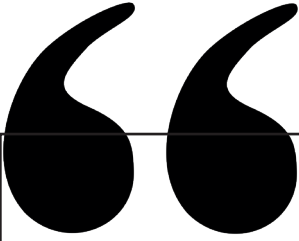
Chapter 8

CURRENT PARADIGM AND SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE IN ENVIRONMENTAL GERONTOLOGY: INSIGHTS FROM LOCAL GOVERNMENTS

Mert ERSÖZLÜ[1]

1 Duzce University Vocational School of Health Science, Düzce TR, 81060
mertersozlu@duzce.edu.tr, 0000-0003-1763-5355

Introduction

Today, rapidly aging societies necessitate a reevaluation of the social, physical, and environmental dimensions of aging processes. Particularly, in a global context, developments such as declining birth rates, advancements in healthcare technologies leading to reduced mortality rates, and migration movements, especially from rural to urban areas, have transformed population structures, resulting in an increase in the proportion of older adults living in cities. Population projections estimate that by 2030, two-thirds of the world's population will reside in cities (Arık, 2022; cited in Moulaert and Garon, 2016). In Turkey, similarly to the global demographic trend, a significant portion of the population lives in provincial and district centers. According to TURKSTAT (2023) data, 93% of the population in Turkey resides in these areas. Additionally, according to the World Health Organization (WHO) data, the rate of urbanization and the increase in the older population are progressing in parallel (WHO, 2007). This situation raises new questions for municipalities regarding how to meet the needs of older residents in cities (Arun, 2021). From this point of view, the search for answers to these questions and urban aging, particularly in countries with high proportions of older adults, has become a key topic discussed within the disciplines of social and environmental gerontology. Over the past two decades, the WHO's focus on creating age-friendly environments has led to increased global interest in the issue, and over the past decade, urban aging and age-friendly environments have entered both the studies on aging and the agendas of municipalities in Turkey.

The growing older population in cities and the transfer of the authority to address inequalities among vulnerable groups—such as women, children, older adults, people with disabilities, and refugees—from central governments to local administrations, especially in welfare states and countries like Turkey (Arun & Holdsworth, 2018), has necessitated a discussion of the issue from the perspectives of urban sociology, environmental gerontology, and local governance. In this book chapter, the importance of the issue within the context of urban sociology will first be discussed, followed by an exploration of the development of environmental gerontology toward age-friendly environments. Finally, the municipalities, particularly those from Turkey that are members of the WHO Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities, will be examined in this context.

Urban Sociology and Aging

Cities are not only physical spaces but also significant areas that lay the foundation for the transformation of social structures, the reshaping of social relationships, and demographic changes. Looking at history, starting from classical urban theorists, sociologists have attempted to provide insights, albeit not comprehensively, into urban and spatial problems that emerged during their

time through their theories and perspectives. Notably, Simmel's approach in his work *The Metropolis and Mental Life* influenced the conceptual approaches of the representatives of the Chicago School on urban sociology. In general, the approaches of the Chicago School representatives are based on the growth and expansion of cities. Park, McKenzie, and Burgess examined urban growth in the context of production tools and urban segregation (Güllüpınar, 2012), while Wirth explored the effects of population density and the heterogeneous structure of cities on human-environment relations, and how these factors affect people's mental lives and daily practices in terms of culture (Koyuncu, 2011). However, both classical urban theorists and the representatives of the Chicago School did not directly consider aging as a subject of urban sociology. Discussions on older adults and other vulnerable groups began to emerge in the studies of contemporary urban theorists from the 1960s onwards. These theorists, influenced by the political and social movements of the period, approached existing urban theories with a sociologically critical perspective.

Modern urban theorists, particularly those with a Marxist perspective, presented different views and studies on cities and spaces. Among them, Lefebvre aimed to examine cities from a more holistic perspective. In his work *The Right to the City* (2016), Lefebvre discusses how the industrial activities concentrated in cities have altered production and consumption relationships, predominantly benefiting the upper classes rather than the lower classes. Lefebvre emphasizes that these changes deepen inequalities in urban spaces, and addressing these inequalities requires adopting an inclusive and sustainable approach based on rights-based collaboration. He advocates for the introduction of concrete rights for social groups to ensure individuals can freely exist in urban spaces. Among these rights, he highlights the importance of prioritizing policies targeting older adults, women, and other vulnerable groups (Özdemir, 2010). Lefebvre's approach to considering older adults as a distinct subject of study is significant in the context of sociological aging and urban sociology. Particularly in today's aging world, social scientists increasingly debate how cities serve as living spaces for older adults and those in the process of aging. Consequently, urbanization dynamics necessitate rethinking the relationship between aging and space in terms of how older adults interact with urban spaces, their social participation, access to urban services, health and social services, and daily living practices.

On a global scale, the increasing proportion of individuals aged 65 and older in the demographic pyramid represents an important topic in social policy discussions (Suğur, 2019). At this point, the growing interest of urban sociology in aging is closely related to the concept of environmental gerontology. Environmental gerontology examines the spatial dimension of aging by studying the interactions between older individuals and their living environments. In this framework, the concept of age-friendly environments comes

into play. Age-friendly environments are urban areas designed to promote the independence, safety, and social participation of older individuals, addressing their physical and social needs. For cities to adapt to the needs of an aging population, it is crucial to restructure urban services, transportation, healthcare, housing, and opportunities for social interaction from this perspective. The approaches of environmental gerontology and age-friendly environments offer significant frameworks for enhancing the presence of older individuals in urban spaces, increasing their social participation, and supporting their ability to lead quality lives. The idea of creating age-friendly environments, grounded in these factors, plays a critical role in addressing the social, psychological, and physiological effects of aging.

Current Paradigm in Environmental Gerontology

The rapid aging of developed and developing societies, or the emergence of an aging trend, has recently increased interest in aging and older adult studies across various disciplines (Alpay, 2024). A similar situation applies to environmental gerontology, which seeks to comprehensively assess older adults and their living environments. Environmental gerontology is a subfield of gerontology that examines the interactions between older adults and their socio-physical environments. The fundamental aim of this discipline is to enhance the quality of life for older adults, focusing on how the effects of environmental factors can be optimized. Beginning in the 1950s, the first steps in this field were taken through Lewin's (1951) Person-Environment Model, which conceptualized the living environment of older adults. Subsequently, Lawton & Simon (1968) proposed the "Environmental Adaptation Hypothesis," one of the early studies in the literature examining the effects of physical distance on social relationships and friendship formation in old age, from the perspective of health and social determinants. However, one of the most significant developments in the field was Powell Lawton's adaptation-pressure model (Cutchin, 2009). The model proposed by Lawton and Nahemow (1973) focuses on the balance between social adaptation and environmental pressure. The adaptation-pressure model explains how interactions between individuals and their environments can establish a balance and the impact of this balance on social adaptation in old age (Lawton & Nahemow, 1973). It suggests that environmental pressure will increase in situations where an individual's adaptation is low, but that adaptation to social life is possible when a balance is achieved between these two elements (Karakaş, 2019). In its simplest terms, it associates the well-being of older adults with the environment they live in and their adaptation capabilities.

In later periods, especially between 1970 and 1990, research in environmental gerontology focused more on micro-environments such as homes and residences, while studies on macro-environments like neighborhoods and cities were relatively underrepresented (Kending, 2003). Wahl & Weisman (2003)

express that the studies conducted during this period did not achieve sufficient development in supporting the possibilities of well-being in aging from theoretical and empirical perspectives. In subsequent years, to compensate for the weaknesses or gaps in traditional environmental gerontology theories and approaches, new understandings and approaches were developed considering changing demographic dynamics, perceptions of aging, and technological advancements. Wahl, Iwarsson, and Oswald (2012) proposed a new model to more comprehensively understand the relationship between individuals and their environments during aging by incorporating a life course perspective and a historical viewpoint. This model illustrates that the possibilities of successful aging are influenced by the experiences, sense of belonging, individual behavioral traits, and the outcomes of behaviors in the relationship between the individual and their environment, asserting that these factors determine developmental outcomes like identity, well-being, and autonomy during the aging process. They argue that to foster a successful aging process, it is essential to evaluate all these factors while considering the individual's life course and the historical conditions of the period they live in.

In a more recent model, Wahl & Gerstorf (2020) examine the relationship between factors influencing the dynamics of aging and living spaces from an environmental gerontology perspective. This model, as one of the most current approaches, provides critical insights into how older individuals can maintain their quality of life and independence. In this context, the model centers on older individuals and focuses on five main contexts affecting their aging process: socio-economic context, social environment, physical environment, care and health services, and technology. Each main context is subdivided into layers, and these layers determine the extent to which individuals can cope with environmental pressures during the aging process. The socio-economic context includes factors such as wealth, poverty, unemployment, crime rates, and housing conditions in the individual's neighborhood, while the social environment encompasses social relationships with family, friends, neighbors, and other communities. The physical environment starts from the inside of the individual's home and expands to the infrastructure of the neighborhood where they live. Care and health services refer to the quality and accessibility of professional caregivers, along with institutions such as nursing homes, assisted living facilities, and rehabilitation centers that older adults can access when needed. Technology encompasses access to smart phones, health monitoring devices, and other assistive technologies. The influence of these five contexts on older adults also occurs in parallel with the historical life conditions and life cycles of individuals. In summary, the model demonstrates how aging individuals interact with the aforementioned factors and illustrates the processes of passivity (adapting to the environment) and proactivity (active adaptation) at different stages of their lives.

Between 1950 and 2000, environmental gerontology attempted to define, explain, modify, or optimize the relationships between older adults and their socio-physical environments in the physical and social worlds, with contributions from sociology (including spatial sociology, urban sociology, and environmental sociology), environmental psychology, architecture, and other fields. After the 2000s, it became possible to evaluate the progress of studies in this field in two interconnected branches. The first involves the efforts of environmental gerontology to update itself, where Wahl, Iwarsson, and Oswald (2012) provided a life course perspective and historical viewpoint in their conceptualization of the older-adult-environment relationship, while Wahl & Gerstorf (2020) presented a model revisiting the dynamics of aging and their implications for urban living spaces and technological developments, indicating that the direction of research has shifted from micro to macro levels and has been updated with social progress and demographic changes. The second branch emerged particularly with the WHO (2002) publication titled "Global Age-Friendly Cities- A Guide," which made the subject visible, and the establishment of the Age-Friendly Cities and Communities Network by the WHO (2018), which began working on the relationships between older adults and their socio-physical environments under the umbrella of environmental gerontology, conceptualizing age-friendly environments and communities. Therefore, the following sections will discuss the concept of age-friendly environments as an extension of environmental gerontology, focusing on the WHO Age-Friendly Environments and Communities Network and local governments in Turkey that are members of this network.

Age-Friendly Environments and Communities: Insights from Local Governments in Turkey

Since the 2000s, various conceptualizations have been made around the concept of "age-friendly," particularly regarding older adults and their social-physical environments. The meaning of being age-friendly has been shaped by various socio-economic conditions, demographic structures, and cultural factors in different countries and communities. In its broadest sense, being age-friendly entails recognizing aging as a process and emphasizing the healthy and secure participation of individuals of all ages in daily life. The ideal of creating age-friendly environments and communities has entered the agendas of central governments, local administrations, civil society, the private sector, and academia, aiming to reduce the negative impacts on vulnerable groups and address the need for aging in place (Arun et al., 2022). The concept of age-friendly cities focuses on restructuring social and physical environments to meet the changing needs of older adults (Rémillard-Boilard & Doran, 2024). Since 2010, in response to global urbanization and the increasing older population, the World Health Organization (WHO) established the Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities to make cities and

communities more livable for older adults. Cities and communities can join this network by committing to take concrete steps based on innovative and scientific foundations and to share knowledge and experiences. To achieve this goal, local governments must take action in eight age-friendly areas, including community and health services, communication and information, outdoor spaces, civic participation and employment, transportation and mobility, housing, social participation, social inclusion, and prevention of discrimination (WHO, 2021). This network currently encompasses 1,606 cities and communities across 53 countries, affecting more than 330 million people living in these cities and communities (WHO, 2024). Due to the global impact of the WHO initiatives, Turkey has become one of the countries included in the "WHO Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities." However, it is important to note that many social actors have played roles in increasing the attention given to this issue by local governments in Turkey. Alongside demographic changes, it can be said that the increased responsibilities placed on local governments by central authorities to address the needs of older residents and solve related issues have also played a significant role. To better explain this situation, it may be beneficial to look at the general structure of local governments in Turkey and their areas of responsibility toward older adults.

Local governments in Turkey are seen as important actors in meeting the needs of older adults and other vulnerable groups through the services they provide. In this context, there are different statuses of municipalities in our country. These statuses are primarily determined by population density and include five different statuses (Değer, 2020). These are: metropolitan municipalities, district municipalities connected to metropolitan municipalities, provincial municipalities, and the district municipalities and towns operating under them. Provincial municipalities are obliged to provide various social, cultural, health, and educational services to older adults and to open and operate facilities aimed at them, according to articles 13, 14, and 77 of the 5393 Law of the Republic of Turkey. Metropolitan municipalities and their district municipalities are governed by the 5216 Law. According to article 7 of this law, they are also responsible for "operating and developing all kinds of social and cultural services for adults, older adults, people with disabilities, women, youth, and children, establishing social facilities, opening and running vocational and skill development courses, and collaborating with universities, colleges, vocational schools, public institutions, and civil society organizations while executing these services." Additionally, in recent years, legal regulations aimed at increasing the quality of life in urban areas have been implemented in Turkey regarding transportation, buildings, and outdoor spaces (Tamkoç & Bilgin, 2020). Legal bases for accessible environments can be found in the 3194 Zoning Law and the implementation of the Accessible Environments Law, as well as the establishment of the Elderly Support Program (YADES) in Tur-

key to make urban spaces age-friendly. Local governments, influenced by both their legal responsibilities and the growing "Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities" trend, are planning and providing services for disadvantaged and healthy older adults in Turkey. However, only a small portion of these local governments have officially become members of this network. According to the latest information accessed from the WHO website, a total of six local governments from Turkey have qualified to join the network (WHO, 2024). The first institution to join the network in 2014 was Antalya Muratpaşa Municipality. Following that, Istanbul Kadıköy Municipality joined in 2016, Mersin Metropolitan Municipality in 2018, Istanbul Beşiktaş Municipality in 2019, and Adana Seyhan Municipality and İzmir Bornova Municipality both joined in 2021 (WHO, n.d.). According to recent data from WHO (2024), in addition to the age-friendly activities carried out by these local governments, they also implement several age-friendly applications alongside the services they are obliged to provide to older adults as outlined in the municipal law. The local governments that are members of the global network also commit to implementing and sustaining new age-friendly applications through the pledges signed by their mayors sent to the WHO. The age-friendly applications carried out by these municipalities are summarized in the table below:

Local Government
Year of Membership
Population Percentage (60+)
Age-Friendly Applications Implemented

Antalya Muratpaşa Municipality

2014

15%

- Strengthening Intergenerational Relationships
- Digital Competence Training Programme
- In-Municipal Workshop for Age-Friendly Cities
- Research on Psychological Effects of Pandemic
- Elderly Council
- Elder Home

İstanbul Kadıköy Municipality

2016

%19

- Center for Alzheimer's Disease and Social Center
- Kadıköy Municipality's Social Center

Mersin Metropolitan Municipality

2018

%12

- Active Aging House

İstanbul Beşiktaş Municipality

2019

%20,4

- Catering Service
- Social Centers (Leisure Houses)
- Social Alarm
- Well-Being Service
- Services at Home
- Home Health Care Services
- Social Consultancy Service

Adana Seyhan Municipality

2021

%11,8

- Active-Ageing Centre
- Alzheimer Centre

İzmir Bornova Municipality

2021

%14

- Home Care Services
- Sports Activities
- Musical Activities
- Health Services
- Public Health Center

Table 1. *Age-Friendly Local Governments in Turkey and Their Implemented Applications (WHO, 2024).*

Looking at the membership structure of the WHO's Age-Friendly World Global Network, it is seen that some local governments worldwide that are members of this network have included various organizations and institutions they have collaborated with on age-friendly projects and initiatives under the title of "Affiliated Programme." However, Turkey has yet to have any members with this status, indicating that the age-friendly environment efforts are being examined within a limited framework from the perspective of local governments in Turkey (Ersözlü, 2024).
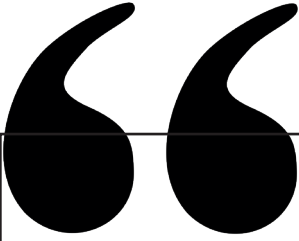
Conclusion

The WHO's "Age-Friendly Cities and Communities Network" is a global initiative aimed at reducing the challenges older adults face in urban life and enabling them to lead more independent, active, and healthy lives. This network seeks to enhance the physical and social environments of cities for older adults by embracing the fundamental principles of environmental gerontology. Additionally, it aims to focus on social justice and inequality issues highlighted by urban sociology, reduce age discrimination, and increase social participation. From this starting point, age-friendly cities are working to adapt the eight criteria set by the WHO in a comprehensive and sustainable manner at the global level. An overall examination of the local governments in Turkey that are part of the WHO Age-Friendly Cities and Communities Network reveals a clear emphasis on these eight areas. It is accurate to say that they are connecting age-friendly services with older adults through day care services, Alzheimer living centers, social living centers, and home care services. However, among these local governments, Muratpaşa Municipality stands out by providing an Older Adults Council platform that allows older individuals to participate in governance and advocate for their rights. Therefore, to ensure that the age-friendly services provided by local governments in Turkey are more inclusive and sustainable, it may be essential to adopt not only a healthcare and social care perspective but also a rights-based approach. Establishing collaborations between civil society, academia, and the private sector and ensuring membership in the global network can provide significant advancements in this context.

References

Arık, I., A., (2022). Gerontolojide mekânı yeniden düşünmek. *Sosyolojik Düşün*, *7*(1), 32-53.

Alpay, M. Senescence Model Theories from In Vitro through In Vivo. *Duzce Medical Journal*, *26*(S1).

Arun, Ö. (2021). Yaşlanma göstergeleri. İnsan hakları kentleri göstergeleri. Emsal: Ankara. ss. 72-82.

Arun, Ö., & Holdsworth, J. K. (2018). Generational care and support mechanisms in Turkey: Identifying at risk populations. *Research on Family Structures in Turkey: Advanced Statistical Analysis.*

Arun, Ö., İnalhan, G., Ersözlü, M., & Al-Azzawi, S., (2022). Her Yaşa Hazır Çevreler Planlamak ve Tasarlamak: Yaş Dostu Havalimanı. Senex: VI. Lisansüstü Yaşlılık Çalışmaları Kongresi (pp.50). Antalya, Turkey .

Cutchin, M. P. (2009). Geographical gerontology: New contributions and spaces for development.

Değer, T. B. (2020). Yaşlılar ve yerel yönetimler. Detay Yayıncılık.

Ersözlü, M. (2024). Descriptive Analysis and Evaluation of Age-Friendly Environment Studies in Turkiye. *Journal of Aging and Environment*, 1-19.

Karakaş, H.E. (2019). Birey-çevre uyumu bağlamında demans dostu çevreler yaratmak ve yerel yönetimlere öneriler. Antalya, Türkiye: Akdeniz Üniversitesi Sağlık Bilimleri Enstitüsü Gerontoloji Anabilim Dalı.

Kendig, H. (2003). Directions in environmental gerontology: A multidisciplinary field. *The Gerontologist*, *43*(5), 611-614.

Koyuncu, A. (2011). Sosyoloji kuramlarında kent. *Selçuk Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, (25), 31-56.

Lawton, M. P., & Simon, B. (1968). The ecology of social relationships in housing for the elderly. *The Gerontologist*, *8*(2), 108-115.

Lawton M P, Nahemow L. (1973) Ecology and the aging process. In Eisdorfer C, Lawton M. P. (Eds.) The psychology of adult development and aging. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.; 619–674.

Lefebre, H. (2016). *Şehir Hakkı.* Istanbul: Sel Yayıncılık.

Lewin, K. (1951). Field theory in social science. New York: Harper & Row.

Rémillard-Boilard, S., & Doran, P. (2024). Developing age-friendly cities and communities: an international perspective. *Reimagining Age-Friendly Communities: Urban Ageing and Spatial Justice*, 25.

Suğur, N. (2019). Yaşlılık ve sosyal politika. Birikim. 362-363. 62-67.

Simmel, G. (2009). Bireysellik ve Kültür, çev. *Tuncay Birkan. İstanbul: Metis Yayınları*, *2*.

Güllüpınar, F. (2012). Kent sosyolojisi kuramları üzerine bir literatür değerlendirmesi. *Çağdaş Yerel Yönetimler Dergisi*, *21*(3), 1-29.

Özdemir, E. (2010). Kentin tanımlanmasında sosyolojik yaklaşımlar: Toplumsal süreç ve/veya mekânın çözümlenmesi. *İdealkent*, *1*(1), 44-77.

Tamkoç, B., & Bilgin, Ö. F. (2020). Aktif yaşlanma bağlamında yaş dostu kent kavramı. *Sosyal Politika Çalışmaları Dergisi*, 211-226.

TURKSTAT. (2023). Address Based Population Registration System Results, 2023. Ankara, Turkiye. Turkish Statistical Institute. https://data.tuik.gov.tr/Bulten/Index?p=Adrese-Dayali-Nufus-Kayit-Sistemi-Sonuclari-2023-49684. Accessed .14.October.2024.

Wahl, H. W., & Weisman, G. D. (2003). Environmental gerontology at the beginning of the new millennium: Reflections on its historical, empirical, and theoretical development. *The Gerontologist*, *43*(5), 616-627.

Wahl, H. W., Iwarsson, S., & Oswald, F. (2012). Aging well and the environment: Toward an integrative model and research agenda for the future. *The Gerontologist*, *52*(3), 306-316.

Wahl, H. W., & Gerstorf, D. (2020). Person–environment resources for aging well: environmental docility and life space as conceptual pillars for future contextual gerontology. *The Gerontologist*. 60 (3), 368–375.

World Health Organization . (2018). The Global Network for Age-friendly Cities and Communities: Looking back over the last decade, looking forward to the next. World Health Organization. https://apps.who.int/iris/bitstream/handle/10665/278979/WHO-FWC-ALC-18.4-eng.pdf?sequence=1

WHO.(2024).Age Friendly World **https://extranet.who.int/agefriendlyworld/** Accessed .07.October.2024.

Chapter 9

THE CONCEPT OF "OVERTOURISM BELT"

Murat BAYRAKTAR[1]

1 Assist. Prof. Dr., Istanbul Esenyurt University. muratbayraktar@esenyurt.edu.tr
ORCID ID: 0000-0003-4028-192X

INTRODUCTION

The initial UNWTO World Tourism Barometer of 2023 reported that international tourism rebounded to 88% of pre-pandemic levels, reaching an estimated 1.3 billion arrivals. A full recovery is anticipated by the end of 2024, driven by the release of pent-up demand, improved air connectivity, and the resurgence of Asian tourism. Tourism revenues in 2023 reached USD 1.4 trillion, representing a 93% recovery from 2019 levels. The total economic contribution of tourism, measured by TDGDP, is estimated at USD 3.3 trillion, accounting for 3% of global GDP (UNTWO, 2024).

In the pre-pandemic year of 2019, the Travel & Tourism sector, encompassing its direct, indirect, and induced effects, constituted 10.5% of all global employment, equating to 334 million jobs, and contributed 10.4% to global GDP, valued at US$ 10.3 trillion. Simultaneously, international visitor spending reached US$ 1.91 trillion in 2019. By 2023, the Travel & Tourism sector's contribution to global GDP had risen to 9.1%, a substantial 23.2% increase from 2022 and only 4.1% below the 2019 figure. In 2023, the sector created 27 million new jobs, representing a 9.1% growth compared to 2022 and falling short of the 2019 level by a mere 1.4% (WTTC, 2024).

Global mass tourism is a phenomenon characterized by the large-scale movement of people from one place to another, primarily for leisure or business purposes. It has become an increasingly significant economic force in the 21st century, driving growth in tourism-related industries and shaping the cultural landscapes of destinations worldwide.

Table 1 Five key characteristics of global mass tourism

Key characteristics of global mass tourism
Large-scale movement: Mass tourism involves the movement of vast numbers of people, often facilitated by affordable air travel and organized tour packages.
Leisure and business purposes: The primary motivations for mass tourism are leisure activities (e.g., vacations, sightseeing) and business travel (e.g., conferences, trade shows).
Economic impact: Mass tourism can have a significant economic impact on destinations, generating revenue through hotel accommodations, transportation, dining, shopping, and other tourism-related services.
Cultural exchange: Mass tourism can promote cultural exchange and understanding between different societies, but it can also lead to cultural homogenization and the erosion of local traditions.
Environmental challenges: The growth of mass tourism can pose environmental challenges, such as overcrowding, pollution, and resource depletion.

The rise of global mass tourism has been fueled by various factors, including increased disposable income, technological advancements (e.g., online booking platforms), and the globalization of the economy. However, it has also raised concerns about sustainability, social equity, and the preservation of cultural heritage. As the world continues to become more interconnected, the future of global mass tourism will be shaped by the interplay of these factors. The Mediterranean region is a global hotspot for mass tourism, drawing millions of visitors annually. Its combination of stunning natural beauty, rich history, and cultural diversity makes it an irresistible destination for travelers worldwide. Key Mediterranean countries that are popular tourist destinations include: Spain, Greece, Italy, France, Turkey, Croatia, Malta, and Cyprus.

Table 2 Key statistics related to mass tourism in the Mediterranean region

Key statistics related to mass tourism in the Mediterranean region:
International Tourist Arrivals: The Mediterranean region consistently ranks among the top tourist destinations in the world, attracting hundreds of millions of international visitors each year.
Tourism Revenue: Tourism is a major economic driver for many Mediterranean countries, generating significant revenue through accommodation, transportation, dining, and other tourism-related services.
Tourist Activities: Popular tourist activities in the Mediterranean include beach vacations, historical and cultural sightseeing, outdoor adventures, and culinary experiences.
Seasonal Patterns: Tourism in the Mediterranean region often follows seasonal patterns, with peak periods during the summer months.

The Mediterranean basin, when viewed as a unified region, stands as the preeminent global tourism destination, attracting nearly one-third of all international tourists—306 million out of a worldwide total of 980 million—and generating over a quarter of international tourism receipts, totaling 190 billion Euro out of 738 billion Euro globally. According to UNWTO projections for 2012, the Mediterranean region is anticipated to achieve a milestone of 500 million international tourist arrivals by the year 2030 (GRID-Arendal, 2024).

France solidified its status as the world's foremost tourism destination in 2023, attracting a staggering 100 million international tourists. Spain, in second position, welcomed 85 million visitors, followed by the United States with 66 million, Italy with 57 million, and Türkiye rounding out the top five with 55 million international arrivals (World Tourism Organization, (2024)

Some Mediterranean destinations have faced challenges related to over-tourism, leading to concerns about the preservation of cultural heritage and the quality of the tourist experience. There is a growing emphasis on sustain-

able tourism practices in the Mediterranean region, with efforts to minimize environmental impacts and promote responsible tourism. Many Mediterranean countries are seeking to diversify their tourism offerings beyond traditional sun-and-sea tourism to attract a wider range of visitors. In conclusion, the Mediterranean region is a global leader in mass tourism, offering a diverse range of attractions and experiences. However, it is essential to address the challenges associated with this growth to ensure the long-term sustainability of tourism in the region therefore I coined this phenomenon as "Overtourism Belt"

BODY

The notable growth in global tourism flows and receipts can be attributed to several factors, including long-term economic growth, declining transportation costs, and increased competition within the international tourism market (Breda and Borghese, 2005). The Mediterranean region, a longstanding and alluring destination for international travelers, accounted for approximately 20% of all global tourist arrivals in 2004 (UNWTO, 2005).

The Mediterranean region, a historic and contemporary hub of international tourism, remains a top destination, with France, Spain, Italy, and Turkey leading the way, followed by Greece, Croatia, Morocco, and Egypt. Beyond unique attractions, contemporary tourists prioritize service quality, security, and originality, factors influenced by economic and political conditions. The early 21st century witnessed a technological revolution, with information and communication technologies accelerating the transition to postmodern tourism. The internet, coupled with the rise of sharing economy platforms, significantly disrupted the traditional tourism landscape, particularly in Mediterranean countries. The COVID-19 pandemic, originating in 2019, halted global tourism, deeply impacting the Mediterranean region, especially Italy, Spain, France, and Türkiye. This unforeseen event derailed existing tourism projections. In the coming years, economic crises, climate change, environmental pollution, and technological advancements are expected to continue shaping the tourism industry. Given its geographical and geopolitical position, the Mediterranean Basin will remain a region significantly influenced, both positively and negatively, by these global developments (Zogal and Baykal, 2020).

The Mediterranean region, a global tourism epicenter, accounts for 32% of international arrivals and a third of global tourism receipts. Projections indicate that international tourism will surpass 1.8 billion travelers by 2030, setting a record for the region. The potential outcomes of this growth—opportunity or disaster—are contingent upon effective management strategies. Sustainable tourism development in the Mediterranean is essential to ensure that the benefits of growth are equitably distributed among host communities and align with the Sustainable Development Goals. Mediterranean tourism has the potential

to catalyze human development, promote social and economic inclusion, and stimulate entrepreneurship and self-employment. Strengthening regional cooperation is imperative to maintain the Mediterranean's tourism leadership and expand its market share. The Mediterranean's rich historical, cultural, and natural heritage positions it as a highly competitive destination in the global tourism market. A successful tourism strategy for the Mediterranean must foster a more inclusive and resilient sector that contributes to economic development, poverty reduction, and environmental sustainability. The Mediterranean region, a global tourism powerhouse, is home to four of the world's top tourist destinations: France, Spain, Italy, and Turkey. This region accounts for a substantial 35% of international tourist arrivals and 30% of global tourism receipts. Moreover, Mediterranean tourism contributes significantly to the local economies, representing 13% of their exports and 23% of the service sector, providing employment to millions. Despite its economic importance, the Mediterranean tourism sector remains fragmented and unevenly distributed. To ensure its long-term sustainability and resilience, the sector necessitates substantial support to transition towards a greener, bluer model that strengthens local economies in a balanced and sustainable manner (Zibaoui, 2023).

By 2021, the European Union had witnessed a resurgence in tourism, with a total of 1.832 billion nights spent in tourist accommodations. A comprehensive analysis of NUTS level 3 regions revealed that Italy's Venezia and Bolzano-Bozen regions experienced the highest number of overnight stays, with 27.1 and 23.8 million respectively. Additionally, Paris, France, and the coastal regions of Mallorca, Spain, and Istarska županija, Croatia, each recorded over 20 million nights spent. Collectively, these ten regions contributed significantly to the EU's overall tourism performance, accounting for more than 10% of the total nights spent (Eurostat, 2024).

Year-to-date tourism data underscores the enduring appeal of both established and emerging Southern European and Mediterranean destinations among European travelers. Notably, lesser-known destinations like Serbia and Bulgaria witnessed substantial increases in tourist arrivals, surpassing pre-pandemic levels by 40% and 29% respectively. Meanwhile, traditional favorites such as Malta, Portugal, and Türkiye experienced growth rates of 37%, 26%, and 22% respectively. These destinations' continued popularity can be attributed in part to their competitive pricing and favorable climatic conditions. Data reveals that Spain, Greece, Italy, and France have experienced the most substantial increases in inbound tourism spending, with growth rates of 25%, 25%, 20%, and 16% respectively. Additionally, countries like Croatia, Bulgaria, and Romania anticipate a rise in average visitor stays in 2024, which is expected to contribute to increased tourism revenue (ETC, 2024).

Since 1995, the Mediterranean region has exhibited sustained tourism growth, averaging a 4.9% annual increase. The global financial crisis of 2009

and the domestic instability in Türkiye and Egypt in 2016 temporarily disrupt-
ed this trend. However, the Mediterranean tourism industry's resilience was
evident in 2019, with a 5.8% increase in tourist arrivals compared to the previ-
ous year, further solidifying its position as a global tourism hub. From a region-
al perspective, the Mediterranean tourism market is dominated by established
destinations such as Spain (30.4%), Italy (21.6%), and Greece (10.1%). How-
ever, emerging tourist destinations, including Türkiye (14.0%), Croatia (5.8%),
and Albania (1.7%), are also making a notable impact. Spain's position as the
world's second-largest tourist destination is a result of various factors, includ-
ing a diverse range of offerings, high-quality infrastructure, competitive pric-
ing, and a perception of safety and security. Historically, Spain's geographical
location has been instrumental in its tourism development, providing warm
temperatures year-round and proximity to the world's largest tourist-gener-
ating region, Europe, which accounts for 48% of global outbound tourism
(UNWTO). While Spain benefits from its geographical advantage, other Med-
iterranean countries in Southern Europe, the Middle East, and North Africa
have also significantly developed their tourism industries. Consequently, the
Mediterranean basin has solidified its position as the global tourism epicen-
ter, attracting 269 million international tourists in 2018, representing 19.7% of
the global tourism market. In the early 21st century, the tourism industries of
Türkiye and Egypt experienced a period of rapid growth, increasing their share
of Mediterranean inbound tourism from 9.0% in 1999 to 23.1% in 2010. (de
Aldecoa Fuster, 2020).
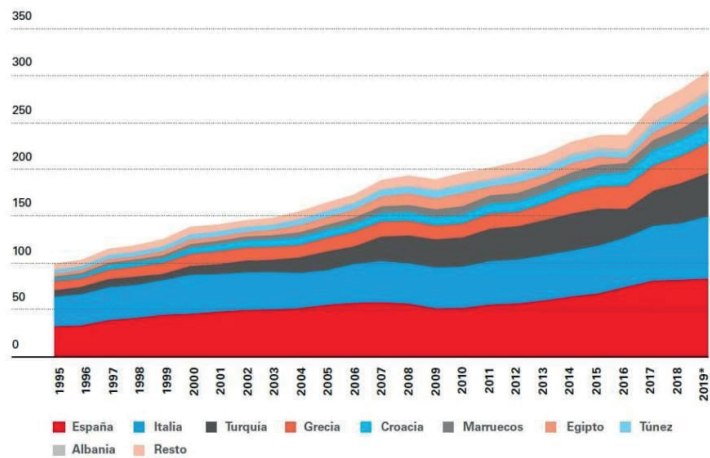
Note: *Forecast by CaixaBank Research for Spain and by WTTC for the
rest of the countries. Source: CaixaBank Research, based on data from the
UNWTO and WTTC.

Tourism in the Mediterranean countries
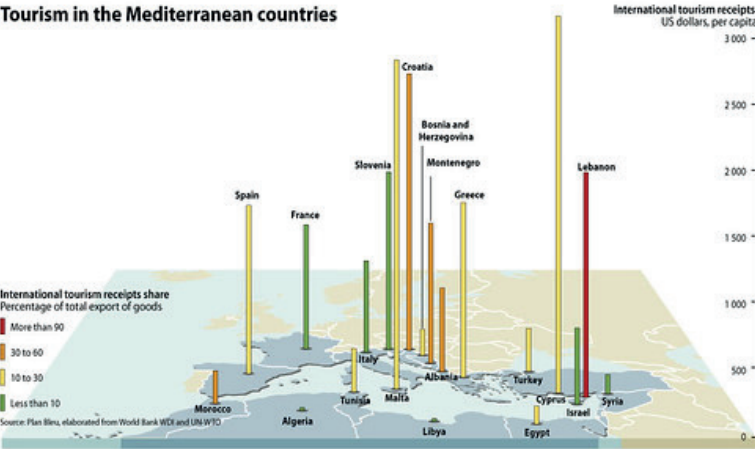
Spain had 33 million international travelers during the initial five months of 2024, a 13.6% increase compared to the corresponding period of the preceding year. Each visitor exhibited an average expenditure of 1,263 euros in May, surpassing the 2023 figure by 7.3%. Catalonia emerged as the preeminent destination for international visitors in May, capturing 22% of the total, followed by the Balearic Islands (21.6%) and Andalusia (14.6%). Catalonia experienced a 5.9% uptick in tourist arrivals compared to the same period in 2023, reaching a total of 2 million. The Balearic Islands witnessed an 11.1% increase in tourist numbers, reaching 1.9 million, while Andalusia recorded an 11.4% surge, arriving at 1.3 million (La Moncloa, 2024).

Greek tourism is poised to surpass historical benchmarks in 2024, anticipating an influx of 35 million visitors and generating €22 billion in revenue. Conversely, the availability of specialized and highly-trained hotel personnel for the summer season is limited, particularly for larger hotels and smaller accommodations, while demand for such staff is escalating in anticipation of the projected surge in arrivals. The data underscores the ongoing staffing challenges confronting the hotel sector (Tornos News, 2024).

OVERTOURISM

In the past, the success of the tourism industry was typically measured by the number of visitors. This approach reflected the growth-oriented thinking of tourism policymakers and service providers (Dodd & Butler, 2019). In recent years, tourism has evolved. In addition to tourism providers and visitors, local communities are becoming increasingly important to destination planners and managers (Becken & Simmons, 2019). The increased focus on local communities in destination management was triggered by a surge in anti-tourism protests worldwide in 2017 and 2018. This suggested a significant

decline in tourism acceptance (Herntrei, 2019). The term "overtourism" was subsequently introduced and has gained significant attention in the global media (Gössling, McCabe & Chen, 2020). While the term "overtourism" is relatively new, the phenomenon itself is not (Dredge, 2017). Researchers note that the underlying issues of overtourism have been explored in academic research since the 1970s (Gössling, McCabe & Chen, 2020). The concept of carrying capacity is often seen as a precursor to contemporary concerns about overtourism (Wall, 2020). This concept continues to be employed as a framework for understanding the phenomenon of overtourism (Peeters et al., 2018).

As the detrimental socio-cultural and socio-economic consequences of tourism have become more prominent concerns in a wider range of destinations, public discontent has increasingly manifested in various forms. These range from public initiatives, social movements, and activist groups to more radical forms of protest such as vandalism (Herntrei, 2019). In 2017 and 2018, such developments were reported in cities such as Barcelona, Palma de Mallorca, Venice, Rome, Dubrovnik, Lisbon, Amsterdam, Berlin, and Prague (Milano, Novelli & Cheer, 2019).

The current discussions about overtourism are influenced by the negative social and cultural effects of tourism on local communities. This topic has been studied extensively since the mid-20th century (Herntrei & Jánová, 2024).

The phenomenon of overtourism is rapidly emerging as a significant challenge for urban centers worldwide (WFF, 2018). Mohanty et al., (2022) identified overtourism as a growing global challenge for cities.

The concept of "overtourism" has been used to highlight the negative impacts of excessive tourism in different popular destinations. However, it has been criticized for being poorly framed and explained (Seyhan, 2023). Koens et al. (2018) pointed out that overtourism is a complex and opaque phenomenon that can be oversimplified by those involved.

The term "overtourism" has emerged to describe the negative consequences of tourism growth, influenced by both global and local policy factors ((Peterson & DiPietro, 2021).

The growing anti-tourism sentiment has been exemplified by the simultaneous appearance of signs, including graffiti with slogans such as "No more rolling suitcases" in Berlin (Novy & Colomb, 2017), "Tourists go home" and "Tourist: your luxury trip, my daily misery" in Barcelona (Burgen, 2018), or "Tourism kills the city" in Palma de Mallorca (Zeit Online, 2017). As a result, public dissatisfaction with tourism development has been associated with terms such as tourism phobia, anti-tourism movements, overcrowding (McKinsey & Company & WTTC, 2017), and, since 2017, particularly overtourism (Kagermeier & Erdmenger, 2019a). Overtourism has primarily been linked to

urban environments (Peeters et al., 2018).

In essence, overtourism arises when a destination experiences an excessive influx of visitors, leading to a negative impact on both the quality of life for local residents and the visitor experience. Overtourism can be defined as "the impact of tourism on a destination, or parts thereof, that excessively influences perceived quality of life of citizens and/or quality of visitors' experiences in a negative way" (UNTWO, 2024). My definition of overtourism is "the phenomenon of exceeding the physical threshold dimensions of a tourism destination and psychological threshold levels of residents"

"OVERTOURISM BELT"

The concept of an "Overtourism Belt" coined my me, encompassing Netherlands, Portugal, Spain, France, Italy, and Greece is a compelling one, given their shared experiences as popular tourist destinations. These neighboring countries, geographically situated in southern Europe, have witnessed a surge in tourism over the past few decades, leading to a range of challenges and opportunities. All six countries boast rich historical and cultural heritage, making them prime destinations for cultural tourism. From idyllic beaches and mountains to charming countryside, these nations offer diverse natural landscapes that attract visitors. Their strategic location in Europe, coupled with well-developed transportation infrastructure, makes them easily accessible to tourists from around the world. Despite their popularity, these countries face similar challenges related to overtourism, such as overcrowding, infrastructure strain, and the erosion of local culture. By analyzing these countries as part of an Overtourism Belt, we can gain valuable insights into the common challenges and opportunities faced by popular tourist destinations. Understanding the interconnectedness of these countries can inform policies and strategies to promote sustainable tourism and mitigate the negative impacts of overtourism.

Spain's tourism industry has experienced a significant boom, with a 14.5% increase in visitors during the first quarter of 2024 compared to the previous year, exceedingly even the record-breaking numbers of 2023. This surge, however, has come at a cost to residents. Rising housing prices and shop costs are attributed to the tourism boom, making it difficult for locals to afford necessities. The strain on infrastructure and resources is particularly acute in highly-visited cities like Barcelona, which receives around 12 million tourists annually, many arriving via cruise ships. The sheer number of visitors is putting pressure on healthcare systems, waste management, water supplies, and housing availability, negatively impacting the quality of life for residents. Spanish authorities are taking steps to mitigate the impact of mass tourism. Barcelona plans to phase out short-term tourist rentals by 2028, revoking licenses for 10,000 apartments currently listed on platforms like Airbnb. Ad-

ditionally, the city is raising tourist taxes for cruise ship passengers on short visits. These measures echo strategies employed elsewhere. Mallorca, a popular tourist destination in Spain, is facing a growing conflict between residents and the tourism industry. Here's a breakdown of the key issues: Locals report that the island is overrun with tourists, leading to congested streets, noise pollution, and disrespectful behavior in some areas. This significantly impacts their quality of life. The surge in tourism has made affordable housing scarce, pushing residents out of their own neighborhoods. The influx of tourists puts a strain on healthcare resources, potentially impacting the quality of care for residents. Residents fear the rise of mass tourism will erode the island's unique culture and traditions. Locals have resorted to protests and symbolic actions like placing fake "stay away" signs on beaches to voice their frustrations. These protests highlight the negative consequences of uncontrolled tourism, echoing concerns in neighboring Ibiza. Mallorca received a record-breaking 14 million foreign visitors in 2023. The trend shows no signs of slowing down, with a significant increase in tourist arrivals even before the peak season. The Balearic Government is taking some steps to address the issue: A joint committee with tourism and community stakeholders aims to create solutions to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism. Enhanced controls against illegal tourist rentals aim to improve regulations (Euronews, 2024).

In Italy, the problem of overtourism is particularly acute, with 70% of tourists concentrated in just 1% of the country. Five nationalities, primarily from the United States, Germany, France, Britain, and Canada, account for a significant portion of foreign visitors. This concentration puts immense strain on infrastructure, local communities, and the environment in popular destinations. With the peak summer travel season of 2024 fast approaching, overtourism in Italy, especially in renowned cities like Rome, Venice, Florence, Milan, and Naples, has become a major concern. (www.liveinitalymag, 2024). Italy is considering implementing a €25-per-night tax on tourists staying in high-end hotels as a strategy to capitalize on overtourism (Prakash, 2024).

Venice faces a delicate balance between tourism and resident well-being. The number of tourist accommodations in the historic center now exceeds the number of official residents, with a record low of 50,000 residents. A recently implemented daytripper tax aims to fund essential services for residents and prevent UNESCO "blacklisting." Revenue from the entry fees will be used to fund services that improve the lives of residents, such as maintenance, cleaning, and reducing living costs. However, critics argue that the tax has failed to address overcrowding and improve living conditions. They advocate for policies that encourage repopulation of the historic center, which has been losing residents to the mainland. The situation is exacerbated by the fact that there are now more tourist accommodations than official residents in Venice (Euronews, 2024). Venice, Italy, has implemented a pilot program charging

day-trippers an entry fee to access the canals on busy days. Peru limits daily access to Machu Picchu to 2,500 visitors.

The Netherlands, particularly Amsterdam, heavily invests in tourism promotion. This successful marketing has made Amsterdam a victim of its own popularity. The rise of unregulated short-term rental platforms like Airbnb has contributed to a housing shortage, as many properties are now used for tourist accommodations. This, combined with a decrease in new housing construction, has driven up rental prices, making it difficult for residents to find affordable housing within the city. As a result, many residents are forced to commute longer distances to their jobs. Amsterdam residents increasingly believe that the tourism industry is negatively affecting their neighborhoods. As more tourists visit the city center, new businesses catering primarily to visitors open, creating a theme park-like atmosphere. The streets feel less like residential areas, and even tourists are complaining about the lack of interaction with locals. The city center's growing homogeneity threatens to destroy the unique character that attracts tourists in the first place. Amsterdam, often called the "Venice of the North," is facing the same overtourism challenges as Venice. The city's popularity has led to a massive influx of tourists (around 20 million) overwhelming its resources and straining local communities. While tourism is a significant economic driver, it has also resulted in negative consequences, such as rising rents, the homogenization of the city center, and a decline in quality of life for residents. The unregulated growth of short-term rentals, like Airbnb, has contributed to the housing crisis, making it increasingly difficult for residents to find affordable housing (Cottam, 2024). Amsterdam has raised its hotel tourist tax and tightened regulations on cannabis tourism and new hotel construction. Greece has increased tourist taxes and doubled the minimum investment for citizenship through its "golden visa" program, although hesitant to implement stricter measures.

As tourist numbers explode year-round in Athens, the city's infrastructure and residents are reaching a breaking point. Joining a trend across Europe to combat overtourism, Athens grapples with the consequences of achieving its goal of year-round tourism. While the influx in visitors (over 7 million in 2023 with a predicted 20% increase) boosts the economy, it strains outdated infrastructure and limited resources. Despite hotel development, the rest of the city struggles to keep pace. Rents have soared, particularly near tourist hubs, highlighting the need for solutions. One proposal involves redirecting a tourist fee from luxury hotels to infrastructure improvements, aiming to bring some relief to the city (Euronews, 2024). Santorini, a popular Greek island stop for cruises, exemplifies the challenges of overtourism. With only 15,500 residents, it receives an influx of around 3.4 million tourists annually, straining the island's resources.

Similar concerns are rising in France, particularly regarding overcrowding in iconic locations like Paris, Mont-Saint-Michel, and the Calanques National

Park. The global phenomenon of mass tourism demands multifaceted solutions to ensure a balance between economic benefits and the well-being of residents and the environment (Rouquette, 2024). The number of foreign tourists visiting France had increased dramatically over the past 15 years. In 2019, France held the top position as the world's most visited country, and Paris was the third most popular city. During that year, Paris welcomed an astonishing number of tourists (35.4 million), with hotel occupancy reaching approximately 16 times the city's population (Avetian and Pauly, 2023). As the 2024 Olympics approach, people are paying more attention to Paris as the host city. Concerns have been raised about businesses and authorities increasing prices ahead of the Olympics. Some tourists experience a severe form of culture shock known as Paris Syndrome, characterized by feelings of disappointment and disorientation (Euronews, 2024). Paris, facing a housing shortage partly due to homeowners preferring short-term rentals, expects a significant number of tourists this year. To manage tourism, authorities have limited day trips to certain popular destinations like Brehat Island and the Calanques National Park. The Calanques National Park has implemented a reservation system to control the number of visitors to the Sugiton coves, reducing daily capacity from thousands to a few hundred during peak months. The site, a one-hour hike away, has reduced its daily capacity from 2,500 to 400 visitors during July and August (APF, 2024).

Popular Portuguese cities like Lisbon, Porto, and coastal towns have witnessed a dramatic increase in visitors, leading to overcrowding and congestion. While Portugal has made progress in managing overtourism, it remains a complex issue that requires ongoing attention and collaboration between government, businesses, and local communities. Some Lisbon locals express concern about the increasing number of tourist tuk-tuks clogging the city's streets, particularly in popular areas like Alfama and Bairro Alto. They report that the narrow streets become congested, making it difficult for residents to navigate and causing traffic jams. Additionally, some locals find the noise and pollution from the tuk-tuks to be disruptive and negatively impact their quality of life (Euronews, 2024).

Across Europe, tourism frequently serves as the primary economic driver for cities and regions. The European Union (EU) estimates that tourism contributes roughly 10% to the bloc's gross domestic product (GDP) and employs approximately 12.3 million individuals. It is crucial to note, however, that significant variations exist within the tourism sector across Europe. This is evident in minimum wage disparities: Portugal sets its minimum wage at €4.85 per hour ($5.25), Spain at €6.87, while Italy lacks a national minimum wage altogether. These variations can influence employment practices and working conditions within the tourism industry across different European regions. European tourist destinations are experiencing a surge in visitors this summer, leading to growing discontent among residents. Locals are demanding lower

rents and a fairer distribution of resources, while protests tourism have erupted in popular cities like Venice, Barcelona, and Amsterdam. The influx of tourists has strained housing markets, driving up rents and limiting affordable options for locals. In Venice, for example, the daily lives of residents often serve as the backdrop for the vacation experiences of millions of annual visitors. The historic center of Venice is home to approximately 49,000 residents, while annual tourist arrivals exceed 20 million. Consequently, the daily lives of locals often serve as the backdrop for the vacation experiences of visitors. This phenomenon is not unique to Venice, as other European cities are also grappling with the challenges of mass tourism, including rising tensions between visitors and locals due to resource allocation disputes. In response to the challenges posed by mass tourism, policymakers in numerous European destinations have implemented regulatory measures. Amsterdam, for instance, has enacted a moratorium on the construction of new hotels and launched targeted demarketing campaigns to curtail party and drug tourism. Lisbon and Palma de Mallorca, where the rental market has outstripped the needs and economic realities of residents, have introduced restrictions on short-term rentals. These measures include a halt to the issuance of new rental licenses on platforms like Airbnb and the imposition of time limits on tourist rentals in Palma (Stüve, 2024).

CONCLUSION

Overtourism can disrupt and negatively impact local lifestyles, as seen in cities like Barcelona, Paris, Berlin, Reykjavik, Kyoto, Bali, and Macau. There are various approaches to addressing the issue of overtourism (Butler & Dodds, 2022).

Overtourism is a multifaceted issue influenced by various societal, economic, and environmental factors. There is no simple solution, and addressing it requires a comprehensive approach. Recent research highlights the importance of education as a strategic tool to combat overtourism and potentially achieve long-term solutions (Wong, 2024).

Overtourism has become a pressing global challenge, with its negative impacts on local communities, ecosystems, and cultural heritage. To mitigate these effects, effective solutions are imperative. These include sustainable tourism practices, such as responsible consumption, community-based tourism, and eco-friendly accommodations. Diversifying tourism offerings, promoting off-peak travel, and implementing strict regulations to manage tourist flows can also help alleviate overtourism's burdens. Furthermore, investing in infrastructure and improving accessibility to lesser-known destinations can encourage a more balanced distribution of tourists. By adopting a holistic approach (as "Overtourism Belt" concept due to mostly countries share the same problems) that addresses both the causes and consequences of overtourism, we can ensure that tourism remains a sustainable and beneficial force for communities worldwide.

REFERENCES

APF (2024). France lays out strategy to combat 'overtourism' https://www.france24.com/en/france/20230619-france-lays-out-strategy-to-combat-overtourism Accessed on 22 July 2024.

Avetian, V., & Pauli, S. (2023). You Can't Sit with Us: How Locals and Tourists Compete for Amenities in Paris. *Available at SSRN 4585524.*

Becken, S., & Simmons, D. (2019). Stakeholder management: Different interests and different actions. In R. Dodds & R. W. Butler (Eds.), *Overtourism: Issues, realities and solutions* (pp. 234–249). Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter

Breda E., & C. Borghese (2005). Commercio mondiale di turismo e viaggi internazionali, mimeo

Burgen, S. (2018). "Tourists go home, refugees welcome": Why Barcelona chose migrants over visitors. *The Guardian*. www.theguardian.com/cities/2018/jun/25/tourists-go-home-refugees-welcome-why-barcelona-chose-migrants-over-visitors

Butler, R. W., & Dodds, R. (2022). Overcoming overtourism: a review of failure. *Tourism Review*, *77*(1), 35-53.

Cottam, B. (2024). Overtourism in Amsterdam. https://www.responsibletravel.com/holidays/the-netherlands/travel-guide/overtourism-in-amsterdam Accessed on 29 July 2024.

de Aldecoa Fuster, J. I. (2020). The fight for international tourism in the Mediterranean. https://www.caixabankresearch.com/en/sector-analysis/tourism/lucha-turismo-internacional-mediterraneo#footnote1_ia9qldn

Dodds, R., & Butler, R. W. (Eds.). (2019). *Overtourism: Issues, realities and solutions*. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter.

Dredge, D. (2017). "Overtourism" old wine in new bottles? LinkedIn. www. linkedin.com/pulse/overtourism-old-wine-new-bottles-dianne-dredge

ETC (2024). The European Travel Commission. European tourism reaches new highs in 2024 as travellers' plans diversify. https://etc-corporate.org/news/european-tourism-reaches-new-highs-in-2024-as-travellers-plans-diversify/ Accessed on 20 July 2024.

Euronews (2024). From Paris Syndrome to sky high prices: Is the City of Lights all it's cracked up to be? https://www.euronews.com/travel/2024/07/03/from-paris-syndrome-to-sky-high-prices-is-the-city-of-lights-all-its-cracked-up-to-be Accessed on 30 July 2024.

Euronews (2024). Venice's tourist tax trial ends: Why are critics calling it a 'failure' and how many people paid it? https://www.euronews.com/travel/2024/07/15/venices-tourist-tax-trial-ends-why-are-critics-calling-it-a-failure-and-how-many-people-pa Accessed on 20 July 2024.

Euronews (2024). Overrun Athens: How the Greek capital is finding solutions to the

tourist influx. https://www.euronews.com/2024/07/08/overrun-athens-how-the-greek-capital-is-finding-solutions-to-the-tourist-influx Accessed on 20 July 2024.

Euronews (2024). Overtourism protesters take over popular Mallorca beach demanding controls on visitor numbers. https://www.euronews.com/travel/2024/08/12/demonstrators-in-mallorca-protest-high-costs-of-housing-and-saturated-public-services Accessed on 25 July 2024.

Euronews (2024). Lisbon locals say tourist tuk-tuks are clogging the streets and making the city unliveable. https://www.euronews.com/travel/2024/08/19/how-the-iberian-holiday-hotspot-of-lisbon-is-handling-overtourism Accessed on 25 July 2024.

Eurostat (2024). Tourism statistics at regional level. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Tourism_statistics_at_regional_level Accessed on 21 July 2024.

Gössling, S., McCabe, S., & Chen, N. C. (2020). A socio-psychological conceptualisation of overtourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 84. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.annals.2020.102976

GRID-Arendal (2024). Tourism in the Mediterranean countries. https://www.grida.no/resources/5894 Accessed on 19 July 2024.

Herntrei, M. (2019). Tourist go home! Beobachtungen zu Overtourism und einer sinkenden Tourismusakzeptanz in Europa. Welche Folgen ergeben sich für Wissenschaft und Praxis? [Tourist go home! Observations on overtourism and decreasing tourism acceptance in Europe. What implications arise for science and practice?]. In H. Pechlaner (Ed.), *Destination und Lebensraum* (pp. 107–123). Springer Gabler.

Herntrei, M., & Jánová, V. (2024). From Carrying Capacity to Overtourism: The Changing Perspective in the Course of Time. In *From Overtourism to Sustainability Governance* (pp. 6-22). Routledge.

Kagermeier, A., & Erdmenger, E. (2019a). Das Phänomen Overtourism: Erkundungen am Eisberg unterhalb der Wasseroberfläche [The phenomenon of overtourism: Explorations on the iceberg below the water's surface]. In J. Reif & B. Eisenstein (Eds.), *Tourismus und Gesellschaft: Kontakte-Konflikte-Konzepte* (pp. 97–110). Berlin: Erich Schmidt Verlag.

Koens, K., Postma, A., & Papp, B. (2018). Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in a city context. *Sustainability*, 10(12), 43-84.

La Moncloa (2024). Spending by international tourists has grown by 21.8% up to May and exceeds 43.2 billion euros. https://www.lamoncloa.gob.es/lang/en/gobierno/news/Paginas/2024/20240703-international-tourists.aspx Accessed on 17 July 2024.

McKinsey & Company & World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC). (2017). Coping with success: Managing overcrowding in tourism destinations. www.mckinsey.com/~/media/mckinsey/industries/travel%20logistics%20and%20

infrastructure/our%20insights/ coping%20with%20success%20managing%20 overcrowding%20in%20tourism%20 destinations/coping-with-success-managing-overcrowding-in-tourism-destinations.pdf

Milano, C., Novelli, M., & Cheer, J. M. (2019). Overtourism and tourism phobia: A journey through four decades of tourism development, planning and local concerns. *Tourism Planning & Development,* 16(4), 353–357.

Mohanty, P., Nair, N.S., & Sharma, A.K. (2022). Overcoming overtourism through technology: the case of Asian Cities. In: Azizul H., ed. Technology Application in Tourism in Asia. Singapore: Springer; 2022, pp. 395–406. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-16-5461-9. Accessed 23 July 2014.

Novy, J., & Colomb, C. (2019). Urban tourism as a source of contention and social mobili- sations: A critical review. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 16(4), 358–375. https://doi. org/10.1080/21568316.2019.1577293.

Quintiliani, F. (2013). LA COMPETITIVITÀ DI PREZZO DEGLI HOTEL DELLA RIVIERA DELL'EMILIA-ROMAGNA E DI ALTRE REGIONI COSTIERE EUROPEE. *Il turismo internazionale in Italia: dati e risultati*, (12), 157-194.

Peeters, P., Gössling, S., Klijs, J., Milano, C., Novelli, M., Dijkmans, C., Eijgelaar, E., Hartman, S., Heslinga, J., Isaac, R., Mitas, O., Moretti, S., Nawijn, J., Papp, B., & Postma, A. (2018). Research for TRAN Committee – Overtourism: Impact and possible policy responses. European Parliament, Policy Department for Structural and Cohesion Policies. www.europarl.europa.eu/RegData/etudes/ STUD/2018/629184/ IPOL_STU(2018)629184_EN.pdf

Peterson, R., & DiPietro, R. B. (2021). Is Caribbean tourism in overdrive? Investigating the antecedents and effects of overtourism in sovereign and non-sovereign small island tourism economies (SITEs). *International Hospitality Review*, 35(1), 19-40.

Prakash, P. (2024). Italy is mulling a €25-a-night tax for tourists staying at its most expensive hotels to turn overtourism into economic gain. https://fortune.com/ europe/2024/08/30/italy-25-a-night-tourist-tax-venice-rome-most-expensive-hotels-overtourism/ Accessed 30 Agust 2014.

Rouquette, P. (2024). 'Tourists, go home!': Mass tourism exasperates locals in Europe and beyond. https://www.france24.com/en/europe/20240729-tourists-go-home-mass-tourism-exasperates-locals-in-spain-and-elsewhere-in-europe Accessed on 14 July 2024.

Seyhan, B. (2023). THE CONCEPTUAL GROUNDING OF OVERTOURISM AND OVERTOURISM-DRIVEN CHANGE: OLYMPOS CASE. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research (AHTR)* An International Journal of Akdeniz University Tourism Faculty ISSN: 2147-9100 (Print), 2148-7316 (Online) Webpage: http://www.ahtrjournal.org/ 2023 Vol. 11 (3) 417-442

Stüve, L. (2024). Locals bear the brunt of mass tourism in southern Europe. https:// www.dw.com/en/locals-bear-the-brunt-of-mass-tourism-in-southern-europe/a-69619068 Accessed on 12 July 2024.

Tornos News (2024). NBG: Greek tourism to break record in 2024 with 35 million arrivals and €22 billion in revenue. https://www.tornosnews.gr/en/greek-news/economy/50231-nbg-greek-tourism-to-break-record-in-2024-with-35-million-arrivals-and-e22-billion-in-revenue.html Accessed on 14 July 2024.

UNWTO (2005). Tourism Highlights, www.world-tourism.org. Accessed on 11 July 2024.

UNTWO (2024). International Tourism to Reach Pre-Pandemic Levels in 2024. https://www.unwto.org/news/international-tourism-to-reach-pre-pandemic-levels-in-2024 Accessed on 7 July 2024.

UNWTO (2024). "Overtourism"? – Understanding and Managing Urban Tourism Growth Beyond Perceptions, Executive Summary. https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/pdf/10.18111/9789284420070. Accessed on 30 July 2024

Wall, G. (2020). From carrying capacity to overtourism: A perspective article. *Tourism Review*, 75(1), 212–215. https://doi.org/10.1108/TR-08-20

WEF (2018). World Economic Forum. Overtourism is Becoming a Major Issue for Cities Across the Globe. https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2018/07/overtourism-a-growing-global-problem?DAG=3&gclid=EAIaIQobChMIo5LyovS-6gAMVC84WBR3Lsgk-EAMYASAAEgJ6wvD_BwE. Accessed on 10 July 2024.

Wong, A. (2024). Overtourism: Potential Short- and Long-Term Solutions. ASIAN PRODUCTIVITY ORGANIZATION. PRODUCTIVITY INSIGHTS Vol. 4-6.

World Tourism Organization (2024). World Tourism Barometer, volume 22, issue 2, May 2024, UN Tourism, Madrid, DOI: https://doi.org/10.18111/wtobarometereng Accessed on 08 July 2024.

WTTC (2024). Economic Impact Research. https://wttc.org/research/economic-impact Accessed on 28 July 2024.

Zibaoui, A. (2023). Mediterranean tourism: towards a positive change. Friedrich Naumann Foundation for Freedom. https://www.freiheit.org/spain-italy-portugal-and-mediterranean-dialogue/mediterranean-tourism-towards-positive-change Accessed on 09 July 2024.

Zogal, V., & Baykal, F. (2020). Geçmişten geleceğe Akdeniz ülkelerinde turizm. Cografya Dergisi, 41, 255-270. https://doi.org/10.26650/JGEOG2020-0071

www.liveinitalymag (2024). Combatting Overtourism in Italy: How Unexpected Italy is Leading the Charge. https://liveinitalymag.com/combatting-overtourism-in-italy-how-unexpected-italy-is-leading-the-charge/ Accessed on 19 July 2024.

Zeit Online. (2017, September 24). Die überbuchte Insel [The overbooked island]. www.   zeit.de/entdecken/reisen/2017-09/palma-de-mallorca-protest-gegen-touristen?utm_ referrer=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.google.fr%2
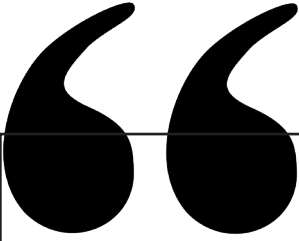
Chapter 10

UNDERSTANDING GREEN CRAFTING: A PATHWAY TO SUSTAINABLE WORK PRACTICES

Ramazan Özkan YILDIZ[1]

1 Bandırma Onyedi Eylul University, Maritime Faculty, Maritime Transportation and Management Engineering Department, email: ramazanyildiz@bandirma.edu.tr

Introduction

The increasing severity of global environmental issues has led to a growing emphasis on sustainability by companies aiming to harmonize economic development with environmental conservation and social accountability (Tnuputri and Bai, 2023). Stakeholder expectations, legal pressures, and the pressing need to combat climate change have made the transition to more sustainable business practices a need rather than a matter of choice (Beusch, 2014). The effectiveness of company strategies and policies in promoting sustainability depends on employee initiatives and active participation at all organizational levels (Tuan, 2017). The acknowledgement of this fact has ignited an increasing curiosity about how employees might actively participate in sustainability initiatives through their operational procedures. Central to this discourse is the notion of green crafting, an innovative methodology that enables employees to incorporate sustainability into their many responsibilities in a manner that is both significant and influential (Kilic and Kitapci, 2022).

Green crafting refers to the deliberate actions taken by employees to modify and redefine their job responsibilities, interactions, and attitudes in order to conform to sustainability objectives (Zhang et al., 2021). Unlike conventional job crafting, which prioritizes customization to improve job satisfaction and performance, green crafting stems from a commitment to environmental and social responsibility (Luu, 2019). It motivates people to assume responsibility for sustainability by adapting their work methods to minimize their environmental impact, save resources, and advocate for sustainable standards (Luu, 2023). The practice of green crafting enables individuals to integrate sustainability into their work identity and contributions by selecting environmentally friendly materials and implementing green initiatives within teams (Tuan, 2021).

The efficacy of green crafting resides in its capacity to convert sustainability from a hierarchical endeavor into a vibrant, grassroots movement (Elshaer et al., 2023). Encouraging employees to engage in green crafting not only helps the organization achieve its sustainability objectives, but also fosters a culture that deeply integrates sustainability into the firm's values and operations. This cultural transition has the potential to bring about enduring transformation as employees start to perceive sustainability as an integral aspect of their responsibilities rather than a distinct or external mandatory duty. Furthermore, firms can improve work satisfaction, boost employee engagement, and foster a sense of shared purpose that connects personal and organizational values by empowering individuals to design their jobs based on sustainability (Tuan, 2020).

This chapter explores the notion of green crafting as an essential approach to promoting sustainable work practices in organizational settings. The goal is to provide a thorough investigation of green crafting, including its theoretical underpinnings, scope, and potential influence on both individual employees

and the wider business. Through this investigation, the chapter aims to clarify how green crafting can function as a potent instrument for integrating sustainability into the fundamental aspects of organizational behaviour and promoting enduring environmental and social advancement.

By conceptualizing green crafting as more than a mere collection of individual actions but rather as a deliberate method towards sustainability, organizations may unleash the capacity of their employees to make valuable contributions towards a more sustainable future. Whether by means of minor, routine activities or more extensive, structural modifications, green crafting provides employees with a means to actively participate in influencing the sustainability story within their organizations. This leads to the creation of workplaces that are not only more efficient and innovative but also more resilient and accountable in response to global challenges.

Green Crafting

Definition and Origins

Green crafting is a deliberate process in which people modify their job activities, interactions, and mindset to directly integrate sustainability into their professional responsibilities. This notion expands upon the more comprehensive theory of job crafting, which entails employees modifying their work to align more effectively with their talents, values, and interests (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). Nevertheless, green crafting sets itself apart by specifically prioritising sustainability as a fundamental principle. According to Rózsa et al. (2023), employees who participate in green crafting practices actively strive to minimise their ecological footprint, contribute to social responsibility, and synchronise their work with the sustainability objectives of their organisation.

The convergence of job crafting theory and the growing focus on sustainability within company environments led to the inception of green crafting. The notion of job crafting, proposed by Wrzesniewski and Dutton (2001), explains how employees adapt their occupations to better match their individual identities and work preferences. In due course, with the increasing importance of sustainability for both organisations and societies, green crafting developed as a logical expansion of job crafting. This transformation shifted the emphasis from individual satisfaction to the responsible management of the environment and the social obligations (Grant et al., 2008). The aforementioned development is indicative of the increasing acknowledgement that the activities of individuals in the workplace have a significant impact on overall sustainability efforts (Ehnert and Harry, 2012).

Several theoretical frameworks underpin green crafting, including self-determination theory, which highlights the significance of autonomy, competence, and relatedness in inspiring people to take initiative. Self-determina-

tion theory suggests that granting employees the autonomy to shape their jobs according to their beliefs, such as sustainability, increases their likelihood of generating intrinsic motivation and happiness at work (Deci and Ryan, 2000). Organisations can cultivate a sense of empowerment and ownership by facilitating employees' ability to design their responsibilities with sustainability as a primary consideration, resulting in heightened dedication towards environmental and social objectives (Van den Broeck et al., 2010).

Furthermore, green crafting is in accordance with the concepts of environmental psychology, which investigates the impact of individuals' surroundings on their behaviours and how they might reciprocally influence their surroundings in sustainable manners (Steg & Vlek, 2009). Research in environmental psychology indicates that employees who see their workplace as environmentally aware are more inclined to participate in environment friendly actions (Gifford, 2014). Employees take an active role in shaping a sustainable workplace by engaging in green crafts, thus exerting influence on both the organisation's practices and the behaviours of their colleagues (Norton et al., 2015).

Moreover, green crafts can be associated with pro-environmental behaviour (PEB) theories, which analyse the factors that motivate individuals to engage in environmentally positive activities in both personal and professional settings (Stern, 2000). Theoretical perspectives suggest that green crafting enables employees to incorporate their own environmental values into their professional responsibilities, therefore strengthening their dedication to sustainability and promoting favourable environmental conduct throughout the company (Bissing-Olson et al., 2013).

Ultimately, green crafting offers employees a significant opportunity to actively support sustainability by modifying their responsibilities to minimise environmentally harmful effects and advance social accountability. By incorporating concepts from job crafting, self-determination, environmental psychology, and pro-environmental behaviour, green crafting emphasises the influence of individual behaviours in attaining wider sustainability results. Employees may synchronise their personal beliefs with the organisation's objectives by following green crafting practices, thereby cultivating a workplace culture that places sustainability and long-term well-being as top priorities.

Types of Green Crafting

Green crafting can take on many manifestations, each of which encompasses distinct facets of an employee's responsibilities. These aspects of green crafts enable employees to customise their approach to sustainability in accordance with their own job duties and work setting. We can divide green crafting into three main categories: task crafting, relational crafting, and cognitive crafting (Geldenhuys et al., 2020). These dimensions offer employees distinct avenues to incorporate sustainability into their job, therefore exemplifying a

comprehensive approach to environmental accountability in the workplace.

Task crafting is the process of adapting the particular activities or responsibilities linked to one's occupation in order to align them with more ecologically sustainable practices. To mitigate their environmental footprint and support the sustainability objectives of the organisation, staff can modify their work practices (Lanke et al., 2024). For instance, a factory employee may identify methods to minimise waste in the production process, such as the optimisation of raw material utilisation or the recycling of by-products. Furthermore, a marketer may give precedence to environmentally conscious communication in advertising efforts, endorsing products that are in line with sustainable consumer habits (Oldham and Fried, 2016).

Task crafting enables employees to incorporate green practices into their regular work routines by deliberately selecting methods, resources, and processes that promote sustainability (Kira et al., 2010). This may encompass minor measures, such as transitioning to digital documentation to decrease paper usage, or more extensive strategies, such as restructuring processes to minimise resource consumption and energy consumption (Walumbwa et al., 2021). Numerous studies have demonstrated that employees who actively participate in task creation not only make positive contributions to environmental results but also encounter higher levels of job satisfaction and a feeling of personal achievement. Organisations can cultivate a culture of ongoing improvement and innovation in green practice by enabling staff to assume responsibility for their sustainability initiatives (Berg et al., 2010).

Relational crafting is the deliberate effort to establish and nurture relationships with colleagues in order to enhance sustainability (Cinar and Basim, 2022). Workforce members can use their personal networks to promote and enhance sustainability efforts by collaborating with colleagues who also prioritize environmental concerns. For example, establishing green teams or committees inside the company can provide a forum for employees to exchange ideas, resources, and exemplary methods for sustainability (Norton et al., 2015). Interdepartmental collaboration in relational crafting refers to the collective efforts of employees to incorporate sustainable practices in several sectors of the organisation, including procurement, logistics, and product design (Sarkis et al., 2010).

Relational crafting enables employees to cultivate a culture of collaboration and collective accountability towards sustainability (Luu, 2022b). The interplay of social factors inside an organisation is of utmost importance in determining environmental behaviours. Relational crafting empowers employees to exert influence on others by establishing exemplary behaviour and promoting environmentally friendly practices (Li et al., 2022). Through the establishment of connections with colleagues who share similar beliefs and

values, employees can collaboratively initiate change and provide mutual assistance in environmentally friendly projects, generating a synergistic impact that goes beyond individual efforts. This collaborative strategy not only improves the efficiency of sustainability initiatives, but it also reinforces the company's social cohesion by fostering a group of environmentally conscious staff members (Gifford, 2014).

Cognitive crafting is the process of altering one's mental structure to prioritize sustainability in their professional endeavours. This entails redefining employees' perception of their responsibilities, transitioning from a solely task-focused perspective to one that includes a wider objective connected to sustainability (Constantini, 2022). For example, a sales manager may start to perceive their responsibility not only with respect to achieving sales objectives but also in relation to advocating for environmentally friendly items that have advantages for both the organization and the environment. To incorporate sustainability into their professional identity and approach their work with a refreshed sense of purpose, employees can modify their cognitive framework (Sharma and Jaiswal, 2018).

Cognitive crafting prompts employees to consider the environmental and social consequences of their work, therefore promoting a stronger alignment with the organisation's sustainability objective (Kilic and Kitapci, 2022). The significance of this cognitive change lies in its capacity to facilitate employees' internalisation of sustainability as a fundamental principle, therefore having an impact on their decision-making and behaviours within the workplace. Evidence indicates that employees who perceive their job from a sustainability perspective are more inclined to participate in proactive environmental actions and support the achievement of long-term organizational sustainability objectives (Constantini, 2022). Furthermore, cognitive crafting fosters a feeling of personal congruence with the ideals of the organisation, therefore augmenting staff involvement and dedication to sustainability efforts (Zafar et al., 2023).

Green Crafting vs. Traditional Job Crafting

Although both green crafting and traditional job crafting involve people actively designing their work, they differ fundamentally in terms of their main focus, underlying motivations, and intended results. The core focus of traditional job crafting is to improve personal job happiness, engagement, and performance by properly matching work duties with individual skills, preferences, and values (Wrzesniewski and Dutton, 2001). This form of crafting enables employees to adapt their professional responsibilities in order to enhance the satisfaction and significance of their occupations on an individual level, frequently motivated by the aspiration for increased independence, expertise, and direction in their work. However, conventional job design focuses primarily on the individual employee without taking into account larger organi-

zational or societal objectives.

The main goal of green crafting is not only to improve subjective job satisfaction but also to synchronise individual activities with the organisation's environmental and social goals. Green crafting encourages employees to adopt environmentally conscious practices, seamlessly integrating sustainability concepts into their daily activities, interactions, and attitudes. In contrast to conventional job crafting, which mainly caters to the unique requirements of individuals, green crafting has a twofold objective: augmenting personal satisfaction while also making significant contributions towards broader environmental and social objectives. The wider scope of green crafting intrinsically fosters a sense of communal and purpose-driven engagement, as it links individual endeavours to the organisation's sustainability mission and, consequently, to global sustainability initiatives (Norton et al., 2015).

The increased level of duty and accountability associated with green crafting is a fundamental difference between it and conventional crafting. Engaging in green crafts not only allows employees to redefine their positions and enhance their personal experiences, but it also empowers them to serve as custodians of sustainability within their organizations. This is a dedication to making choices and implementing measures that have beneficial effects on the environment and society, frequently necessitating employees to be aware of how their performance contributes to wider sustainability objectives (Lovelace et al., 2007). For instance, green crafting may encompass not only the reduction of resource usage in one's professional duties but also the promotion of more sustainable practices throughout the organisation, therefore impacting the combined endeavours of the whole workforce (Gifford, 2014).

Moreover, green crafting routinely requires a greater degree of cooperation and creativity in comparison to conventional job crafting. Although traditional job crafting is mostly an individualistic pursuit, prioritizing the restructuring of one's own responsibilities and connections, green crafting often necessitates employees to actively participate with others, establish green teams, or exert influence on cross-departmental projects that aim to promote sustainability. The collaborative aspect of green crafting highlights its collective focus, where people are not only designing their professions for personal gain but also making contributions to a broader objective that helps both the organisation and society as a whole (Sarkis et al., 2010).

The deliberate emphasis on sustainability also lends intricacy and importance to green crafting, which is less common in conventional job crafting. The practice of green crafting compels employees to consider the environmental and social consequences of their jobs, motivating them to generate innovative solutions that can bring about beneficial transformations beyond their direct responsibilities. As a result, green crafting typically entails addressing

obstacles that extend beyond personal job satisfaction, such as integrating sustainability efforts with corporate objectives, participating in the promotion of environmentally friendly methods, and assessing their wider influence. The profound impact of green crafting lies in its ability to integrate sustainability into the fundamental structure of the organization's activities, thereby converting individual job crafting endeavours into a unified catalyst for change (Zafar et al., 2023).

To summarize, while both green crafting and regular job crafting enable employees to assume mastery over their work, green crafting stands out due to its specific emphasis on sustainability results. It converts job crafting from a practice focused on individuals into a collaborative endeavour that benefits both the organisation and the broader society (Constantini, 2022). By comprehending these distinctions, organisations can enhance their support for green crafting projects, cultivating a workplace culture that incorporates sustainability into all facets of work and motivates people to actively engage in the organisation's sustainability endeavours. Promoting green crafting not only enhances employees' sense of purpose, but it also stimulates organizational innovation and reinforces long-term environmental and social resilience.

The Role and Importance of Green Crafting in Fostering Sustainable Work Practices

By enabling employees to actively shape their work in accordance with environmental and social objectives, green crafting plays a vital role in integrating sustainability into the workplace. Given the growing recognition of sustainability's significance by organisations, green crafting has emerged as a grassroots method that enhances top-down sustainability policies by allowing people to directly contribute to organisational sustainability efforts. Through the promotion of environmentally friendly actions and the incorporation of green crafting with green human resources management (HRM), it facilitates the implementation of sustainable work methods and significantly changes the culture inside an organisation.

Green crafting is a crucial catalyst for employees' green behaviour, which encompasses the activities and attitudes that individuals demonstrate to reduce their adverse environmental effects and promote sustainability objectives (Zhang and Liu, 2022). Green crafting refers to the deliberate modification of tasks, relationships, and attitudes by employees in order to integrate environmentally friendly practices into their daily jobs. Such self-initiated behaviour is consistent with the notion of proactive environmental behaviour, which entails assuming personal accountability for sustainability and actively pursuing chances to create a beneficial influence (Norton et al., 2015).

Green crafting's capacity to profoundly and enduringly shape employees' green behaviour is a key contribution to sustainable work practices. Dumont

et al. (2017) demonstrated that when employees are given the authority to design their work in environmentally aware manners, they are more inclined to embrace ecologically friendly actions, such as waste reduction, energy conservation, and the promotion of sustainability projects among their colleagues. Organisations foster an environment where green behaviour becomes an inherent and essential aspect of the workday by granting employees the freedom to shape their roles, rather than only as an externally mandated obligation (Zhang et al., 2023).

Furthermore, green crafting fosters a greater sense of ownership and dedication to sustainability among employees. When individuals have the opportunity to tailor their work to align with their personal beliefs, like environmental stewardship, they are more likely to find satisfaction in their environmentally friendly actions and persist in them (Zeina, 2023). The cultivation of a culture of sustainability necessitates the important aspect of personal responsibility and engagement, wherein personnel at all levels of the organisation not only promote but actively engage in green behaviours (Hameed et al., 2022). Also, the practice of green crafting can result in a spill over effect when employees' green behaviour impact others in the workplace. When employees adopt relationship crafting strategies such as establishing green teams or working together with colleagues on sustainability initiatives, they have the potential to motivate their peers to embrace comparable environmentally friendly behaviours (Nisar et al., 2021). By fostering a culture of shared responsibility for sustainability, this collaborative effort enhances the influence of individual green crafting initiatives throughout the organization.

The concept of green crafting is crucial in strengthening and promoting Green Human Resource Management (Green HRM) practices, which aim to include sustainability into human resource management. Green HRM encompasses a range of strategies, such as green recruitment, green training and development, green performance management, and green awards, aimed at inspiring and supporting employees in their efforts to foster sustainability (Renwick et al., 2013). By granting employees the freedom to customise their sustainability initiatives within the context of the company's green HR policy, green crafting supports green HRM (Gilal et al., 2019). For example, green training and development programs can provide employees with the necessary knowledge and skills to participate in green crafting. This includes recognising possibilities for enhancing sustainability in their work and establishing connections with others who are determined to achieve environmental objectives. Green crafting functions as a pragmatic implementation of the concepts advocated by Green HRM, enabling employees to internalise and incorporate sustainability into their everyday tasks (Ren et al., 2018).

Moreover, the use of green HRM practices can augment the efficiency of green crafting by establishing a conducive atmosphere that promotes and in-

centivises environmentally friendly actions. For instance, the implementation of green performance management systems that acknowledge and incentivise employees for their ecological contributions might be a catalyst for increased employee participation in green crafting (Jabbour and Santos, 2008). Moreover, the implementation of environmentally friendly recruitment strategies that give priority to individuals who have a robust dedication to sustainability might attract new employees who are more inclined to adopt green crafts as an integral aspect of their professional responsibilities (Renwick et al., 2013).

From a strategic standpoint, green crafting is extremely beneficial for organizations seeking to integrate sustainability into their fundamental operations. Organisations can foster a workforce that is engaged, innovative, and aligned with the company's environmental and social goals by mobilising people to actively contribute to the promotion of sustainability through green crafting (Alsheref et al., 2024). Implementing this proactive strategy towards sustainability not only improves the organisation's standing as a socially responsible entity, but it also strengthens its long-term potential to withstand challenges by guaranteeing the integration of sustainable practices at every level of the organisation (Gómez-Trujillo et al., 2020).

Furthermore, green crafting has the potential to stimulate creativity by enabling employees to explore novel workflows that minimise ecological footprints (Luu, 2022a). Frontline employees often hold unique viewpoints regarding the adaptation of duties to improve sustainability. By granting workers the autonomy to design their occupations, organisations can harness this capacity for creativity (Norton et al., 2015). This has the potential to facilitate the emergence of novel procedures, goods, or services that promote sustainability and provide value for the organisation.

In summary, green crafting is essential in facilitating sustainable work practices through the promotion of employees' green behaviour and its integration with green HRM. This approach enables employees to assume personal accountability for sustainability, boosts involvement, and stimulates creativity, all while synchronising individual endeavours with the objectives of the organisation. As organisations increasingly focus on sustainability, green crafting will become a crucial instrument for integrating sustainability into the workplace and ensuring that employees actively contribute to the pursuit of a more sustainable future.

Conclusion

The goal of this book chapter was to provide a comprehensive understanding of the concept of green crafting and its critical contribution to promoting sustainable work practices. At a time when sustainability is no longer optional but essential, this chapter emphasises how green crafting enables employees to redefine their responsibilities by prioritising environmental conservation

and social accountability. Within the context of organizational sustainability objectives, this chapter provides a thorough examination of how green crafting functions as a potent instrument for instigating significant transformation and progress.

The significance of green crafting lies in its ability to transform the workplace into a centre of sustainability, where each employee takes an active role in the organization's environmentally conscious endeavours. This strategy transcends conventional job crafting by integrating sustainability into daily work activities, interactions, and attitudes. This process transforms individual activities into collaborative endeavours that directly contribute to the attainment of wider environmental and social goals.

Furthermore, the chapter emphasises the critical role of green human resource management (green HRM) in enabling green crafts practice. Through the integration of green crafting with green HRM practices, organisations may guarantee that sustainability is not only a directive from higher authorities but also a tangible and experienced reality for all employees. This congruence between human resources strategies and employee-led initiatives fosters a workplace culture in which sustainability flourishes at all levels.

The objective of this chapter is to motivate organisations to adopt green design as a fundamental element of their sustainability plans. Through enabling employees to assume responsibility for their positions in the green movement, organisations can foster a culture characterised by creativity, accountability, and environmental obligations. In essence, green crafting serves as a means to establish work environments that boast not only high efficiency and productivity but also resilience, sustainability, and preparedness to confront future obstacles.

Ultimately, green crafting signifies a paradigmatic shift in our perspective on labour and environmental responsibility. It serves to connect the progress of individual endeavours with the objectives of an organisation, therefore transforming sustainability from a remote concept into a concrete and practical aspect of daily life. By adopting green crafting, organizations can build a future where sustainability permeates every aspect of the workplace through individual actions, mindsets, and relationships.

References

Alsheref, F.K., Khairy, H.A., Alsetoohy, O., Elsawy, O., Fayyad, S., Salama, M., Al-Romeedy, B.S. and Soliman, S.A.E.M. (2024). Catalysing green identity and sustainable advantage in tourism and hotel businesses. *Sustainability*, 16(12), 5267. https://doi.org/10.3390/su16125267

Berg, J. M., Wrzesniewski, A. and Dutton, J. E. (2010). Perceiving and responding to challenges in job crafting at different ranks: When proactivity requires adaptivity. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 31(2-3), 158–186. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.645

Beusch, P. (2014). Towards sustainable capitalism in the development of higher education business school curricula and management. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 28(5), 523-545. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijem-12-2012-0132

Bissing-Olson, M., Iyer, A., Fielding, K. and Zacher, H. (2013). Relationships between daily affect and pro-environmental behavior at work: the moderating role of pro-environmental attitude. *Journal of Organizational Behaviour*, 34(2), 156-175. https://doi.org/10.1002/job.1788

Cinar, E. and Basim, H. (2022). Who desires to stay? the role of relational job crafting on the intention to stay with the mediating role of workplace friendship. *Journal of East European management Studies*, 27(4), 583-611. https://doi.org/10.5771/0949-6181-2022-4-583

Costantini, A. (2022). Rethinking work: how approach and avoidance features of cognitive crafting are linked with job crafting behaviours and work engagement. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 1-21. https://doi.org/10.1017/jmo.2022.79

Deci, E. L., and Ryan, R. M. (2000). The "What" and "Why" of Goal Pursuits: Human Needs and the Self-Determination of Behaviour. *Psychological Inquiry*, 11(4), 227-268. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327965PLI1104_01

Dumont, J., Shen, J. and Deng, X. (2017). Effects of green HRM practices on employee workplace green behaviour: The role of psychological green climate and employee green values. *Human Resource Management*, 56(4), 613–627. https://doi.org/10.1002/hrm.21792

Ehnert, I. and Harry, W. (2012). Recent developments and future prospects on sustainable human resource management: introduction to the special issue. *Management Revu*, 23(3), 221-238. https://doi.org/10.5771/0935-9915-2012-3-221

Elshaer, I.A., Azazz, A.M.S., Kooli, C., Alshebami, A.S., Zeina, M.M.A. and Fayyad, S. (2023). Environmentally specific servant leadership and brand citizenship behaviour: the role of green-crafting behaviour and employee-perceived meaningful work. *European Journal of Investigation in Health Psychology and Education*, 13(6), 1097-1116. https://doi.org/10.3390/ejihpe13060083

Geldenhuys, M., Bakker, A. and Demerouti, E. (2020). How task, relational and cognitive crafting relate to job performance: a weekly diary study on the role of

meaningfulness. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 30(1), 83-94. https://doi.org/10.1080/1359432x.2020.1825378

Gifford, R. (2014). Environmental psychology matters. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 65(1), 541-579. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-psych-010213-115048

Gilal, F., Ashraf, Z., Gilal, N., Gilal, R. and Chaana, N. (2019). Promoting environmental performance through green human resource management practices in higher education institutions: a moderated mediation model. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 26(6), 1579-1590. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.1835

Gómez-Trujillo, A., Veléz-Ocampo, J. and Gonzalez-Perez, M. (2020). A literature review on the causality between sustainability and corporate reputation. *Management of Environmental Quality an International Journal*, 31(2), 406-430. https://doi.org/10.1108/meq-09-2019-0207

Grant, A., Dutton, J. and Rosso, B. (2008). Giving commitment: employee support programs and the prosocial sensemaking process. Academy of Management Journal, 51(5), 898-918. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2008.34789652

Hameed, R., Mahmood, A. and Shoaib, M. (2022). The role of green human resource practices in fostering green corporate social responsibility. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2022.792343

Jabbour, C. J. C. and Santos, F. C. A. (2008). The central role of human resource management in the search for sustainable organizations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(12), 2133–2154. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585190802479389

Kilic, E. and Kitapçı, H. (2022). Cognitive job crafting: an intervening mechanism between intrinsic motivation and affective well-being. *Management Research Review*, 46(7), 1043-1058. https://doi.org/10.1108/mrr-08-2021-0605

Kira, M., Eijnatten, F. and Balkin, D. (2010). crafting sustainable work: development of personal resources. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 23(5), 616-632. https://doi.org/10.1108/09534811011071315

Lanke, P., Nath, P., Verma, S. and Singh, V. (2024). The past, present and the future of job crafting research: A retrospective review. *Australian Journal of Career Development*, 33(1), 57-71. https://doi.org/10.1177/10384162241227718

Li, Z., Yu, H. and Liyun, X. (2022). the impact of green culture on employees' green behaviour: the mediation role of environmental awareness. *Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management*, 30(3), 1325-1335. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.2422

Lovelace, K. J., Manz, C. C. and Alves, J. C. (2007). Work stress and leadership development: The role of self-leadership, shared leadership, physical fitness and flow in managing demands and increasing job control. *Human Resource Management Review*, 17(4), 374–387. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2007.08.001

Luu, T. T. (2019). Green human resource practices and organizational citizenship be-

haviour for the environment: the roles of collective green crafting and environmentally specific servant leadership. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(8), 1167-1196, doi: 10.1080/09669582.2019.1601731.

Luu, T.T. (2022a). Fostering green service innovation perceptions through green entrepreneurial orientation: the roles of employee green creativity and customer involvement. International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality management, 34(7), 2640-2663. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-09-2021-1136

Luu, T.T. (2022b). Translating responsible leadership into team customer relationship performance in the tourism context: the role of collective job crafting. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 35(5), 1620-1649. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-01-2022-0095

Luu, T. T. (2023). Can green creativity be fostered? Unfolding the roles of perceived green human resource management practices, dual mediation paths, and perceived environmentally-specific authentic leadership. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 34(6), 1246-1273. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2021.1986107

Nisar, Q.A., Haider, S., Ali, F., Jamshed, S., Ryu, K. and Gill, S.S. (2021). Green human resource management practices and environmental performance in Malaysian green hotels: the role of green intellectual capital and pro-environmental behaviour. *Journal of Cleaner Production,* 311, 127504. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2021.127504

Norton, T. A., Parker, S. L., Zacher, H. and Ashkanasy, N. M. (2015). Employee Green Behaviour: A Theoretical Framework, Multilevel Review, and Future Research Agenda. *Organization & Environment*, 28(1), 103-125. https://doi.org/10.1177/1086026615575773

Oldham, G. R. and Fried, Y. (2016). Job design research and theory: past, present and future. *Organizational Behaviour and Human Decision Processes*, 136, 20-35. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2016.05.002

Ren, S., Tang, G. and Jackson, S. (2018). Green human resource management research in emergence: A review and future directions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 35(3), 769–803. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-017-9532-1

Renwick, D. W. S., Redman, T. and Maguire, S. (2013). Green Human Resource Management: A Review and Research Agenda. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 15(1), 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2370.2011.00328.x

Rózsa, Z., Folvarčná, A., Holúbek, J. and Veselá, Z. (2023). Job crafting and sustainable work performance: a systematic literature review. *Equilibrium Quarterly Journal of Economics and Economic Policy*, 18(3), 717-750. https://doi.org/10.24136/eq.2023.023

Sarkis, J., González-Torre, P. and Adenso-Díaz, B. (2010). Stakeholder pressure and the adoption of environmental practices: the mediating effect of training. *Journal of Operations Management,* 28(2), 163-176. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jom.2009.10.001

Sharma, A. and Jaiswal, A. K. (2018). Unsustainability of Sustainability: Cognitive Frames and Tensions in Bottom of the Pyramid Projects. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 148(2), 291-307. https://doi.org/10.1007/sl0551-017-35

Tanuputri, M. and Bai, H. (2023). A framework to build a resilient supply chain: a case study of Javanese tea in Indonesia. *The International Journal of Logistics Management*, 34(6), 1629-1648. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijlm-11-2021-0558

Tuan, L. T. (2017). CSR and organizational citizenship behaviour for the environment in hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 29(11), 2867-2900. https://doi.org/10.1108/ijchm-02-2016-0080

Tuan, L.T. (2020). Environmentally-specific servant leadership and green creativity among tourism employees: dual mediation paths. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(1), 86-109, doi: 10.1080/09669582.2019.1675674.

Tuan, L. T. (2021). Effects of environmentally-specific servant leadership on green performance via green climate and green crafting. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 38(3), 925-953. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10490-019-09687-9

Steg, L. and Vlek, C. (2009). Encouraging pro-environmental behaviour: an integrative review and research agenda. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 29(3), 309-317. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2008.10.004

Stern, P. (2000). New environmental theories: toward a coherent theory of environmentally significant behaviour. *Journal of Social Issues*, 56(3), 407-424. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00175

Walumbwa, F., Christensen-Salem, A., Babalola, M., Kasimu, P., Garba, O. and Guo, L. (2021). A closer look at how and when family-supportive supervision influence work interference with family: the roles of family-role overload and task crafting. *The International Journal of Human resource management*, 33(19), 3850-3878. https://doi.org/10.1080/09585192.2021.1939761

Wrzesniewski, A. and Dutton, J. E. (2001). Crafting a Job: Revisioning Employees as Active Crafters of Their Work. *Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 179-201. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2001.4378011

Van den Broeck, A., Vansteenkiste, M., Lens, W. and Witte, H. (2010). Unemployed individuals' work values and job flexibility: an explanation from expectancy-value theory and self-determination theory. *Applied Psychology*, 59(2), 296-317. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1464-0597.2009.00391.x

Zafar H., Malik A., Gugnani R., Agarwal R. and Nijjer S. (2023). Green thumbs at work: Boosting employee eco-participation through ecocentric leadership, green crafting, and green human resource management. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 432, 139718. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2023.139718

Zeina, M. (2023). Environmentally specific servant leadership and brand citizenship behaviour: the role of green-crafting behaviour and employee-perceived meaningful work. *European Journal of Investigation in Health Psychology and Education*, 13(6), 1097-1116. https://doi.org/10.3390/ejihpe13060083

Zhang C, and Liu L. (2022). Job crafting and social relationships (guanxi): The effect of psychological contract fulfilment on employees' green behaviour. *Environmental Engineering and Management Journal.* 21(6), 903–13. DOI: 10.30638/eemj.2022.082

Zhang, J., Ul-Durar, S., Akhtar, M., Zhang, Y., and Lu, L. (2021). How does responsible leadership affect employees' voluntary workplace green behaviours? a multilevel dual process model of voluntary workplace green behaviours. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 296, 113205. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvman.2021.113205

Zhang, W., Zhang, W. and Daim, T.U., 2023. The voluntary green behaviour in green technology innovation: the dual effects of green human resource management system and leader green traits. *Journal of Business Research.* 165, 114049. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2023.114049
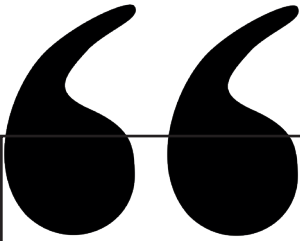
Chapter 11

ACCOUNTING FOR CLIMATE CHANGE: CARBON PRICING AND IMPAIRMENT ANALYSIS

Ferah YILDIZ[1]

1   Kocaeli University, Faculty of Business Administration, Department of Business Administration, ORCID: 0000-0003-3374-1297

1. INTRODUCTION

The significance of climate change is on the rise in the business realm as companies strive to fulfill sustainability objectives by factoring in carbon emissions and climate related risks, in their reporting procedures. This research aims to explore how climate change influences accounting practices and methodologies. Climate change is recognized as a factor that could reduce the value of a company's assets significantly and therefore should be considered a risk to be included in reports (Jones and Solomon 2013). This research project aims to delve into accounting issues, like the complexities of carbon pricing and carbon credits as impairment evaluations with real world examples showcasing how companies tackle these hurdles effectively. The focus of this study will be on investigating the effects of carbon pricing mechanisms and asset devaluation due to climate change on reporting procedures, in depth. The main goal of the study is to evaluate how carbon pricing and impairment evaluations impact statements. The research will also delve into topics, like carbon taxes and approaches linked to carbon trading. Lets look into how impairment calculations conform to accounting norms in this situation and scrutinize the impacts of reporting requirements on climate change and carbon pricing as outlined in the 2020 report, by the IFRS Foundation.

The impact of climate change can have an effect, on businesses by changing how they operate and impacting their long term success well as directly affecting their performance levels.| Energy companies often face challenges in cutting down carbon emissions to fulfill their commitments.| Typically these costs are managed through approaches, like carbon pricing or trading carbon credits (Hassel et al., 2005). | It's important for organizations to adapt to evaluate the risks and opportunities linked with climate change. Climate change has the potential to alter the value of assets by increasing risks. May require an assessment, for impairment in reports to address this issue as highlighted by Lee and colleagues in 2015 When the recognized value of an asset exceeds its anticipated economic benefits because of impairment adjustments are considered necessary in accounting records Recognizing that uncertainties associated with climate change can impact financial returns, from assets emphasizes the importance of conducting a thorough impairment evaluation

The research will investigate climate change and carbon pricing within this literature review by referencing sources, like articles and reports on accounting standards, for data analysis purposes. The study will focus on exploring the methods of conducting carbon pricing and impairment analyses with real world examples across industries within four sections that reflect the significance of climate change, in accounting practices. The initial part will cover the accounting aspects related to climate change and elaborate on the idea of sustainability accounting whereas the subsequent part will assess the impact of measures, like carbon pricing and carbon trading on accounting practices fol-

lowed by an examination of how impairment analyses and climate change risks influence asset values, in the section. Based on these discoveries and insights, from the section, tips and real-world instances will be shared regarding how companies can address the challenges posed by climate change and navigate reporting requirements moving forward.

2. ACCOUNTING DIMENSIONS OF CLIMATE CHANGE

In todays world of business operations sustainability holds a role, in considering the accounting aspects related to climate change impact well as financial data analysis alone may not suffice anymore for an organizations comprehensive view, towards environmental risks and responsibilities to reduce carbon emissions and manage environmental footprints which in turn contributes towards providing transparent information to their stakeholders and investors alike. Regulatory bodies, like the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) along with the Task Force, on Climate related Financial Disclosures (TCFD) advocate for incorporating climate change risks into reporting to help businesses make decisions on minimizing their environmental footprints (Busch et al., 2016).

The impact of climate change extends beyond the aspect of businesses; it also influences the worth of their assets and future activities significantly. Research conducted by Lieson et al. in 2015 suggests that as the frequency of disasters and the implementation of environmental regulations continue to drive up operational costs, for companies and potentially impact profits negatively due to climate change related factors; it becomes crucial for businesses to incorporate climate related risks into their strategic planning to ensure sustainable progress, in their operations. Ignoring these dangers could expose businesses to risks identified in research studies. Therefore, it is essential to monitor these risks through reports not, for investors but also as a valuable source of information. Lately there's a push to spread awareness, about climate change that highlights the significance of incorporating accounting methods into business operations and plans. It's not about keeping tabs on finances Green accounting provides companies with a means to evaluate and disclose information such as greenhouse gas emissions and specifics regarding energy consumption patterns as waste management strategies that extend beyond fundamental utilities. These aspects are essential, in aiding businesses in achieving their sustainability goals. Studies have shown that combining these approaches can improve a companys capacity to overcome challenges and bolster its achievements (Gallegro Alvarez et al., 2015).

2.1. The Concept of Sustainability Accounting

Many companies nowadays include sustainability accounting in their reports by evaluating their effects beyond profits using a method that looks at more, than financial gains (Schaltegger et al. 2017). This system offers a per-

spective that considers the impact of businesses on the community and nature while also handling resource usage and greenhouse gas emissions along, with social responsibility programs that help decision makers shape their strategies.

In todays business landscape companies are shifting their focus from pursuing profits to placing an emphasis, on environmental conservation efforts as a core priority. One crucial element in achieving these goals is sustainability accounting. A concept that was emphasized by Bebbington and Unerman in 2018. This approach aims to improve the transparency of reporting processes to assist organizations in meeting their sustainability objectives and building trust with stakeholders. By addressing aspects of sustainability accounting such, as reducing carbon emissions enhancing energy efficiency and effectively managing waste disposal practices. Businesses can increase their understanding of their achievements and societal obligations over time.

2.2. Impact of Climate Risks on Financial Reporting

A study, by KPM in 2021 revealed that climate change is increasingly influencing how businesses convey their information in the industry sector due to associated risks impacting companies financial performance and asset values from disasters and environmental regulations and altering investment strategies in response to shifting interest rates. It emphasizes the significance of incorporating details on climate related risks in reports, for the benefit of investors and other stakeholders. Financial reporting guidelines provide instructions for businesses to evaluate and communicate the risks associated with climate change impact, on their operations and financial statements International organizations like the International Financial Reporting Standards (IFRS) as programs like the Task Force, on Climate related Financial Disclosures (TCFD) recommend that businesses integrate climate related risks into their reporting procedures. This method allows businesses to improve the clarity of their statements by acknowledging the effects of climate change and the consequent damage, in their reports.

2.3. Green Accounting and Its Applications

Green accounting refers to the incorporation of effects, into the reporting system with the objective to disclose the ecological expenses incurred by businesses and the monetary consequences stemming from their detrimental environmental actions (Schaltegger and Csutora 2012). The practice of accounting evaluates business performance primarily concerning energy usage, carbon footprints and waste handling. This method assists companies in devising strategies to lessen their footprints and attain enduring sustainability objectives. By adopting accounting practices businesses can oversee not their financial stability but also their ecological sustainability. For instance, businesses. Disclose investments aimed at lowering carbon emissions using accounting systems (Delmas and Blass 2010). This enables stakeholders to gauge the busi-

ness commitment to duties. Such reports boost interest in eco businesses by assisting investors in assessing achievements.

3. CARBON PRICING

Carbon pricing plays a role, as a strategy, in combatting climate change aiming to promote environmental sustainability by curbing carbon emissions and encouraging businesses to shift towards cleaner energy sources as highlighted by Narassmihan et al., 2018. This approach involves two methods. Carbon taxation and carbon trading. Which encourages both businesses and nations to cut down on their emissions while also making it financially viable to meet targets.

Businesses that produce emissions, below a specified limit can trade their carbon credits to businesses through carbon trading systems like the European Union Emissions Trading System (Ellerman et al., 2016). This approach has proven effective in promoting the adoption of cost emission reduction methods by businesses. On the hand carbon taxes are designed to control emissions by imposing a cost, for each unit of emission produced. Carbon taxes work differently as they charge an amount, for every ton of carbon emitted into the air and governments decide this cost. Research indicates that implementing carbon pricing mechanisms can benefit companies financially in the future (Martin et al., 2014).

Carbon pricing motivates companies to make adjustments, to how they produce goods and where they invest their money. Elevated carbon costs businesses to put resources into energy conservation and technologies that're eco-friendly. Nevertheless, Effective carbon pricing requires prices to be sufficiently high and enforced on a scale. When executed properly. Carbon pricing can lead to emissions. Give companies a competitive edge. As a result. It is expected that carbon pricing will remain crucial in the fight against climate change.

3.1. Carbon Pricing Mechanisms

Carbon pricing methods are strategies that require companies and individuals to pay for their emissions in order to manage greenhouse gas emissions effectively. By incorporating the costs of carbon into the market (Stavins, 2019) carbon pricing encourages emission reduction efforts. The two primary carbon pricing approaches are carbon trading (cap and trade) and carbon taxes. These frameworks allow businesses emitting within government mandated limits to either cut down their emissions or buy carbon credits.

Carbon pricing is widely recognized as an strategy, in the fight against climate change according to research findings that suggest it prompts businesses to adopt eco-friendly technologies and sustainable production methods as highlighted by Narassiman and colleagues in 2018. Nevertheless the success of these pricing models hinges on the adequacy of the price level and the reactions of businesses, to pricing strategies.

3.2. Carbon Trading and Carbon Credits

Carbon trading permits companies that remain within a designated emission threshold to trade their surplus emission allowances with companies, in need of them as a means of reducing emissions at a cost and achieving carbon reduction goals more efficiently (Ellerman et al., 2016). Carbon credit represent verified emission reductions that businesses or initiatives earn by decreasing carbon levels in the environment and are commodities, in the carbon trading sector.

According to studies, by Kossoy et al, in 2015 carbon trading and carbon credits provide businesses with the opportunity to reduce their carbon footprint while also making it financially feasible to achieve emission reduction targets. Through research it has been found that implementing carbon trading systems can improve business practices and reduce costs related to emissions reductions. However the effectiveness of these mechanisms relies heavily on the strength of their frameworks and the accuracy of carbon credits.

3.3. Carbon Tax and Other Methods

Businesses are encouraged to cut down their carbon emissions through a carbon tax policy that involves pricing greenhouse gas emissions accordingly. Under this policy framework businesses are required to pay a fee for each ton of carbon released into the atmosphere. Government authorities determine the tax rates which serve as an incentive for companies to switch to renewable energy sources as it makes high carbon energy options pricier (Andersson 2019). In contrast, to carbon trading systems where prices fluctuate based on market conditions; a carbon tax offers stability by setting a fixed price point.

Alternative approaches to carbon pricing involve incentives such as subsidies and compliance regulations, alongside the option of participating in carbon markets to diminish carbon emissions in less developed nations. There is a role played by carbon markets in combatting climate change since they enable companies to buy carbon credits for offsetting their environmental impact (Purdon, 2021). Nonetheless the effectiveness of these markets hinges on companies willingly engage in them and the robustness of the governing rules and regulations.

3.4. The Impact of Carbon Pricing on Business Financials

The effects of carbon pricing systems on a company's status differ based on the company's carbon footprint and the industry competitive landscape. Carbon pricing may result in expenses for businesses, in high emission industries. could potentially impact their profitability negatively (Martin et al., 2014). Nevertheless, companies that embrace carbon pricing on can gain an edge by investing in eco-friendly technologies and improving their long term financial outcomes.

Businesses strategically utilize carbon pricing to manage costs effectively and ensure stability by investing in cutting edge technologies and energy efficient production methods while participating in carbon markets to potentially earn revenue through trading credits, for carbon emissions reduction efforts according to Bushnell and colleagues (2013). This research underscores the significance of implementing carbon pricing as a means of supporting businesses in attaining their enduring objectives of profitability and sustainability.

4. IMPAIRMENT ANALYSIS

Analyzing impairment involves assessing the variance between the value recorded in the books and the fair value of an asset when there is a reduction in benefits associated with assets, on a company's balance sheet. It is crucial for businesses to conduct an impairment test in scenarios like shifting market conditions or economic downturns that may heighten risks linked to the asset (Rees and Valentincic 2013). In financial reporting records show impairment, as a loss that reflects the gap, between an assets value and its book value.

Analyzing impairments plays a role in reporting by ensuring that assets are accurately valued in accounting records. You see if the estimated future cash inflow falls short of projections a drop in the value of an asset could occur, result in a recorded impairment loss. The IAS 36 standard provides instructions, on how to identify and report impairments helping companies identify decreases in the value of their assets and transparently share this information with stakeholders (Beatty and Weber 2006).

It's really important for investors and financial professionals to carefully examine impairments because it gives them information, about a companys health and helps them see how expected asset returns may change over time in the future. By looking at things, like carbon pricing and climate change impacts on a companys assets through impairment analysis (Giner et al., 2018) it becomes much easier for companies to manage their assets effectively and provide information to their stakeholders.

4.1. The Concept of Impairment and Accounting Standards

In times when asset market values drop down the road of impairment accounting becomes more important to consider. Factors, like changes in weather patterns fluctuations in prices of goods and changes in regulations can have an impact on a companys assets leading to the need for recognizing impairments. This issue is especially crucial for businesses operating in sectors that produce greenhouse gas emissions. According to IFRS 36 rules companies are required to record impairment charges if the recoverable value of assets becomes lower, than their recorded value (Peters and Plentborg 2010).

4.2. Impact of Carbon Risks on Asset Value

The consequences of carbon related risks are elements that could negatively affect the value of businesses. Companies, with carbon emissions might experience decreases in their asset values due to impending regulations and taxes linked to carbon emissions as, per research conducted by Busch et al. In 2016. This can have consequences not for the physical assets but also for the intangible assets like brand reputation of businesses operating in sectors, with high carbon intensity.

The effect of carbon risks on the value of assets differs based on the industry and approaches to reducing carbon emissions used by companies within that industry sector. In industries with energy consumption levels carbon risks could result in lasting decreases, in asset values. Business owners and investors are now placing significance on how carbon pricing will impact the performance and assets of companies in the coming years (Liesen et al., 2015).

4.3. Impairment Situations Due to Climate Change

Climate change plays a role in decreasing the value of assets in various industries where businesses operate at present times as it impacts sectors like energy and real estate and agriculture majorly vulnerable to asset devaluation caused by climate variations like severe weather conditions leading to crop failures resulting in monetary losses, for businesses (Gallego Alvarez et al., 2015). Given the rise, climate related dangers is unavoidable for companies, in these industries to reassess their resources.

The impacts of climate change could lead to reductions in the value of both intangible assets for businesses beyond physical assets alone. Businesses that fail to combat climate change may experience effects on their brand value and customer trust. Environmental risks and carbon emissions have the potential to result in losses for businesses by devaluing their assets. Businesses must evaluate their resources. Be transparent, about any declines, in value (Bebbington and Larrinaga, 2014).

4.4. The Effects of Carbon Pricing on Impairment

Introducing carbon pricing into the economy may result in a reduction, in assets value for businesses operating in high emission sectors due to expenses linked to measures such as carbon taxes or emissions trading systems that could have an effect on their cash flow and assets (Busch et al., 2016). Companies need to factor in the incorporation of carbon pricing, into their plans to properly manage these risks.

Research indicates that implementing policies, on carbon pricing can lead to gains for industries like energy and mining that rely heavily on fuel for their operations (Matsumura et al., 2014). The economic effects of carbon pricing

are reflected in the profits reported by companies operating in these sectors; hence it is crucial for businesses to analyze and adjust their strategies accordingly to address the impacts of carbon pricing, on their activities.

5. INTERNATIONAL STANDARDS AND REGULATIONS

International accounting standards are a set of rules that regulate how companies display their information to ensure uniformity and improve the comparability of statements, across businesses worldwide.In addition to the implementation of IFRS as accounting standards in countries GAPP is also prevalent in the United States (Carmona and Trombeta 2008). Despite differences, between IFRS and GAAP guidelines both frameworks highlight the significance of reporting.

Government regulations encompass not the need, for reporting but also delve into areas like sustainability and divulging carbon emissions well! Take the European Unions Sustainability Reporting Directive (CSRD) for instance. It mandates that companies disclose their effects (Lozano, 2013). Furthermore global regulatory bodies such as the Task Force on Climate related Financial Disclosure (TCFD) offer advice, on how businesses should communicate their carbon risks and environmental footprints. Investors receive perspectives on how businesses tackle issues related to climate change and sustainability by utilizing these frameworks.

5.1. IAS 36 Standard on Impairment of Assets

As, per the IAS 36 Impairment of Assets Standard guideline businesses are required to acknowledge impairment losses when the value of their assets upon recovery drops below the amount recorded in their books.This regulation enables companies to accurately disclose devaluations of assets well as physical ones to enhance transparency in financial reports, for stakeholders (Abu Ghazale et al. 2011).

During the evaluation of cash generating units (CGUs) companies often use cash flow projections, from assets to gauge their financial position accurately. If the recoverable value of an asset is lower than its recorded amount in a companys records, during these assessments it leads to the identification of an impairment loss which affects the profit and loss statement. Following the instructions set forth in IAS 36 is essential, for companies as it assists them in managing factors such, as climate change that may decrease the value of their assets as suggested by Kvaall and Nobes (2010).

5.2. IFRS 13 Fair Valuation and Carbon Risks

The Fair Valuation Standard, under IFRS 13 provides guidelines, on evaluating the worth of an asset or liability considering prevailing market conditions. Fair value represents the amount that buyers and sellers in the market

would agree upon for the asset or liability and is categorized into three levels of valuation hierarchy based on the availability of data; market data; data that can be directly or indirectly observed; and unobservable market inputs (Madura and Fox 2018). Factors such, as emissions regulations and carbon pricing have the ability to greatly influence the value of assets through carbon related risks.

Industries that produce carbon emissions could see shifts, in asset worth and cash flow as a result of carbon pricing regulations in the future. To tackle this influence in line with IFRS 13 standards and match reporting norms it's essential to review asset values and integrate these revised assessments into statements. Studies suggest that factoring in carbon related risks, during valuation procedures can improve the precision of evaluating business performance and the risk of impairment (Barker and Schulte, 2017).

5.3. Carbon Reporting and Regulatory Frameworks

Companies are required to reveal their carbon emissions and environmental impacts through carbon reporting to offer transparency regarding their influence and initiatives, towards combating climate change to stakeholders as emphasized by Clarkson et al., 2008 who propose incorporating carbon reporting into documentation or including it in a sustainability report. Governments and regulators typically establish guidelines for carbon reporting, at either international levels. Business requirements dictate the necessity for companies to disclose their carbon footprint and outline strategies to meet emission reduction objectives.

In the years there has been a rise, in legal and regulatory demands for carbon reporting. The European Union has upped its requirements for carbon reporting and many countries have followed suit with regulations. Furthermore global initiatives like the Task Force on Climate related Financial Disclosure (TCFD) offer guidance on how companies should disclose their carbon risks and emissions (Stanny and Ely 2008). Carbon reporting serves as a source of information for investors and other interested parties enabling companies to evaluate their duties and sustainability plans.

6. EMPIRICAL APPLICATION ON CARBON PRICING AND IMPROVEMENT

6.1. Carbon Pricing and Emission Reduction

Company X operates in an industry that consumes an amount of energy and has a carbon footprint each year due to its high carbon emissions level and the application of carbon pricing measures to its operations. Company X intends to allocate resources towards adopting technologies with the aim of decreasing its annual emissions level. Specifically, Company X releases 200 000 tons of carbon into the atmosphere annually. Is charged a carbon tax rate of 100 TL, per ton in this scenario.

Calculating the impact of carbon emissions on a business involves the steps.

200,000 tons x 100 TL/ton = 20,000,000 TL

The company aims to reduce its total cost by reducing carbon emissions by 20%.

In this case, the company's new carbon emissions are calculated as follows.

200,000 tons x 0.80 = 160,000 tons

The company's new carbon cost is calculated as follows.

160,000 tons x 100 TL/ton = 16,000,000 TL

Thus, the company saves 4,000,000 TL due to carbon pricing.

6.2. Carbon Trading and Carbon Credits

In addition, X Inc. has provided excess carbon credit by reducing carbon emissions below 160,000 tons. The company has sold this excess carbon credit to another company through carbon trading for 150 TL per ton, 20,000 tons of excess carbon credits.

In this case, the income of the company from the sale of carbon credit is calculated as follows.

20,000 tons x 150 TL/ton = 3,000,000 TL

The company has obtained an additional 3,000,000 TL income through carbon trading.

6.3. Impairment Analysis

X Inc.'s machinery fleet has lost its market value due to carbon pricing and the necessity to switch to low-carbon technologies. The book value of a machine on X Inc.'s balance sheet is 50,000,000 TL, but the market value of this machine has decreased to 35,000,000 TL.

In this case, the impairment loss is calculated as follows.

50,000,000 TL - 35,000,000 TL = 15,000,000 TL

The business should reflect this loss in its financial reports and report the new value of the assets as 35,000,000 TL on the balance sheet.

6.4. The Impact of Carbon Pricing on Asset Value

After facing the impacts of carbon pricing regulations and the necessity to update its manufacturing operations and equipment, at X.A.S. the company made a decision to adopt low carbon technologies with an investment of 30 million Lira and anticipates annual savings of 5 million TL as a result of this initiative. To gauge the implications accurately in this scenario for X.A.S. one

can analyze the return on investment (ROI) by calculating values based on these figures.

The ROI is calculated as 6 years when you divide 30 million Lira by 5 million Lira.

7. CONCLUSION

In times and based on our research results, on the subject of accounting and its relation to climate changes effects on businesses show an increase in importance over time. The study explores how accounting methods integrate concepts such as carbon pricing and sustainability accounting to help companies tackle these challenges directly. Climate change is identified as a factor influencing business health by affecting performance indicators and overall sustainability, in the run. Businesses operating in energy sectors often face pressures as they work towards meeting carbon emission reduction targets which consequently impact on their reporting practices.

Our research delves into the impact of carbon pricing policies on businesses and their communication regarding this issue extensively." Carbon pricing incentivizes companies to shift towards carbon technologies by influencing their approaches and financial investments." Measures such as carbon trading and charges offer businesses the opportunity to reduce their carbon emissions while emphasizing the importance of reporting these efforts."

In the realm of accounting terminology when evaluating impairment entails recognizing declines, in asset value due to the effects of climate related risks affecting company assets, it is crucial for companies to regularly evaluate the valuations of their assets and acknowledge any impairments resulting from climate change, in their statements.

When exploring the effects of carbon pricing, on a company's statements and explaining it with examples for better understanding – Imagine a situation where a company can make money by selling carbon credits in carbon markets and simultaneously lower their carbon tax expenses and overall costs as a result of this strategy. It is important to account for any losses linked to climate change in reports through impairment evaluations, especially, for businesses operating in the energy industry.

To address the challenges and opportunities arising from climate change effectively and assess the risks and benefits involved is essential for businesses to carefully consider... By utilizing accounting methods such as evaluating the impacts of carbon pricing and implementing accounting practices over time businesses can enhance their performance significantly.

REFERENCES

Abu Ghazaleh, N. M., Al-Hares, O. M. and Roberts, C. (2011). Accounting discretion in goodwill impairments: UK evidence. Journal of International Financial Management & Accounting, 22(3), 165-204. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-646X.2011.01049.x

Andersson, J. J. (2019). Carbon taxes and CO2 emissions: Sweden as a case study. American Economic Journal: Economic Policy, 11(4), 1-30. https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.20170144

Barker, R. and Schulte, S. (2017). Representing the market perspective: Fair value measurement for non-financial assets. Accounting, Organizations and Society, 56, 55-67. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aos.2016.07.003

Beatty, A. and Weber, J. (2006). Accounting discretion in fair value estimates: An examination of SFAS 142 goodwill impairments. Journal of Accounting Research, 44(2), 257-288. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1475-679X.2006.00200.x

Bebbington, J. and Larrinaga, C. (2014). Accounting and sustainable development: An exploration. Accounting, Organizations and Society, 39(6), 395-413.

Bebbington, J. and Unerman, J. (2018). Sustainability Accounting and Accountability. Routledge.

Busch, C., Bauer, N. and Orlitzky, M. (2016). Sustainable development and financial markets: Old paths and new avenues. Business & Society, 55(3), 303-329. https://doi.org/10.1177/0007650315570701

Bushnell, J. B., Chong, H. and Mansur, E. T. (2013). Profiting from regulation: Evidence from the European carbon market. American Economic Journal: Economic Policy, 5(4), 78-106. https://doi.org/10.1257/pol.5.4.78

Carmona, S. and Trombetta, M. (2008). On the global acceptance of IAS/IFRS accounting standards: The logic and implications of the principles-based system. Journal of Accounting and Public Policy, 27(6), 455-461. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jaccpubpol.2008.09.003

Clarkson, P. M., Li, Y., Richardson, G. D. and Vasvari, F. P. (2008). Revisiting the relation between environmental performance and environmental disclosure: An empirical analysis. Accounting, Organizations and Society, 33(4-5), 303-327. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aos.2007.05.003

Delmas, M. A. and Blass, V. D. (2010). Measuring corporate environmental performance: The trade-offs of sustainability ratings. Business Strategy and the Environment, 19(4), 245-260. https://doi.org/10.1002/bse.676

Ellerman, A. D., Convery, F. J. and de Perthuis, C. (2016). Pricing carbon: The European Union emissions trading scheme. Cambridge University Press.

Gallego-Álvarez, I., Segura, L. and Martínez-Ferrero, J. (2015). Carbon emission reduction: The impact on the financial and operational performance of international companies. Journal of Cleaner Production, 103, 149-159. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2014.07.049

Giner, B. and Pardo, F. (2018). How ethical are managers' goodwill impairment decisions in Spanish-listed firms? Journal of Business Ethics, 149(3), 741-759. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-016-3096-8

Hassel, L., Nilsson, H. and Nyquist, S. (2005). The value relevance of environmental performance. European Accounting Review, 14(1), 41-61. https://doi.org/10.1080/0963818042000279722

IFRS Foundation. (2020). Climate-related disclosures and financial statements. IFRS Foundation. https://www.ifrs.org

Jones, M. J. and Solomon, J. F. (2013). Problematising accounting for biodiversity. Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 26(5), 668-687. https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-03-2013-1246

Kossoy, A., Peszko, G., Oppermann, K. and Prytz, N. (2015). State and trends of carbon pricing 2015. World Bank Group. https://doi.org/10.1596/978-1-4648-0725-1

KPMG. (2021). Climate Risk in Financial Reporting: A Roadmap for Better Disclosures.

Kvaal, E. and Nobes, C. (2010). International differences in IFRS policy choice: A research note. Accounting and Business Research, 40(2), 173-187. https://doi.org/10.1080/00014788.2010.9663390

Lee, K., Min, B. and Yook, K.H., (2015). The impacts of carbon (CO2) emissions and environmental research and development (R&D) investment on firm performance. International Journal of Production Economics, 167, 1-11. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijpe.2015.05.018.

Liesen, A., Hoepner, A. G. F., Patten, D. M. and Figge, F. (2015). Does stakeholder pressure influence corporate GHG emissions reporting? Empirical evidence from Europe. Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal, 28(7), 1047-1074. https://doi.org/10.1108/AAAJ-12-2013-1549

Lozano, R. (2013). A holistic perspective on corporate sustainability drivers. Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 20(4), 290-305. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.1325

Madura, J. and Fox, R. (2018). International Financial Management (14th ed.). Cengage Learning.

Martin, R., De Preux, L. B., and Wagner, U. J. (2014). The impact of a carbon tax on manufacturing: Evidence from microdata. Journal of Public Economics, 117, 1-14. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jpubeco.2014.04.016

Matsumura, E. M., Prakash, R. and Vera-Muñoz, S. C. (2014). Firm-value effects of carbon emissions and carbon disclosures. The Accounting Review, 89(2), 695-724. https://doi.org/10.2308/accr-50629

Narassimhan, E., Gallagher, K. S., Koester, S. and Rivera Alejo, J. (2018). Carbon pricing in practice: A review of existing emissions trading systems. Climate Policy, 18(8), 967-991. https://doi.org/10.1080/14693062.2018.1467827

Petersen, C. and Plenborg, T. (2010). How do firms implement impairment tests of

goodwill? Journal of Business Finance & Accounting, 46(4), 419-446. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-5957.2010.02204.x

Purdon, M. (2021). Voluntary carbon markets: Global lessons for climate policy. Global Environmental Politics, 21(2), 96-99. https://doi.org/10.1162/glep_a_00584

Rees, L. ve Valentincic, A. (2013). Dividend irrelevance and the valuation of equity in the presence of transitory earnings. Contemporary Accounting Research, 30(1), 212-229. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1911-3846.2012.01156.x

Schaltegger, S. and Csutora, M. (2012). Carbon accounting for sustainability and management. Status quo and challenges. Journal of Cleaner Production, 36, 1-16.

Schaltegger, S., Burritt, R. and Petersen, H. (2017). An Introduction to Corporate Environmental Management: Striving for Sustainability. Routledge.

Stanny, E. and Ely, K. (2008). Corporate environmental disclosures about the effects of climate change. Corporate Social Responsibility and Environmental Management, 15(6), 338-348. https://doi.org/10.1002/csr.175

Stavins, R. N. (2019). Carbon pricing: Promise and problems. National Bureau of Economic Research, Working Paper No. 24441. https://doi.org/10.3386/w24441

Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures (TCFD). (2020). Final Report: Recommendations of the Task Force on Climate-related Financial Disclosures.
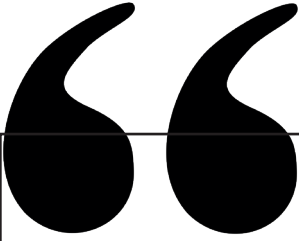
Chapter 12

BIRD AND DEER FIGURED UŞAK FOUNTAINS

Türkan ACAR[1]

1 Assoc. Prof. Dr., Uşak University, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Department of Art History. turkan.acar@usak.edu.tr Orcid ID: https://orcid. org/0000-0003-4357-8411.

In the field studies conducted between 2014-2016 to determine the fountains belonging to the Turkish period in Uşak province and its districts, two hundred and thirteen fountains were identified. The identified fountains were published in various media with their plan and architectural features; examples containing vegetal, geometric, architectural depictions, various objects, and examples containing figurative ornaments such as lion-bull, human, snake, fish[1]. In the study, bird and deer figurines in other fountains with figurative ornaments in Uşak fountains were evaluated. The ornaments were compared with similar examples in Anatolia, albeit in limited numbers, and their symbolic meanings were emphasized.

Deer and bird figures were preferred in mirror stone in Uşak fountains. The motifs were given in low relief technique. The deer figure in the study was given alone in a landscape, while the bird figures were given together with examples containing vegetal and various objects.

Bird Figure: The figure was applied in only two fountains among Uşak fountains. The first one is in Hasköy Daldırıcı Çeşme in Ulubey district [2]. Ulubey district, located in the south of Uşak, is approximately 30 km away from the city center. Hasköy, one of the villages of Ulubey, is in the southeast of the district, approximately 22 km away from the district center. Daldırıcı Çeşme, registered by the Kütahya Cultural Heritage Preservation Board with a decision dated 25.09.2014-1988, is on the Hasköy Asar road.

The bird figures in the single-sided, vertical rectangular prism-bodied fountain are located on both sides of the pipe on the mirror stone. A section of the northern one, which is given in a sitting position opposite each other, has been damaged. The figures decorating the mirror stone with cypress, crescent-star and wheel of fortune motifs are applied as low relief. According to its inscription, the fountain was built in 1289/1872-73.

---

1 Acar, 2015: 1-40; 2017: 133-168; 2018a: 163-179; 2018b: 27-54; 2018c: 918-934; 2018d: 607-640; 2019: 419-436; 2020: 1-27; 2023a: 137-175. For the study on the lion-bull figured decoration in the Aslanlı/Cami Çeşmesi in Hacım Village of Sivaslı District, see. Acar, 2023b: 1061-1077; For the introduction of figurative decorations featuring humans, snakes and fish, see. Acar, 2024: 351-365.
2 For details of the fountain, see. Acar, 2017: 144, Drawing. 15-16, Photo. 18-20.

Photo 1, Drawing 1. Ulubey District, Hasköy Daldırıcı Çeşmesi (Drawings and Photos Belong to the Author).

The second fountain with bird figures in Uşak is the Koca Çeşme in Karbasan Village of Karahallı district. Karahallı district is approximately 64 km southeast of Uşak city center. Karbasan Village is approximately 6 km south of Karahallı district center. Koca Çeşme in Fevzi Çakmak Neighborhood, has a single facade. According to the fountain inscription, it was built in 1298/1880-81.

On the mirror stone, on both sides of the pipe, bird figures carved in low relief are accompanied by a plant motif, a cypress, and various objects such as a bowl, a gun and a sword. Bird figures, which are not drawn in great detail like those in the Daldırıcı Çeşme, are standing in this fountain. In both fountains, the birds are on both sides of the cypress motif on the pipe.
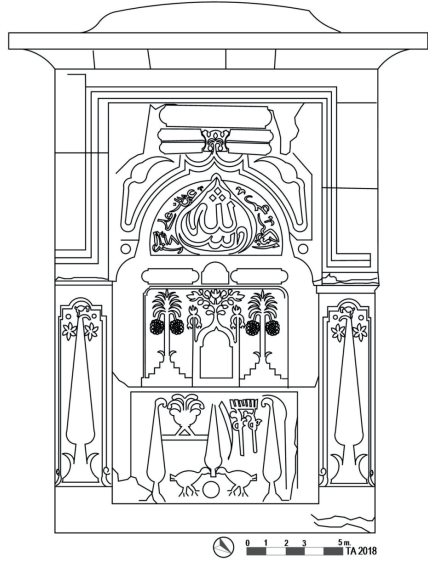

Photo 2-3, Drawing 2. Karahallı District, Karbasan Köyü Koca Çeşme.

Deer Figure: The figure is the fountain called "Çeşme 2" among the four fountains located in the square of Karabol Neighborhood of Kayaağıl Village, one of the central villages located in the southwest of Uşak city center, 15 km away from the city center[3].

The body of the deer on the fountain's mirror stone is shown in profile, facing right, while its head is turned left/back from above its body. The antlers of the figure depicted in a vegetal landscape have also turned into curved branches, in accordance with this vegetal composition. There are circular spots on the figure's body. The figure, placed in a rectangular frame, is rendered in low relief[4]. The fountain, which has no inscription, dates back to the 18th-19th centuries based on its architectural details.

Photo 4-5, Drawing 3-4. Detail from the Deer Motif in Çeşme 2, Karabol Neighborhood, Kayaağıl Village, one of the Central Villages.

---

3 For details of the fountain, see. Acar, 2018a: 165, 168-169, 170, Table 1.
4 The marble slab thought to be the railing slab is re-used.

Evaluation and Conclusion

When the decoration program of Uşak fountains is evaluated, it is seen that figurative decoration, which is used less in Islamic art compared to other types of decoration, is not preferred much in Uşak fountains either. The animal style figures used in the fountains in the city are animal figures that we can see in nature such as lions, bulls, deer, snakes, fish and birds. Apart from these animal figures, only one fountain depicts a human being[5].

The bird figure, which symbolizes the dead, rising to the sky, and the soul (Çeşmeli, 2015: 75), was applied to only two fountains among Uşak fountains, as mentioned above. The birds, which are given with very stylized lines, are depicted sitting opposite each other in one and standing in the other. No details other than the body, head, and tail are processed. In the fountain architecture of Tokat Taşhan (Voyvoda) Çeşmesi (20th century), where bird figures are seen, a rose is placed inside the two moldings surrounding its surface, and bird figures perched on a branch are placed in the center of the rose (Gündoğdu, 2004: 76, Photo.13; Kaşıkeman, 2005: 129, Photo. 53-54). The bird figure is located on the pipe of Karaman Kilise Çeşmesi (H.1271/M.1855) (Denktaş, 2000: 120-122, Drawing 29, Photo: 55), while in Tokat Niksar Narlı Çeşme (Belediye Çeşmesi/Çarşı Çeşmesi) (repaired in the 19th-early 20th centuries), it is given in low relief technique, together with other figures such as a peacock, a lion and a fish, facing each other between the molded border surrounding the mirror stone. (Kaşıkeman, 2005: 259-260, 264, Photo. 125; Tuncer, 2012: 205-206, Photo. 134). Various bird species seen in nature and fantastic bird figures have been applied to various religious and civil structures, on various materials and surfaces such as stone, hand-carved, tiles, ceramics, metal, carpets, tombstones, and glass bottoms. Various birds have also been depicted in literary works, mythological stories, and miniatures[6].

Cypress, often described as a cemetery plant, is also described as the tree of life in some sources[7]. It is thought that a triad symbolizing heaven was used in this fountain, with the bird figure placed symmetrically on both sides of the cypress and the fountain composition connected to water.

Deer, used as sacred by various societies and civilizations, is also a hunting animal for food. It is also used for cargo and human transportation by being domesticated like a horse. When the figure is considered artistically, it has been determined that the first known examples are depicted in cave and rock paintings from the Paleolithic period (Mülayim, 1994: 170-174, Drawing. 2;

---

5 For the general features and decorations of Uşak fountains, see. Acar, 2018d: 607-640, Acar, 2023a: 137-175; Acar, 2024: 351-365.

6 Bkz. Köylüoğlu, 1974: 127-139; Turan, 1990: 35-37; Aksel, 2015: 60-70, Photo. 32-39; Akpınarlı-Üner, 2017: 635, Table 3, Photo. 1-4; Ersöz Uzar-Gül, 2020: 119-123, Photo. 7-13; Küçük, 2020: 100-114; Kaya Karaduman-Özdemir, 2022: 220-233, Photo.1-15.

7 For the tree of life, see. Öney, 1968: 25-36.

Durmuş, 2007: 52-53; Balcı, 2012: 39-40)[8]. In Turkish mythology and various publications, deer is seen as beautiful, unattainable, magical, magic, totem, goddess, symbol of femininity (fertile, graceful, delicate) (Mülayim, 1994: 174; Aytaş, 1999: 1; Güven, 2003: 86-87; Ögel, 2010: 38, Drawing. 9; Çoruhlu, 2019: 16; Kaya, 2010: 118-120; Balcı, 2012: 39-40). In Turkish religious mythology, the female deer was seen as a celestial being. In Central Asia, in Altai Shamanism, it is stated that the whiteness of the white deer is considered sacred and is considered a color specific to deities (Çoruhlu, 2019: 16). Deer, which has various symbols as "Animal Mother", "Mother Goddess", is associated with the element "earth" and has also taken on a negative meaning because it is the prey target of eagles and other predators. Deer, which is also associated with the earth, the underworld and death, is the opposite of victory, light and masculinity. It symbolizes defeat, darkness and femininity. Its struggle with the eagle or stronger figures, which symbolize the sky, light, power and masculinity, expresses the life cycle (Ying-Yang). (Çoruhlu, 2019: 16-17). The deer figure has been used in literary texts with its symbolic meanings, in various materials and surfaces such as carpets, rugs, staffs, horse harnesses, Shaman headdresses, horse headdresses/masks, architectural plastics. In addition, the deer teeth in the graves found in the Altai Mountains (1200-700 BC) show that the deer had religious meanings for the Altai Turks, Gokturks and other Turkish communities in Central Asia and was also included in burial traditions (Esin, 1978: 94-95; Ögel, 2010: 24-25, 29, 37-38, 569-583; Dalkesen, 2015: 59). There are also beliefs that the deer, which is also associated with the shaman, is the second soul of the shaman and that the dead deer becomes the shaman (Mülayim, 1994: 174-175, Drawing. 3).

Today, the symbolic meanings attributed to deer continue within the belief system. In some regions of Anatolia, it is believed that by hanging some parts of deer such as horns, nails and fur in shrines and houses, the places will be kept away from evil eyes, evil and trouble (Kahraman Çınar, 2016: 187).

On the portal of the Çöreği Büyük Tekke in Niksar, Tokat, there is a relief of a deer seated on the upper part of the inscription panel (Gündoğdu, 2004: 68-69, Drawing. 1, Photo. 1-2)[9]. There is a depiction of two deers drawn by a dervish on the inner walls of the Şeyh Meknun Tomb in Tokat (Karamamağaralı, 1976: 251; Gündoğdu, 2004: 68-69, Drawing. 1, Photo.1-2; Balcı, 2012: 40; Denknalbant Çobanoğlu, 2019: 10-21). Ankara Ethnography Museum, brass flag number 5432, with a rooster, a lion, a rabbit and a stylized deer figure (Karamamağaralı, 1976: 250). Geyikli Baba, who contributed to the conquest of Bursa, and Hacı Bektaş Veli, one of the important figures

---

8 For rock paintings, see. Hoppal, 2013: 15. For deer figures in rock paintings, see. Demir, 2009: 7-12, Photo. 3-9; Metin, 2018: 169-172, Photo. 5-7; Akgün, 2019: 154-155, Photo. 1-2; Çoruhlu, 2019: Drawing 37, 72, 80, 84, 86.

9 The deer figure sits on four legs. Its head is also turned backwards. Gündoğdu, 2004: 68-69, Drawing. 1, Photo.1-2.

of the Bektashi order, are depicted with a deer. It is seen that the Bektashi and Batıni orders attach importance to the deer figure and emphasize it symbolically (Karamamağaralı, 1976: 251)[10].

Along with the limited number of examples that can be accessed above, it has been determined that deer figures were depicted in some structures other than fountains. The deer figure on the mirror stone of the Karabol Çeşmesi is unique within the decoration program of Uşak fountains[11]. The figure, which displays animal-style features[12], is presented alone, not with another figure, within a vegetal background. The lines of the figure are curved and rounded, in harmony with the vegetal background it is in. The deer's antlers have become elongated and have curved tips, taking on an almost vegetal form, in order to strengthen the sense of movement of the body. Although the figure is alone, the movement in the body lines gives the scene a sense of speed.

The style defined as animal style or steppe style is seen in the works of art of Central Asian communities in pre-Islamic Central and Inner Asia and a wide geography reaching as far as the east of Europe and Asia (Esin, 1972: 5; Çoruhlu, 1992: 357). Although it is known that the ancient Turks used animals as taboos and totems, and as emblems in their tribes, the iconographic source of this style has not been clearly elucidated (Mülayim, 1999: 110). Animal depictions in the ornamentation programs of Hun, Gokturk, Uyghur and other Turkish communities have taken on symbolic meanings in belief systems such as Shamanism and Buddhism (Esin, 1972: 117-136; Çoruhlu, 1992: 359).

In the animal style, animals are sometimes depicted individually and sometimes together. Sometimes animals are intertwined or stacked on top of each other to create compositions (Mülayim, 1999: 113). In the two power elements of strong and weak; animals that we can see in nature such as eagle, falcon, hawk, lion, tiger, leopard and fantastic creatures such as sphinx, griffin, dragon symbolize power, while on the weak side there are domestic animals

10 For terms related to deer, religious and symbolic meanings of the deer motif, and areas where it is used in Turkish mythology and literature, see also. Ögel, 1995: 101-109; Aytaş, 1999: 161-170; Güven, 2003: 86-87; Atnur, 2005: 213-222; Kaya, 2010: 114-121; Özlü, 2012: 255-256; Beşkardeş-Uslu-Uslu, 2014: 17-24.

11 The two figures standing opposite each other on the pediment of Kabaca Çeşme/Aslanlı Çeşme (H.1231- M.1815/16) in Kabaca Mevkii, Ortaköy, one of the central villages of Uşak, are defined as lions or deer in the Uşak cultural inventory. The figures, which are processed quite stylized, seem more like deers to us. When we examined the structure in 2014, it was determined that the architectural piece with the figures on the fountain was not in its place. For the figures, see. Uşak Kültür Envanteri, 2017: 253; Acar, 2018: 167-169, Table 1.

12 For the use of the deer figure on different surfaces and materials, see also. Ögel, 2010: 33, 38, 39, 569, 571-582, Drawing. 7 (1, 3), 9 (1), 54-60; Akpınarlı-Üner, 2017: 630, 632, 643, Photo 24, Table 3; Balcı, 2012: 38-41; Kahraman Çınar, 2016: 178-189; Çoruhlu, 2019: Drawing, 28, 37, 40, 68, 72, 80, 84-86; Özhan, 2021: 100-116; Atnur, 2005: 213-222; Ayan, 2021: 295-323; Özhan, 2021: 100-116.

such as deer, mountain goat, bull, ram, sheep that are defeated by taking the blow during the fight (Mülayim, 1999: 112). Among the figured ornaments in the study in Uşak, the bird is depicted together with other figures or objects. However, there is no struggle between the figures in these compositions. They have taken their natural places with their symbolic meanings in the composition they are in. The deer figure is also located alone in a landscape. It can be thought that the artist tried to give a composition in the form of a depiction of heaven by using these figures in fountains connected to water, placing them on both sides of the cypress tree and their appearance in nature.

Bibliography

Acar, Türkan. (2015). Uşak Çeşmelerinin Korunma Durumları, Tarihi Kimliklerini Koruma Bağlamında Düşünceler. *Turkish Studies*, 10, 1-40.

Acar, Türkan. (2017). Ulubey'deki Osmanlı Dönemi Çeşmeleri. *Vakıflar Dergisi*, 47, 133-168.

Acar, Türkan. (2018a). Uşak Merkez Köylerinde Yer Alan Çeşmelerin Tipolojisi Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme. *Sanat Tarihi Dergisi*, 27 (1), 163-179.

Acar, Türkan. (2018b). Uşak/Sivaslı Çeşmeleri. *Sobider Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi/The Journal of Social Science*, 5/26, 27-54.

Acar, Türkan. (2018c). Uşak/Eşme Çeşmeleri. *Modern Dönemde Edebiyat, Eğitim, İktisat ve Mühendislik*, Editörler Prof. Dr. Handan Asude Başal, Dr. Mine Nazan Kerimak Öner, Dr. Yasemin Ulutürk, Ankara: Berikan Yayınevi, 918-934.

Acar Türkan. (2018d). Uşak Çeşmeleri. *Teke Uluslararası Türkçe Edebiyat Kültür Eğitim Dergisi*, 7/1, 607-640.

Acar, Türkan. (2019). Uşak/Karahallı Çeşmeleri. *Afyon Kocatepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 21/2, 419-436.

Acar, Türkan. (2020). Banaz'daki Çeşmelerinin Uşak Çeşme Mimarisi İçerisindeki Yeri ve Korunma Durumları. *Manisa Celal Bayar Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 18/3, 1-27.

Acar, Türkan. (2023a). Uşak Çeşmelerinin Bezeme Öğeleri I: Bitkisel, Geometrik, Mimari ve Çeşitli Nesneler İçeren Örnekler. *Sosyal & Beşerî Bilimler Alanında Akademik Çalışmalar*, C.II, Ankara: Gece Kitaplığı, 137-175.

Acar, Türkan. (2023b). An Interesting Description of the Lion-Bull Fight Scenes: Uşak Aslanlı Çeşme. *Ege Üniversitesi Sanat Tarihi Dergisi*, 32/2, 1061-1077.

Acar, Türkan. (2024). Darboğaz Çeşmesi'ndeki Figürlü Kompozisyon Üzerine Bir Çözümleme. *Sosyal ve Beşerî Bilimlerde Uluslararası Akademik Çalışmalar - Haziran 2024*. Editörler Prof. Dr. Mustafa Mete-Doç. Dr. Salih Batal, İzmir: Serüven Yayınevi, 351-365.

Akgün, Halil Can. (2019). Coğrafyadan Mitolojiye Kaya Resimleri. *Genel Türk Tarihi Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 1/2, 151-164.

Akpınarlı, Hatice Feriha-Üner, İbrahim. (2017). İç Anadolu Bölgesi Halılarında Görülen Figüratif Sembol ve Motifler. *SDÜ ART-E Güzel Sanatlar Fakültesi Sanat Dergisi*, 10/20, 630-651.

Aksel, Malik. (2015). *Türklerde Dini Resimler*. (3. Baskı), Ankara: Kapı Yayınları.

Atnur, Gülhan. (2005). Kozı Körpeş ile Bayan Sulu Destanında Geyik Motifi. *Atatürk Üniversitesi Türkiyat Araştırmaları Enstitüsü Dergisi*, 28 Prof. Dr. M. Fahrettin Kırzıoğlu Özel Sayısı: 213-222.

Ayan, Oya. (2021). Kadim Bilgelik Miti ve Tüketim Toplumu İkonu Olarak Geyik Sembolizmi. *Erciyes İletişim Dergisi*, 8 (1), 295-323.

Aytaş, Gıyasettin. (1999). Türk Kültür ve Edebiyatında Geyik Motifi ve "Haza Destan-ı Geyik". *Türk Kültürü ve Hacı Bektaş Veli Araştırma Dergisi* (12), 161-170.

Balcı, Nursel. (2012). Türk Halı Sanatında Mitolojik Kaynaklı Bazı Motifler. *Arış Dergisi*, 8, 38-51.

Beşkardeş, Vedat-Uslu, Yaşar Burak-Uslu, Burçin. (2014). Geyik ile İlgili Bazı Türkçe Terimler Üzerine Düşünceler. *Avrasya Terim Dergisi*, 2 (1): 17-24.

Çeşmeli, İbrahim. (2015). Kök Türklerde İkonografik Açıdan Kuş Figürleri. *Art-Sanat*, 4, 67-80.

Çoruhlu, Yaşar. (1992). Erken Devri Türk Sanatındaki Hayvan Tasviri Geleneğinin Uygurlardaki Devamı Üzerine Notlar. *Türk Kültürü Araştırmaları*, Prof. Dr. Muharrem Ergin'e Armağan, Yıl XXVIII/1-2 (1990), Ankara, 357-363.

Çoruhlu, Yaşar. (2019). *Kozmolojik, Mitolojik, Astrolojik, Dinî ve Edebî Tasavvurlara Göre Türk Sanatında Hayvan Sembolizmi I*, İstanbul: Ötüken Yayınları.

Dalkesen, Nilgün. (2015). Orta Asya'dan Anadolu'ya Türk Kültüründe Geyik Kültü. *Milli Folklor*, 27/106, 58-69.

Demir, Necati. (2009). Esatlı Köyü (Ordu-Mesudiye) Kaya Üstü Resim ve Yazıtları ile Bunların Tarihî Alt Yapısı. *Zeitschrift für die Welt der Türken*, 1/2, 3-30.

Denktaş, Mustafa. (2000). *Karaman Çeşmeleri*. Kayseri: Kıvılcım Yayınları.

Denknalbant Çobanoğlu, Ayşe. (2019). Tokat ve Niksar'da Bazı Selçuklu ve İlhanlı Yapılarındaki Çini Süslemeler Üzerine Bir Değerlendirme. *Vakıflar Dergisi*, 51, 9-44.

Durmuş, İlhami. (2007). Arkeolojik Kalıntı, Buluntu ve Yazılı Belgelere Göre Kül Tigin-Bilge Kağan Anıtlıkları ve Bu Anıtlıklardaki Türk Kültür Unsurları. *Gazi Türkiyat*, 2007/1, 35-57.

Ersöz Uzar, Nihan Semen ve Gül, Derya Sultan. (2022). Türkiye'de Özgün Baskı Resim Sanatında Kuş Figürleri. *Kalemişi*, 21, 117–124.

Esin, Emel, (1972). İslamiyetten Evvel Orta Asya Türk Resim Sanatı. *Türk Kültürü El Kitabı, İslamiyet'ten Önceki Türk Sanatı Hakkında Araştırmalar*, cilt: 2, İstanbul: MEB, 186-243.

Esin, Emel, (1978). *İslâmiyetten Önceki Türk Kültür Târihî ve İslâma Giriş (Türk Kültürü El-Kitabı*, II. Cild (ayrı basım), İstanbul: Edebiyat Fakültesi Matbaası.

Gündoğdu, Hamza. (2004). Tokat'tan Bir Kaç Figürlü Kabartma Hakkında. *Güzel Sanatlar Enstitüsü Dergisi*, (13), 65-93.

Güven, Merdan. (2003). Oğuz Kağan Destanı'nda Hayvanlar. *Milli Folklor*, 8/15-57, 82-91.

Hoppal, Mihaly. (2013). Shamans and Symbol Prehistory of Semiotics in Rock Arts. *International Society for Shamanistic Research*, Budapest.

Kahraman Çınar, Aslı. (2016). Bozkır Kültür Çevresinde Geyik İnancı ve Geyik Kurbanı. *Tarih ve Gelecek Dergisi*, 2, 178-189.

Karamağaralı, Beyhan. (1976). Anadolu'da XII.-XVI. Asırlardaki Tarikat ve Tekke Sanatı Hakkında. *Ankara Üniversitesi İlahiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, 21, 247-267.

Kaşıkeman, Özlem. (2005). *Tokat İli ve Niksar İlçesi Çeşme ile Şadırvanları*. Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Gazi Üniversitesi, Sanat Tarihi Anabilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans Tezi, Ankara.

Kaya Karaduman, Burcu-Özdemir, Gülşah. (2022). Türk Sanatında Kuş İmgesi. *Socrates Journal of Interdisciplinary Social Studies*, 8(24), 219-235.

Kaya, Muharrem. (2010). Dede Korkut Kitabı ve Manas Destanı'nda Av Kültünün İzleri. *MSGSÜ Sosyal Bilimler*, 1, 114-121.

Köylüoğlu, Neriman. (1974). Edirne Müzesindeki Hayvan Motifli İşlemeler. *Türk Etnografya Dergisi*, (64), 127-139.

Küçük, Mehmet Alparslan (2020). Orta Asya'dan Anadolu'ya Türk Geleneğinde 'Don Değiştirme'. *bilig – Türk Dünyası Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 94, 97-122.

Metin, Hüseyin. (2018). Pisidia Altıkapılı Kaya Kilisesi'ndeki Kaya Üstü Resimlerine (Petroglif) İlişkin Bir Gözlem. *Akademik Tarih ve Düşünce Dergisi*, 5, 164-176.

Mülayim, Selçuk. (1994). Kuzeyde Geyik Kültü ve Hayvan Üslubunun Doğuşu. *Sanat Tarihi Dergisi*, 7, 163-184.

Mülayim, Selçuk. (1999). *Değişimin Tanıkları*, "Ortaçağ Türk Sanatında Süsleme ve İkonografi". İstanbul: Kaknüs Yayınları.

Ögel, Bahaeddin. (1995). *Türk Mitolojisi II. Cilt*, Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayınları.

Ögel, Bahaeddin. (2010). *Türk Mitolojisi I. Cilt*, 5. Baskı (Tıpkı Basım), Ankara: Türk Tarih Kurumu Yayınları.

Öney, Gönül. (1968). Anadolu Selçuklu Sanatında Hayat Ağacı Motifi. *Belleten*, XXXII/125, 25-36.

Özhan, Sema. (2021). Kanaviçe Nakışlarında Görülen Geyik Miti. *Milli Kültür Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 5(1), 100-116.

Özlü, Zeynel. (2012). Besni Kazasında Alevi Bektaşi Ocakları ile İlgili Bulgular. *Türk Kültürü ve Hacı Beştaş Veli Araştırma Dergisi*, 63, 247-264.

Tuncer, Akın. (2012), *Anadolu Türk Sanatı Döneminde Aslan Figürü*. Doktora Tezi, İstanbul Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Sanat Tarihi ABD.

Turan, Ahmet. (1990). Türk Destan ve Masallarında Şekil Değiştirme (Kuş Şekline Girme) Motifi. *Milli Folklor*, 1/2-5, 35-37.

Uşak Kültürel Değerler Yapı Envanteri (2007). İzmir: T.C. Uşak Valiliği İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü Yayınları.