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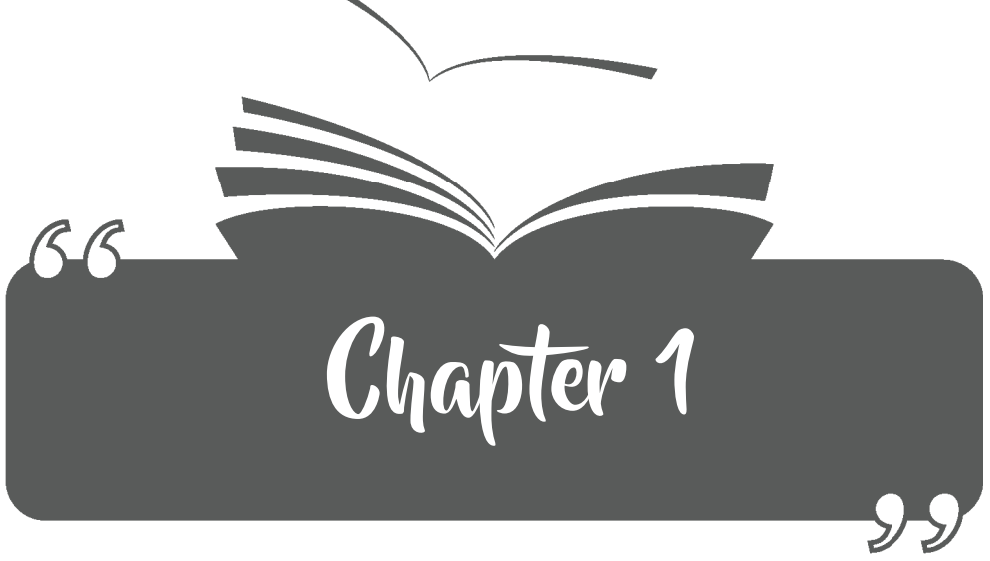
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**POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGICAL CAPITAL:
A RESEARCH ON RESEARCH ASSISTANTS IN
UNIVERSITIES**

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1. Introduction

The theoretical foundations of the concept of psychological capital are based on the “positive psychology” movement and “positive organizational behavior” approach (Luthans & Youssef-Morgan, 2017). Positive psychology, which entered in the literature with the work of Seligman (1998) in the late 20th century, is defined as a branch of science that focuses on people’s strengths and virtues (Sheldon & King, 2001; Polatçı & Baygın, 2022). Psychological capital is briefly defined as the self-confidence (self-efficacy) that can put forth the necessary effort for difficult tasks, having positive thoughts (optimism), being persistent in achieving goals (hope), and the ability to move forward without giving up by showing resistance in the process of facing with problems and difficulties (Luthans, Avolio, Avey, & Norman, 2007).

Luthans, one of the important experts in behavioral psychology, argued that the strengths and psychological states of employees in organizations are not fixed or unchangeable, on the contrary, they can be developed, and argued that employee performance can be increased if psychological capacities are developed (Akçay, 2012). Considering that financial capital and physical capital alone are not sufficient to achieve organizational success, elements such as motivation, commitment, motivation and job satisfaction are also necessary for organizational success. In order for these factors to be optimised, the psychological capital level of employees should be increased (Kara, 2014; Akyazı, 2022).

Nowadays, the value of employees in organizational life is increasing. Organizational managers are looking for various ways to make employees feel more valuable so that they can contribute more to the organization. For this reason, psychological capital is one of the important topics in organizational life. (Erkuş & Fındıklı, 2013; Yeşilkuş, Özbozkurt & Korkmazıyrek, 2022). Especially in academic organizations rivalry can be felt more, when compared to other organizations in the sense that academicians have to achieve certain targets such as publications in prestigious academic journals in order to continue their careers. In opposite conditions, it is impossible for them to continue their careers because of the fact that academic organizations have high standards.

2. Capital

Capital, as a term, is first found in mercantilists’ papers. The most important representative of the term is Stafford, and according to him, the term capital is associated with a certain type of wealth. In addition, according to physiocratic doctrine, whose founder is considered to be Quesnay, capital is material and it is used in production. On the other hand, Smith,

the founder of the classical school of economics, suggests emergence, formation and subsequent formation as the principles of capital. Based on this, Ricardo also puts forward the principles of capital redistribution and interprets the latter as a means of production. The Marxist school, deals with the reproduction process and dynamic nature of capital, while supporters of the neoclassical school of economics define capital as an element of wealth, which brings regular income to its owner. However, despite the differences in the definitions of capital as a term, it can be understood that all researchers associate capital with income. Furthermore, it is also possible to infer that the nature and structure of capital depends on the evolution of the development of economic doctrines. In this sense, the development of economic doctrines requires further investigation of the definition of capital by scientists and scholars (Butkova, 2020).

2.1. Physical Capital

Physical capital includes physical assets such as land, materials and machinery used in production. The machines, buildings, office or warehouse materials, vehicles and computers owned by an organization are considered part of its physical capital (Gratien, 2014). Physical capital is an important factor in achieving organizational success (Kara, 2014). In addition, one of the important anecdotes about physical capital is that before the 1990's, when businesses gave approximately 70% priority to physical investments as a way to gain an advantage over their competitors. Thus, companies aimed to gain competitive advantage through increasing physical capital and took certain initiatives in this regard (Edvinsson, 2000).

The importance that companies attach to physical capital in providing competitive advantage, subsequently began to show a significant change after the 1990's, and in this context, the importance and priority given to human capital instead of physical capital in providing competitive advantage has rapidly increased. Essentially, on the basis of this conjuncture, physical resources such as computers, robots and other machines owned by businesses are easy to imitate, although they are complex. Rival companies can purchase the physical resources they want to imitate, disassemble them, and thus copy the production technology they are researching. Obtaining a patent to prevent physical resources from being copied does not provide a sufficient protective effect. In this context, the perspective on the concept of capital has also changed and apart from physical capital, non-monetary human capital and recently positive psychological capital, which are among the human resources elements, have started to take place in the literature as new types of capital (Akçay, 2011; Türker, 2023).

2.2.Human Capital

Human capital is defined as a set of positive values that enable more efficient and effective use of other production factors such as knowledge, skills, experience and dynamism belonging to the workforce involved in the production process (Eser & Gökmen, 2009). In the theoretical framework, the idea of human capital was introduced by Schultz in the 1960's. The initial developments of economists such as Becker can be traced to the work of the Chicago School of Economics. In his classic book "Economic Development with Unlimited Labor Supply", written in 1964, he emphasizes the importance of investment in education, training, skills, health and other values in humans. Although there was some resistance to the idea at the initial stage of the concept's development, scholars soon came to terms with human capital theory. Subsequently, human capital began to attract attention all over the world at both organizational and individual levels (Alika & Aibieyi, 2014; Türker, 2023). Accordingly, the concept "positive psychological capital" has emerged and has become one of the primary subjects for the organizations in order to achieve organizational aims via human resource that is motivated and has high performance.

2.2.a.Positive Pshychological Capital

Martin Seligman is considered the founder of positive psychology. Seligman's experience with his daughter can be considered as the beginning of positive psychology. Seligman scatters the grass he collected while his daughter Nikki is singing and dancing/whining, and Seligman becomes angry at this behavior. After her father's behavior, Nikki turns and walks away and then returns to her father, stating that she wants to talk to him and asks if he remembers the time before her fifth birthday. She then says that she was a child who always whined until the age of five and when she turned five, she decided to stop whining because of the fact that he (Seligman) promised her to stop becoming angry at her when she stopped whining. Seligman states this memory with his daughter as an enlightenment for him (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000). Additionally, this memory opened the door for him to step into the field of positive psychology and conduct research (Kandemir, 2020; Hiçyılmaz, 2023).

Contrary to the war for talent approach in organizational behavior theories, research and practices, in recent years, a specific, cumulative, renewable and difficult to imitate approach is needed in managing and developing human resources (Luthans, Youssef & Avolio, 2007). Luthans et al. (2006) call this new understanding as psychological capital and mention that organizations can gain superiority in the long term by investing in the psychological capital of employees. In the conceptual context,

positive psychological capital has the individual's self-efficacy in terms of being able to control the events in his/her life and direct his/her motivations and cognitive resources to solve the problems he/she encounters in life (Luthans et. al., 2007). In the organizational context, psychological capital is expressed as examining and applying positive thinking human capital and psychological resilience that can be measured, developed and managed effectively in order to make productivity more effective and sustainable in business environments (Luthans, 2002; Yazıcı & Polathüsrevşahi, 2022).

Positive psychological capital is not about with whom employees communicate with or what they are knowledgeable about, but how they evaluate and express themselves within the organization in the context of their own psychology (Akçay, 2012). Positive psychology focuses more on the good aspects of employees, rather than the issues they have problems with. Positive psychological capital emphasizes the importance of the skills and abilities required for employees to be more productive and successful in the work environment. In order for organizations to complete their growth and development processes, employees are expected to demonstrate their full performance (Luthans et al., 2008; Esengin & Şantaş, 2023). Within the framework of positive psychology, positive emotions are influenced by psychological factors (psychological well-being, happiness, etc.), intellectual factors (problem solving, creativity, etc.), physical factors (coordination, coping with stress, cardiovascular health, etc.) and social factors. In this context, it has been observed that employees with positive emotions work more efficiently in terms of their cognitive and emotional situations and show higher performance in the organizational environment (Fredrickson & Losada, 2005; Efiltili & Çoklar, 2019; Akyazı, 2022).

In this context, psychological capital appears to have four basic dimensions: *Optimism*, *resilience*, *self-efficacy* and *hope* (Asbari et al., 2021). *Optimism* is expressed as the individual having positive thoughts about being able to achieve his/her goals and objectives both in the present and in the future (Luthans et al., 2006: 87). *Resilience* is about the individual who encounters problems and difficulties to recover and become strong and resilient (Avey et al., 2008; Luthans et al., 2006). *Self-efficacy* is defined as the individual's self-confidence in being able to fulfill tasks and responsibilities when faced with difficult tasks (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). *Hope* is expressed as the individual's patient progress towards his goals in order to achieve them (Snyder, 2002). Positive psychological capital creates a unique superstructure with the combination of these four dimensions and indicates a phenomenon far beyond the meaning of the dimensions alone. With the combination of these four dimensions, positive psycho-

logical capital can be defined as the individual's positive evaluation of the conditions necessary to achieve success and the possibility of success with motivated effort and perseverance (Luthans et al., 2007; Yeni & Sezici, 2022).

To sum up, employees' high level of positive psychological capital can help them successfully adapt to the business environment they are involved in, influence them in a positive way and control the business environment. A high level of positive psychological capital of the employee may cause him/her to be cognitively, emotionally and physically devoted to his/her job and thus, reduce work stress. Finally, an employee's high level of positive psychological capital can help him/her overcome problems in business life more easily and demonstrate higher performance (Yeni & Sezici, 2022).

3.The Importance of Positive Psychological Capital in Organizational Context

Psychological capital promotes individual development and performance. By bringing a new approach to organizational management with improved employee performance, organizations gain competitive advantage via increasing their performance (Çetin & Basım, 2012). In addition, the combined effect of the sub-dimensions of positive psychological capital, as mentioned in the previous section, can be more effective than focusing on each of the sub-dimensions separately. For example, it is stated that "Optimistic-self-efficacy" will be broader and more effective than just "Optimism" or just "Self-efficacy" (Luthans et al., 2007). On the other hand, abusive managers reduce employees' psychological capital, leading to suboptimal results (Avey, Agarwal & Gill, 2022).

As a result, positive psychological capital aims to develop the positive side of employees. By focusing on the positive aspects of employees in organizations, their productivity can both increase and this situation indirectly provide organizations with a competitive advantage. In other words, positive psychological capital is seen as a perspective that motivates employees by seeing the positive sides of employees rather than seeing their negative sides, and implements practices that make employees prefer to win rather than lose (Kanmaz & Karabulut, 2022).

The place of positive psychology is extremely important in organizational life. Since the psychological well-being of employees is reflected in their performance, employers need to take into account more information about organizational behavior and human resources should put forward improvement policies in this direction. Reflection of positive psychology on the organizational environment has brought with its two sub-currents,

which are *Positive Organizational Thought School* and *Positive Organizational Behavior* (Kümbül Güler, 2018). *Positive Organizational Thought School*, developed by researchers at the University of Michigan, emphasizes positive organizational features so that the organization can survive and maintain its activities in negative situations and crisis conditions (Kümbül Güler, 2018). In addition, it is possible to define *Positive Organizational Behavior* as the adaptation of the positive psychology movement to organizational fields. Based on the definition, it is seen that it has a quality that improves performance in the organization (Luthans, 2002). One of the characteristics of the field of positive organizational behavior is that it focuses on the individual in general, rather than the organization as a whole (Çınar, 2011). In this context, if a change is to be made in the organization, the individual should not be ignored, and steps should be taken to improve the organization in the future by trying to strengthen the positive aspects of the individual (Hiçyılmaz, 2023).

Çobanoğlu (2020) lists some features of positive organizational behavior as follows:

- It is within the science of organizational behavior, but it can vary relatively.
- Positive organizational behavior is based on theory and research and it is measurable.
- Positive organizational behavior is not static as it can vary depending on the situation and is open to both change and development.
- It can increase the satisfaction level of employees and improve their performance.

To sum up, in today's competitive environment, it is impossible for organizations to maintain their existence and achieve success by merely fulfilling their duties. In this sense, organizations need creative employees who will overcome difficulties and create different situations that will increase the success of the organization (Yücel, 2019). It is clear that the value of organizations cannot be explained only by physical capital and financial capital, and the value that the human factor adds to organizations cannot be ignored. In this context, the concepts of social capital and positive psychological capital, which expresses their relationship with human capital, provide competitive advantage to organizations (Yılmaz, 2020). With the increasing interest in positive psychology in recent years, the integration of employees with their jobs and therefore with their organizations, which lead to changes in success criteria, are frequently discussed by researchers (Ötken & Erben, 2010). In this context, it is seen that pos-

itive psychological capital can be a harbinger of many positive organizational behaviors such as employees' sense of commitment to their jobs, decrease in absenteeism, decrease in turnover, decrease in job stress, and increase in job success and job satisfaction in terms of achieving individual and organizational success (Erdem et al., 2015; Akçay, 2011; Türker, 2023).

4. Methodology

The aim of the current research is to reveal research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital. Reason for defining research assistants as sample is the fact that the rivalry in academy is really fierce especially for research assistants who try both to complete their PhD educations and to guarantee their positions as academic staff. Because of the fact that universities' standards are high, they feel under pressure while trying to reach these standards. In addition, they feel the fear of losing their jobs if they cannot meet the standards. Furthermore, they also have families and children and they can have difficulties in balancing their private lives and job lives in this context. Therefore, they are likely to feel negative psychologically and as being among the most important sources of academies as intellectual sources, they are likely to lose their motivation. Therefore, in relation with their demographic qualities, it is thought that research assistants can adopt different perceptions about positive psychological capital and in this frame, the hypothesis of the research are structured as follows:

$H_0: \mu_1 > \mu_2$

H_0 : There is no statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their socio-demographic (gender, marital status, experience) qualities.

$H_1: \mu_1 > \mu_2$

H_1 : There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their socio-demographic (gender, marital status, experience) qualities.

$H_2: \mu_1 > \mu_2$

H_2 : There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their gender qualities.

$H_3: \mu_1 > \mu_2$

H₃: There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their marital status qualities.

H₄: $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

H₄: There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their experience qualities.

A survey form consisting demographic questions in addition to “Positive Psychology Capital Scale” (Tösten and Özgan, 2014) is structured and delivered to research assistants via e-mail and as hardcopies. Because of the fact that it is not possible to extend the research to all research assistants, the research assistants in universities in the city of Bursa, Türkiye, are defined as sample. In Bursa city, there are two universities and the approximate number of research assistants in these universities is around 900. The sample is defined 197, in the frame of 95% reliability level and 5% error margin. 208 research assistants have participated in the research and SPSS 22.0 package program was used for analysing the data. The reliability result of the scale (Table 1) is found as ,996.

Table 1. Result of Reliability Analysis

| Positive Psychological Capital Scale | C r o n b a c h ' s Alpha Value |
|---|------------------------------------|
| | ,996 |

Demographic findings prove that (Table 2), 103 (49,5%) participants are female, while 105 (50,5%) of them are male. Marital status results show that while 77 (37%) participants are married, 131 (63%) participants are single. Finally, experience results demonstrate that 113 (54,3%) participants have 0-5 years experience, 72 (34,6%) participants have 6-10 years experience, 16 (7,7%) participants have 11-15 years experience and 7 (3,4%) participants have 16+ years experience.

Table 2. Results of Demographical Analysis

| Gender: | Female | Male |
|------------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| | 103 (49,5%) | 105 (50,5%) |
| Marital status: | Married | Single |
| | 77 (%37) | 131 (63%) |
| Experience: | 0-5 years | 6-10 years |
| | 113 (54,3%) | 72 (34,6%) |

4.1. Research Findings

4.1.a. Results of Descriptive Analysis

According to the results of descriptive statistics (Table 3), the most important item for participants is item 26, which has an average of 4,5817, “I can somehow cope with the problems I will encounter in my academic life”. Secondly, there is the idea “I am aware of my professional responsibilities”, which is item 10 with an average of 4,5769. Thirdly, there is the idea “I can handle many tasks at the same time while doing my job”, which is item 25 with an average of 4,5673.

In this sense, it can be inferred that the research assistants are really devoted to their professions in the sense they never have the feeling of giving up even if they encounter problems. This is to say that they accept all problems as a part of their job and thus, a chance of gaining experience. In addition, it can also be inferred that they have job-life balance, which constitutes importance especially in academic life.

Moreover, it is revealed that item 13, “I can be accountable for every job I do”, with an average of 4,1779, is the least important item for the participants.

From this, it can be inferred that the research assistants do not have any concerns about doing their jobs properly and ethically. They feel accountable for every action they take in the academical context.

Table 3. Results of Descriptive Analysis

| Items | | Totally Disagree | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Totally Agree | \bar{x} | SD |
|--|-------------|---------------------|----------|---------|-------|---------------|---------------|---------|
| 1- I am confident at every stage of my work. | fi | 6 | 8 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4327 | ,93006 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,8 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 2- I trust in myself. | fi | 6 | 8 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4327 | ,93006 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,8 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 3- I know what I need to do for success. | fi | 6 | 9 | 3 | 62 | 128 | 4,4279 | ,94003 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 4,3 | 1,4 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 4- I know who to get help from in tasks that challenge me. | fi | 7 | 7 | 4 | 89 | 101 | 4,2981 | ,92606 |
| | Y.fi | 3,4 | 3,4 | 1,9 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 5- I am full of life. | fi | 8 | 6 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4231 | ,96000 |
| | Y.fi | 3,8 | 2,9 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 6- I am full of energy. | fi | 7 | 7 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4279 | ,94516 |
| | Y.fi | 3,4 | 3,4 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 7- Life is beautiful. | fi | 8 | 5 | 5 | 89 | 101 | 4,2981 | ,93126 |
| | Y.fi | 3,8 | 2,4 | 2,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 8- I am cheerful. | fi | 6 | 7 | 5 | 89 | 101 | 4,3077 | ,90171 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,4 | 2,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 9- Living in harmony with society gives me peace. | fi | 8 | 6 | 4 | 89 | 101 | 4,2933 | ,94053 |
| | Y.fi | 3,8 | 2,9 | 1,9 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 10- I am aware of my professional responsibilities. | fi | 7 | 8 | 3 | 30 | 160 | 4,5769 | ,95495 |
| | Y.fi | 3,4 | 3,8 | 1,4 | 14,4 | 76,9 | | |
| 11- I am willing to solve my students' problems | fi | 5 | 8 | 5 | 57 | 133 | 4,4663 | ,90560 |
| | Y.fi | 2,4 | 3,8 | 2,4 | 27,4 | 63,9 | | |
| 12- They say that I am reliable in my profession. | fi | 3 | 9 | 6 | 89 | 101 | 4,3269 | ,84490 |
| | Y.fi | 1,4 | 4,3 | 2,9 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 13- I can be accountable for every job I do. | fi | 6 | 7 | 32 | 62 | 101 | 4,1779 | 1,00342 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,4 | 15,4 | 29,8 | 48,6 | | |

| | | | | | | | | |
|--|-------------|-----|-----|-----|------|------|---------------|--------|
| 14- If desired, I can inform a group on matters related to my profession. | fi | 6 | 8 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4327 | ,93006 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,8 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 15- When my school has a problem, I can provide a solution if necessary. I will contact all authorities. | fi | 6 | 6 | 6 | 62 | 128 | 4,4423 | ,90971 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 2,9 | 2,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 16-I develop new ideas for my school. | fi | 3 | 8 | 7 | 89 | 101 | 4,3317 | ,83438 |
| | Y.fi | 1,4 | 3,8 | 3,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 17-I can represent my institution in professional matters | fi | 7 | 6 | 5 | 89 | 101 | 4,3029 | ,91662 |
| | Y.fi | 3,4 | 2,9 | 2,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 18-I prefer to be transparent in my working life | fi | 9 | 6 | 3 | 89 | 101 | 4,2837 | ,96375 |
| | Y.fi | 4,3 | 2,9 | 1,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 19-For the education of my students, I have to deal with the negativities in the environment. | fi | 6 | 8 | 4 | 89 | 101 | 4,3029 | ,91133 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 3,8 | 1,9 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 20-I provide constructive contributions to a problem in my institution. | fi | 5 | 9 | 4 | 62 | 128 | 4,4375 | ,91469 |
| | Y.fi | 2,4 | 4,3 | 1,9 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 21-I can develop solutions to unexpected problems | fi | 5 | 10 | 3 | 89 | 101 | 4,3029 | ,90601 |
| | Y.fi | 2,4 | 4,8 | 1,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 22-Difficulties increase my determination to fight. | fi | 5 | 10 | 3 | 89 | 101 | 4,3029 | ,90601 |
| | Y.fi | 2,4 | 4,8 | 1,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 23-I struggle against difficulties. | fi | 4 | 11 | 3 | 89 | 101 | 4,3077 | ,89093 |
| | Y.fi | 1,9 | 5,3 | 1,4 | 42,8 | 48,6 | | |
| 24-The problems I experience make me mature. | fi | 6 | 9 | 3 | 62 | 128 | 4,4279 | ,94003 |
| | Y.fi | 2,9 | 4,3 | 1,4 | 29,8 | 61,5 | | |
| 25-I can handle many tasks at the same time while doing my job. | fi | 9 | 6 | 3 | 30 | 160 | 4,5673 | ,98554 |
| | Y.fi | 4,3 | 2,9 | 1,4 | 14,4 | 76,9 | | |
| 26-I can somehow cope with the problems I will encounter in my academic life. | fi | 5 | 11 | 2 | 30 | 160 | 4,5817 | ,93409 |
| | Y.fi | 2,4 | 5,3 | 1,0 | 14,4 | 76,9 | | |

4.1.1.b. Results of Factor Analysis

The original Positive Psychology Capital Scale has 6 dimensions and these are *self-efficacy*, *optimism*, *trust*, *extraversion*, *resiliancy* and *hope*. On the other hand, according to the factor analysis (Table 4), it was seen that the Positive Psychology Scale gathers under 2 dimensions in the current research. The qualities of the sample may be evaluated as a reason for this situation. As it is underlined, the sample is defined as the two universities in Bursa city. Therefore, there is the possibility for participants of evaluating the scale items in the frame of their working environment. Furthermore, the number of participants may affect the evaluation of the scale items. Therefore, when new researches are introduced in the literature in the future with different samples and the when the number of participants are widened, it is possible that the factors would be the same with the original scale.

These dimensions have been named as *self-efficacy* and *trust*. While *self-efficacy* dimension explains the Positive Psychology Capital Scale with a percentage of 49,521, the dimension of *trust* explains with a percentage of 45,919. It is proved that the cumulative percentage of 2 dimensions is 95,440.

Table 4. Results of Explained Total Variance

| Component | Calculated Sum of Squares | | | Rotated Sum of Squares | | |
|-----------|---------------------------|-----------|-------------|------------------------|-----------|-------------|
| | Total | Variance% | Cumulative% | Total | Variance% | Cumulative% |
| 1 | 23,725 | 91,251 | 91,251 | 12,875 | 49,521 | 49,521 |
| 2 | 1,089 | 4,189 | 95,440 | 11,939 | 45,919 | 95,440 |

4.1.1.c. Comparative Statistics

Since the distribution of data is not normal according to the results of Kolmogorov-Simirnov (Normality) test (Table 5), Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis (non-parametric) tests were used to analyze to reveal if there was a statistical difference in the answers given by the participants according to their socio-demographic qualities (Table 6). Results demonstrate that, there is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between *both dimensions* and marital status quality in addition to a statistically significant difference between *trust* dimension and experinece quality. Moreover, it is revealed that there is not a statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between *both dimensions* and gender quality.

According to post-hoc tests, in the frame of gender characteristics the difference stems from female participants for trust dimension, and as for self-efficacy dimension it is seen that the difference stems from male participants (Table 7). In this sense, it can be inferred that female research assistants have responsibilities both at work and at home, as mother, daughter, wife and thus they need to trust to their organization for sustainability in their lives. On the other hand, male participants have roles as father, son, husband and therefore it can be more important for them to feel self-efficacy in order to get by. Furthermore, it is also found that in the frame of marital status characteristics, the difference stems from single participants (Table 8), which implies that because of the fact that their private life responsibilities are lighter than married participants cause them to consider other work opportunities easily. Finally, in the frame experience characteristics (Table 8), it is found that the difference stems from 6-10 years experience. In this sense, it can be concluded that this age group has not enough experience and therefore they may have more difficulties in adapting the conditions in the academic sector, which causes stress. Thus, this situation can make them adopt different attitudes towards positive psychological capital.

Hence, H_2 hypothesis, *There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their gender qualities*, is rejected.

H_3 : *There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their marital status qualities*, is accepted.

H_4 : *There is statistically significant difference between research assistants' attitudes towards positive psychological capital and their experience qualities*, is accepted.

Table 5. Normality (One Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov) Test

| | Statistic | df | Sig. |
|--------------------------------------|-----------|-----|------|
| Positive Psychological Capital Scale | ,267 | 208 | ,000 |

Table 6. Comparative Statistics

| Variable | Dimension | Test | Statistics | P |
|-----------------------|---------------|----------------|------------|-------------|
| <i>Gender</i> | Self-Efficacy | Mann-Whitney U | 5356,500 | ,893 |
| | Trust | | 10712,500 | ,136 |
| <i>Marital Status</i> | Self-Efficacy | Mann-Whitney U | 3777,000 | ,001 |
| | Trust | | 3181,000 | ,000 |
| <i>Experience</i> | Self-Efficacy | Kruskal-Wallis | 8,460 | ,037 |
| | Trust | | 14,040 | ,003 |

Table 7. Gender Post-Hoc Test

| | Gender | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|---------------|--------|-----|-----------|-----------------|
| Self-Efficacy | women | 103 | 104,00 | 10712,50 |
| | men | 105 | 104,99 | 11023,50 |
| | Total | 208 | | |
| Trust | women | 103 | 110,38 | 11369,00 |
| | men | 105 | 98,73 | 10367,00 |
| | Total | 208 | | |

Table 8. Marital Status Post-Hoc Test

| | Gender | N | Mean Rank | Sum of Ranks |
|---------------|---------|-----|-----------|-----------------|
| Self-Efficacy | single | 131 | 94,83 | 12423,00 |
| | married | 77 | 120,95 | 9313,00 |
| | Total | 208 | | |
| Trust | single | 131 | 90,28 | 11827,00 |
| | married | 77 | 128,69 | 9909,00 |
| | Total | 208 | | |

Table 9. Experience Post-Hoc Test

| Sample1-Sample2 | Test Statistic | Std.Error | Std.Test Statistic | Sig. | Adj.Sig. |
|-------------------|----------------|-----------|--------------------|------|--------------|
| 6-10 0-5 | 8,117 | 7,914 | 1,026 | ,305 | 1,000 |
| 6-10 11-15 | -29,424 | 14,505 | -2,028 | ,043 | ,255 |
| 6-10 16-20 | -48299 | 20,778 | -2,324 | ,020 | ,121 |

5. Conclusions and Discussion

Psychological capital addresses the issue of who the individuals working in the organization are and what these individuals can achieve with psychological development (Kumlu, 2017). Feeling the developments within the organization positively and the employee's ability to improve himself/herself constitute the basic elements of psychological capital (Yıldız & Örucü, 2016). The existence of hope in coping with the difficulties of the current working conditions, expectation of success, effort towards challenging goals and the ability to produce solutions to the problems encountered, constitute the components of positive psychological capital (Avey et al., 2008; Yeşilkuş, Özbozkurt & Korkmazıyrek, 2022). It is thought that psychological capital will have important outcomes for both organizations and employees. Positive psychological capital of employees may also have an impact on their behaviors that are not defined within their job roles, which are called "extra-roles" (Tüfekçi Yaman & Aytaç, 2022). This stands for "organizational citizenship".

The current study aims at revealing the attitudes of research assistants towards positive psychological capital, in the sense that it constitutes cruciality that their psychological well-being is important; because of the fact that they are brain workers and they contribute to science. In addition, they may also have difficulties in balancing their jobs and private lives, because brain workers are not shift workers. The statistical results of the current research prove that there is a statistically significant difference ($p < 0.05$) between marital status characteristics and *both dimensions* of the scale and between experience characteristic and *trust* dimension of the scale. On the other hand, it is found out that there is not a statistically significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between gender characteristic and *both dimensions* of the scale. Therefore, it can be deduced that psychological well-being of the participants depends on their being married or single. This is to say that, being married requires much more responsibility than being single. Therefore, the participants', who are research assistants and thus brain workers, may change their attitudes towards positive psychological capital according to their marital status. Furthermore, the fact that there is statistically significant relationship between experience characteristic and trust dimension of the scale, may imply that the more they gain experience increases, the more trust they gain in themselves. The findings also imply that the attitudes are same for both genders. Being female or male do not make any difference in the attitudes of participants. In this sense, it can be inferred that the reason of this, is the fact that they are all brain workers.

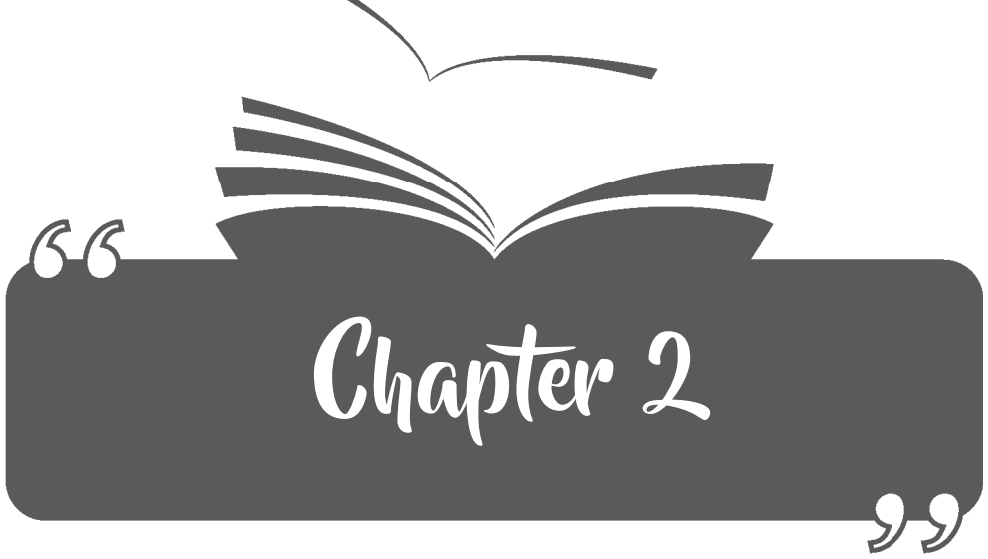
The current study is conducted on a limited number of participants as it is not possible to reach the whole research universe. In addition, there is almost no researches on research assistants in the frame of positive psychological capital. Therefore, the current study is expected to constitute originality and give researchers the chance of widening the sample as well as comparing the results. Therefore, for further researches it constitutes importance to widen the sample in order to draw a general frame of the education sector. It is also important for academic managers in the sense that they can revise their managerial styles to increase job satisfaction of research assistants, who are the future of scientific and scholarly researches.

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**WHO AM “I” IN A GROUP? :
INDIVIDUAL SELF AND SOCIAL IDENTITY**

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The human need to recognise, understand and define oneself is a research topic that has been going on for years and will continue. The explanations we make about who we are are associated with the characteristics we have and the characteristic structures we see as unique. In other words, we can say that the distinctive features that enable us to express ourselves in social and social life are the definitions that make up our self. In this sense, it can be said that the self is the sum of what we have in the process of understanding ourselves or the sum of our definitions about ourselves. Although most of us tend to try to understand who we are according to our characteristics, attitudes or preferences, it is obvious that the process that constitutes the 'self' has both personal (unique) and social aspects. This holistic approach to being 'I' points to the concept of self and its multiple sides in the social psychology literature. Therefore, the answer to the question of who I am should be sought not only in the context of personality or characterised features, but also in the context of self-perception, evaluation and construction of an identity. In other words, questions about self-identification should be sought in the awareness that constructs the self (Kulaksızoğlu, 2001; Verkutyen, 1989). From a social psychological perspective, the most basic definition of what the self-concept is includes the personal characteristics of the individual, the roles he/she has acquired in the society, and the mental representations of the past or the future (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In addition to being the cognitive component of the person's values, judgements and self-definitions in the developmental process (Markus & Zajonc (1985), it can also be called a cognitive picture of who the individual is (Byrne, 1974; Gander & Gardiner, 2001). In addition, the examination of one's inner world and obtaining information about one's feelings and attitudes is also an effort to explain the self (Tordesillas & Chailen, 1999; Vazire & Carlson, 2011). While the concept of self is related to the unique, psychological and physical characteristics of the person (e.g., I am strong, I am smart, I am ugly, I am skilful), it is also related to the social roles ('who am I?') that emerge as a result of the self's interaction with relationships and society. However, when we look at the concepts related to the self, we can come across three dimensional definitions: the real self (the form of self that the individual thinks he/she has), the ideal self (the self that includes what he/she wants for himself/herself) and the self that should be (the self that includes the skills and characteristics that he/she believes he/she should have) (Higgins, 1987). These forms of self also have two dimensions that care about one's own perspective and the perspectives of others. The number of people we know and the roles we have acquired within the framework of the social structure we interact with also constitute the self (James, 1950). In addition, the concept of self is considered together with definitions

such as self-esteem, self-schema, self-regulation, self-presentation, and self-awareness (Fiske & Taylor, 1991; Markus, 1977).

When we look at the literature, various definitions regarding different aspects of the concept of self are noteworthy. Westen (1990) argues that the self is a broad psychological phenomenon that includes social consciousness and social motivation, emotions and psychopathology. James (1950) mentions the material self, which refers to what the individual has in life, the spiritual self, which refers to the subjective and internal psychological evaluations of the individual towards himself/herself, and the social self, which refers to the social roles that the individual has acquired and the way he/she is perceived by others. Similarly, the concepts of psychodynamic self (Freud, 1936; Winnicott 1965), individual self (Rogers, 1961; Higgins, 1987), collective self (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and symbolic interactionist self (Mead, 1934), which express that the self is the result of the interaction between people, have emerged. From this point of view, although the concept of self emphasises individual processes such as attention, perception and cognition (Markus & Kutayama, 2010), it appears as a social phenomenon that determines our social identity (Baumeister, 1987; White & Lehman, 2005). Therefore, our perception of our own self also depends on the way we interact with others. Although the self is a structure that is constructed through relationships and connections with others, it emphasises fixed personal characteristics (Higgins & May, 2001) and our distinct or unique characteristics. In order to understand this unique mechanism, it is inevitable to understand the individual aspects of the self and the dynamics that emerge in the relationship with others.

In this section, it will not be a priority to dwell on the different types of self that have been included in the social psychology literature due to the scope of the subject. The concept of individual self, which emphasises the characterised features of the self, and the relationship between the self and social identity, which is the state of being us in the relationship with others, are discussed with its historical and theoretical background. In this section, the concept of individual self, the concept of social identity, which is the form of existence of individual self in a collective or group, and Social Identity Theory as the theoretical background are mentioned respectively.

Giddens (2010), in defining the self, refers to a reflexive design for which the individual is responsible and to the psychological needs that provide the parameters for the reformation of the self through psychological processes in its formation. The individual self is related to the fundamental question of who or what the 'self' is, what distinctive and relevant psychological characteristics it contains that are different from others.

In the search for answers to this question, mainstream social psychology conceptualises the self as a structure that is distinct/separate from others and unique/unique and emphasises the individual side of the self (Akfirat, 2006). For instance, individuals perceive themselves and their characteristics as unique and our subjective evaluations of ourselves may come to the fore (Brown, 1998). The awareness of perceiving oneself as an individual and the process of understanding that one is separate from other people points to the individual self. The skills and characteristics that the individual has acquired as a personality or character or that he/she has in himself/herself, what he/she can or cannot do, and his/her internal process about how to follow a method in his/her relationship with others is the adventure of the formation of the self.

In other words, this process is the process of recognising one's inner psychological characteristics, showing awareness of the use of one's abilities and achievements, and perceiving oneself as a unique being different from others. Individual self also requires an intrinsic motivation for individuals to understand and evaluate themselves. The motivation in question is directed towards the need for individuals to distinguish between positive and negative arguments in the process of self-evaluation and the need for approval in the eyes of others. From this point of view, most of the mainstream social psychological theories related to the self define the self at the individual level and point to the internal psychological characteristics of the individual (Brewer & Gardner, 1996; Simon, 1997).

So, what does the historical background of the self say?

Discussions on the foundations of self-perception and human self-construction continue with a strong theoretical and historical interest from philosophy to sociology, social psychology to sociology. All discourses and contents related to the perception of 'I', which represents the reality principle of the individual, constitute the individual self. Individual self is our aspects that emphasise the unique characteristics of the individual and that others do not have.

According to approaches that argue that the self is basically individual, the society we live in or the groups we belong to consist of individuals who interact with each other. Therefore, being a community or group can be explained by the coexistence of relational and interactional selves.

Over time, with its contributions, the effort to understand human beings and the discussions on identity have increased; with this increase, the effect of the concept of self on human behaviour and social life has become evident. The philosophical approach defines the self in terms of the subjective integrity of the individual as the separation of the conscious

individual from others; Aristotle mentions the existence of an 'inner experience' of the self. Similarly, Stirner (2013) pointed to the concept of uniqueness and self, which are the foundations of the individual self, by saying that glorifying the 'I' passes through glorifying the ego. Similar to Aristotle, Plato also questioned the universal self of human beings in Antiquity, while the Age of Enlightenment emphasised the rational aspects of human reason and the perception of freedom. In this sense, the Enlightenment and Renaissance period points to the individual self due to the emphasis on the freedom and individuality of the human mind.

In summary, the cognitive structure, which was seen as fixed or unique in terms of individuals' minds and self-explanation in the process extending from the Middle Ages to the Enlightenment, started to change as of the 16th century and left its place to the change in the way individuals position themselves. When we look historically, the development of the concept of the self and the emphasis on individuality on different bases have the effect of secularisation and modernity (Durkheim, 1984). Under the influence of dogmatic thought pattern and religious authority, man's ability to realise and define himself is limited; in a secular environment, his own or unique individual values have become visible. In other words, the idea that personal desires and expectations of this world can be realised or exist outside of an authoritarian / institutionalised structure has contributed to the development of the individual self. Similarly, individuality, the existence and development of the self and the basis of individual identity can be understood by understanding the birth of modernity and modernity itself (Giddens, 2010). The period of Enlightenment and Industrialisation, in which modernity took its power behind it, are also periods that historically point to the foundations of the self.

In this period, it can be said that human reason and freedom are the dominant factors and reason is a factor that changes and transforms social life. Therefore, this process, which points to individual reason and originality, basically points to the definitions of self and being self. Although the existence of the individual is not possible in traditional culture, the individual and the self have become the focus of attention with the differentiated division of labour and different industrialisation processes (Durkheim, 1984). The process in question has brought individual and social life to another point with the change and transformation of economic structuring and the sphere of influence brought by industrialisation. Therefore, the power of being a subject and the self are considered together with modernity as a multifaceted reality (Giddens, 1990).

The shift of the concept of self from philosophy to psychology was realised with James' belief that the study of psychology should begin with

the study of the self. James argues that the individual self is constantly in a state of flux and that there is an interaction that is shaped by our experiences, and he introduces the concepts of 'self as knower' and 'self as known', thereby removing the self from being a philosophical term (Hilgard, 1962). In addition, James characterised the self as material, spiritual and social self, and made a great contribution to the existence of the self in the psychology community by focusing on the practices of the self types in the social field (Schultz and Schultz;2001; cited in Yıldız, 2006).

Similarly, we can find information about the historical and psychological roots of the concept of self in psychoanalysis or psychoanalytic thought system. Freud states that the functioning of cognitive processes and the working system of the mind are complex. According to him, although the self is not a structure that can be understood in a real sense; it becomes meaningful with the depths of the unconscious (Rennison, 2001). It can be said that the psychodynamic self structure consisting of the concepts of id, ego and super ego expressed by Freud constitutes the building blocks on the way to the individual self. Namely, it is known that id is the part of the mind that we want to realise the desires of the mind immediately without question, ego is the rational and harmonious part that decides under which conditions these desires can be realised, and super ego is the part that tends to control the ego and make more normatively acceptable decisions (Freud, 1984; Rennison, 2001). Freud emphasises the personal aspect of the self, focuses on the 'I' and thus points to the individuality of the self. Similarly, Jung points out that the ego is needed for the realisation of the individual's self-awareness and thus for the existence of the self, the source of which is the unconscious (as cited in Brooke, 2009). As a part of developmental and personality development, people want to improve themselves continuously and the state of being a self or the concept of self is formed in adulthood.

Therefore, although the role of the unconscious is great in the developmental process of human beings and the adventure of self-awareness, the existence of the ego is also important (Morris, 2002; Urban, 2005). In this sense, it is stated that the unconscious has an effect on shaping human thoughts and behaviours and understanding the self. However, Erikson (1950) also mentions a gradual process in terms of the formation of the individual's developmental and holistic identity and argues that ego integrity is important for the roots of the self. It has been argued that the discussions on the self in the field of social psychology have been evaluated with a psychoanalyst approach, and that this has led to a reductionist conceptual debate (Tajfel, 1982). From this point onwards, social psychological definitions and explanations of the self began to be considered in relation to group and identity. In other words, social psychological studies

have tended to analyse the process of identity formation, including the social and interactional aspects of the self.

Self-definition as a result of belonging to a group and its relationship with identity is one of the most widely discussed topics in the psychological community. Social psychologists such as M. Şerif, Mead and Goffman emphasised the role of environmental interaction in the formation and definition of the self and stated that the relationship established with others constructs the self. Şerif and Şerif (1956) state that the self is a concept that interacts with oneself and one's environment and that the development of the self is related to the continuity of the relationships that the individual establishes with others. Thus, the relationship of the individual self with the state of being in a group and the identity acquisition processes that develop or take shape after belonging to a group is revealed. Similarly, Mead (1934), while talking about the reflected evaluation process, argues that individuals' evaluations and inferences about their own selves depend on the evaluations of others about them. In other words, we learn to evaluate ourselves and develop appropriate responses to the situation through social interactions and roles in our lives; we contribute to self-development through the existence of social groups, family relationships, belongings and life experiences. In this sense, an individual's self-development is formed through social interaction and it would be misleading to think of a self-consciousness separate from the society we live in (Wallence & Wolf, 2012). Similarly, Cooley (1902) stated that what others or society thinks about us is determinative of how we will feel or evaluate ourselves.

Another social psychological perspective on the relationship between self and identity belongs to Goffman. In Goffman's (2014) definition of self, the importance of social interaction goes beyond subjectivity and being a self, and refers to behaviour and appearance in the presence of social and normative institutions. That is to say, individuals may not behave as they behave when they are alone in the presence of others, they may tend towards a different style of self. Goffman considers the world as a theatre stage where different identities and social roles are distributed and argues that individuals have a tendency to look good or make a good impression to others in their interaction with their environment (Lazar, 2009). Similarly, many studies on the relationship between self and identity have enriched this field by addressing the state of self in the group with different perspectives and contexts (Foddy & Kashima, 2002; Kinch, 1963; Shavelson, Hubner, & Stanton, 1976; Smith, 1991; Stryker & Burke, 2000). Especially in the 1970s, Tajfel and Turner (1979) put forward the most prominent approach of social psychology that addresses the relationship

between self and identity in the context of belonging to social groups and emphasised social identity.

The individual self in a group: Social identity

While the definition of 'I' of the individual self focuses on subjectivity and the distinctiveness of internal characteristics, it also includes the 'I' we are in and interact with. In this sense, it is inevitable that the social environment into which we are born or with which we interact, normative situations and the social roles we acquire affect our self and reveal a different form of self. For instance, while the self focuses on the distinctive and unique aspects of the person, it also develops through our characteristics that are similar or dissimilar to others. From this point of view, a new definition of the self, which is the form of the self within a group, shaped through belonging to a social group and Turner's (1999) insistence on defining the individual self through similarities with others, reveals a new definition of the self: social identity.

When we look at the starting point and background of the concept of social identity, we can see the claim that personality is a part of the self arising from the relationship established with others and group membership (Turner, 1982; Abrams & Hogg, 1999). In Tajfel's (1982:2) words, social identity refers to the part of one's perception of one's own self that arises from knowledge, values and emotional significance related to a social group or groups. The skills and attitudes we acquire throughout life and the reactions we give to situations are sometimes linked to our personal identity, which is related to our being unique, original and uniquely ourselves (Brown, 1988). Sometimes we can also say that our behaviours and discourses are shaped within a social group, within the framework of the characteristics and norms of the group. In this case, by perceiving ourselves as a member of that group, we develop a new social identity. In other words, by defining ourselves in the context of a group and its characteristics, we acquire new social roles that form our identity (Albert, Ashforth, & Dutton, 2000; Hornsey, 2008; Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994).

Social identity reveals individuals' sense of integration as a result of their group belonging; it also enables them to internalise the values and norms of the society they are in. Therefore, the roles and social identities we acquire in the society are also effective on our individual self. The social and normative groups to which people belong are effective in their definition of 'self' and group memberships add a new dimension to self-consciousness and reveal the consciousness of 'we' (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Mlicki & Ellemers, 1996). In other words, the effect of the group and

the normative on the individual self is revealed. Similarly, the values and cognitive structures that constitute the individual self also reveal group behaviour (Hogg & Abrams, 1990; Billig, 1976). Here, the sustainability of the interaction of individual self and social identity with each other is revealed. In order to understand the theoretical background of the interaction in question, it would be appropriate to mention the Social Identity Theory (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), which laid the foundations of the concept of social identity and effectively discussed the relationships between self and group (Hogg, 2006). Social identity reveals individuals' sense of integration as a result of group belonging.

Social Identity Theory

Social identity theory emerged from a critical perspective towards other individualistic and reductionist approaches of social psychology and paved the way for discussing the group phenomenon in different contexts (Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Turner & Brown, 1978). In other words, the processes towards the inclusion of other people we consider important in our personal lives or the groups we belong to and our tendency to see ourselves similar to the social groups we are a member of have been opened to discussion thanks to social identity theory (Turner & Oakes, 1997). Social identity theory generally includes the identity obtained as a result of identification with the groups we belong to (gender, occupation, cultural belonging, race, etc.) and adopting the normative characteristics of these groups. When we consider it on a macro scale, Social Identity Theory is known as a theory that explains situations such as discrimination, prejudice, ethnocentrism, intergroup hostility or co-operation, and racism, the basis of which goes back to Muzaffer Sherif's (1967) intergroup studies (Van Dick, 2004). When we look at the basic concepts of social identity theory, we can see that it focuses on the individual and group relationship and the advantages and disadvantages that group membership resulting from this relationship brings to the person. Namely; individuals tend to develop a positive self-perception and may join groups similar to themselves in order to achieve this positive self-perception. In other words, people may tend to glorify the group they belong to (in-group) and exclude and belittle other groups (out-group) in order to gain a positive social identity (Doosje and Ellemers, 1997). This situation is called in-group favoritism and is one of the most defining concepts of social identity theory. We can adopt the social norms of the society we were born into or live in and include and classify ourselves in a social group. Social classification is the process of being perceived as a member of a social group and people are no longer individuals or people but are grouped as Turks, Syrians, women and attributed different meanings. (Mackie, Queller, Stroessner and Hamilton, 1996). As a result of this classification, we identify with

the group identity whose values we find normatively appropriate; we acquire a social identity (Turner, 1987). Social identity studies conducted with groups state that the quality of a group (age, status, race, ability) is related to the perception of whether it is appropriate or close to us, and it determines which group we will identify with and acquire a social identity through social classifications. In other words, comparisons between the in-group, which is the group we feel we belong to, and the out-group, which we do not feel we belong to or are close to, allow us to position ourselves in a social identity (Hogg, 2001). Social categorization is a cognitive process that people use to make sense of the social world, and this process can bring about negative situations such as intergroup prejudice, discrimination, and conflict (Tajfel, 1981). However, the question of how social categorization affects individuality and the individual self is related to self-categorization theory and is linked to intergroup dynamics (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987).

After the social categorization processes, it is likely that a sense of belonging to the group or groups will emerge. We can say that the degree of our belonging to a group is related to the level of identification with the group. From here, the most important argument of social identity theory, the concept of identification, emerges. Identification is the process by which individuals see themselves as belonging to a certain group and adopt the norms, values, and beliefs of this group (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In this process, individuals can identify with the groups in their social environment and form their own personal identities, characteristics related to the self, and also their social roles. As a result of the social comparison, social categorization, and identification processes, individuals may tend to exaggerate the achievements, characteristics, and values of their own groups and assume that they are superior. In this sense, the exaggeration effect, which is related to the perception of social identity, is closely related to the desire of groups to reinforce their social identities and to portray their own groups as superior (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Many studies conducted on the basis of social identity show that; strengthening social identity makes intergroup differences more apparent and triggers the exaggeration effect in favor of the in-group (Jetten, Spears, & Manstead, 1996; Doosje, Spears, & Ellemers, 2002; Mullen, Brown and Smith, 1992). According to Social Identity Theory, individuals identify with social groups through the exaggeration effect, and the success or failure of these groups has a direct effect on their personal self-perception. Therefore, if individuals are in low-status groups that will negatively affect their self-perception; they can use different strategies to cope with this situation (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). These strategies depend on whether an individual's social identity is positive or not and the structure and characteristics of the

group (Condor, 1990). If the values and characteristics of the group and its social position are positive, then the acquired social identity will also be positive. However, sometimes the groups we are a part of are not at the desired or positive level in terms of quality and position, which can lead to a negative social identity perception. In this case, individuals can follow various strategies to develop a positive self-perception and create a positive social identity (Mummendey and Schreiber, 1983; Turner and Brown, 1978). According to social identity theory, individuals' self-perceptions are shaped not only by their individual achievements and personal characteristics, but also by the social groups they are members of (Abrams and Hogg, 1988).

Instead of Conclusion

While the impact of arguments regarding social identity on our individual self is undoubtedly visible; the strategies used are also critical to protecting and developing individuals' self-perception and self-esteem, restructuring their self-perception, and creating a positive social identity.

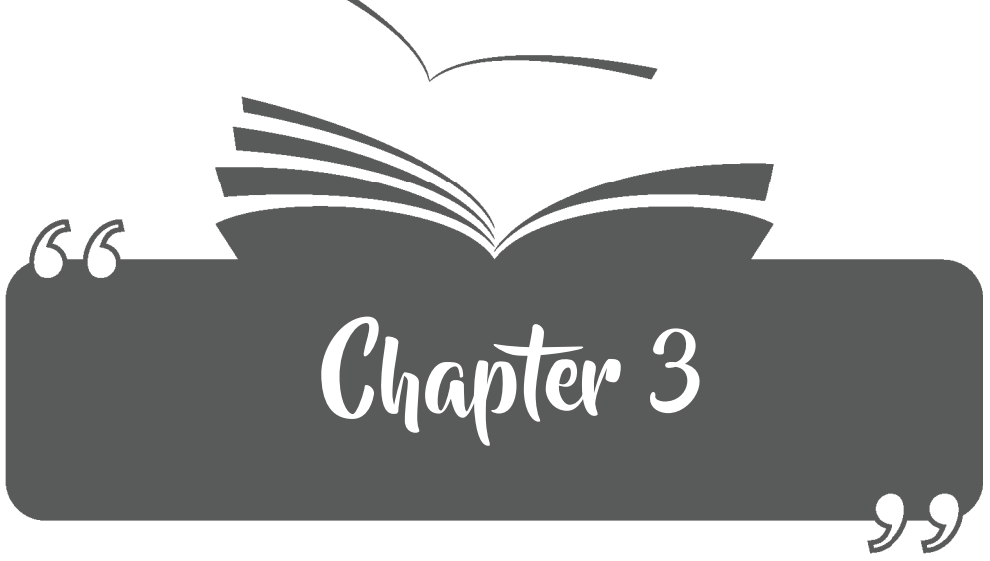
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**LOW BUDGET, MAXIMUM IMPACT:
GUERRILLA MARKETING**

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INTRODUCTION

Traditional marketing methods help brands reach large audiences, but in today's competitive environment, differentiation has become increasingly difficult. Consumers' growing indifference to advertisements and the overwhelming flow of information brought by digitalization necessitate innovative and attention-grabbing approaches in marketing strategies. As traditional marketing methods fail to capture consumers' attention, businesses are searching for creative and effective alternatives. In this context, guerrilla marketing stands out as a strategy that aims to create maximum impact with a limited budget by utilizing unconventional and creative methods.

Unlike traditional advertising, guerrilla marketing is an approach designed to achieve high engagement with low costs. The concept of guerrilla marketing originates from military strategies and is particularly recognized for its elements of surprise, creativity, and innovative solutions. Introduced by Jay Conrad Levinson in 1984, this concept provides an effective marketing solution, especially for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). However, today, guerrilla marketing has become a strategic choice for large-scale brands as well, representing an innovation that challenges conventional methods. By targeting consumers with memorable messages in unconventional locations and with low budgets, this strategy redefines the boundaries of marketing.

At its core, guerrilla marketing relies on creativity, uniqueness, and unexpected methods to leave a lasting impression on consumers. This enables brands to go beyond merely promoting their products or services and instead establish a strong emotional connection with their customers. One of the most significant advantages of guerrilla marketing is that it allows even businesses with limited budgets to reach large audiences. While traditional advertising methods typically require substantial budgets, guerrilla marketing aims to achieve a significant impact at a low cost. This strategy can be implemented in unconventional locations, using extraordinary advertising techniques or methods that engage consumers directly. Elements such as street art, flash mob events, viral videos, and surprise campaigns are among the primary tools of guerrilla marketing.

Guerrilla marketing is not just a marketing strategy; it is also a powerful communication method that enables businesses to establish meaningful and effective emotional bonds with their target audiences (Levinson, 1994). From a marketing strategy perspective, guerrilla marketing reduces brands' reliance on traditional media channels and fosters more organic and genuine communication paths. With the rise of social media

platforms, guerrilla marketing strategies have played a crucial role in creating viral campaigns. By encouraging active participation from users, these strategies facilitate consumer-brand interactions and strengthen brand loyalty. Consequently, guerrilla marketing has been gaining increasing importance in the modern marketing landscape.

The aim of this study is to examine the historical development and theoretical foundations of guerrilla marketing and to evaluate its advantages in terms of marketing strategies. The study will explore how guerrilla marketing techniques function and in which situations they are most effective. By doing so, it aims to contribute to businesses developing marketing strategies that achieve a high impact at a low cost.

1. GUERRILLA MARKETING

The Turkish Language Association defines ‘guerrilla’ as ‘groups fighting against a regular army in small units with light weapons.’ These groups attract attention with their struggle despite having limited resources (Turkish Language Association, 2024).

The term “guerrilla” originates from the Spanish word “guerra” (war) (Levinson, 1998). It refers to the warfare tactics used by small-scale and irregular military units against larger and more organized armies. This term was especially used during the Napoleonic Wars to describe the actions of resistance groups in Spain. In guerrilla warfare, unexpected tactics such as surprise attacks, ambushes, and sudden raids are prominent. The goal is not necessarily to achieve direct victory but to weaken the enemy and lower their morale. Guerrilla warfare, also known as partisan struggle, has been regarded as an effective weapon for the weaker side in conflicts (Levinson, 1994). During the Vietnam War, it was discovered that guerrilla warfare tactics could also be used as a marketing strategy. The effective guerrilla tactics employed by the Vietnamese against the American army caught the attention of marketers in the United States, leading to the adaptation of these strategies into marketing (Kaya, 2011).

Jay Conrad Levinson introduced the concept of guerrilla marketing in his 1984 book “Guerrilla Marketing: Secrets for Making Big Profits from Your Small Business.” His work has earned him the title of “Father of Guerrilla Marketing” (Florzak & Singer, 2004).

During the 1980s, small businesses began to use guerrilla marketing to attract customers from larger enterprises. While it first emerged in the 1980s, it became mainstream in the 1990s. By the early 2000s, with technological advancements, guerrilla marketing started to be utilized on the internet.

Traditional marketing methods usually focus on major media channels like television, radio, newspapers, and social media, requiring significant financial investments. Guerrilla marketing, on the other hand, is more about creativity and strategy (Alsheikh, 2024). The key to this approach is breaking away from conventional methods, capturing the target audience's attention, and making the brand stand out. Therefore, guerrilla marketing is a crucial tool for small and medium-sized businesses to compete with larger brands. By developing innovative campaigns, businesses can surprise consumers.

Another major advantage of this approach is that it allows businesses to build strong emotional connections with their target audiences (Levinson & Horowitz, 2010). These tactics can actively engage consumers, fostering a personal bond between the brand and the customer. Additionally, guerrilla marketing offers an opportunity to break away from monotonous marketing strategies. The strategic foundation of this method lies in deeply analyzing consumer behavior and psychology to develop suitable solutions. Guerrilla marketing campaigns are often tailored to the interests, habits, and emotional desires of the target audience (Çeltek & Bozdoğan, 2012).

The rise of technology and social media has expanded the scope of guerrilla marketing tactics. The ability of content to spread rapidly on social media enables guerrilla marketing campaigns to reach global audiences in an instant. Another crucial advantage of digital guerrilla marketing is that it allows businesses to achieve wide reach at a low cost.

However, digital guerrilla marketing campaigns also pose risks, as crises can escalate just as quickly as viral success. Negative feedback and criticism on social media can significantly impact a brand's reputation.

There are different definitions of guerrilla marketing. Some of them can be summarized as follows (Paksoy & Chang, 2010):

- The primary investment tools in guerrilla marketing are time and imagination.
- The priority of guerrilla marketing is not sales volume but profit.
- Guerrilla marketing is primarily designed for small-scale businesses.
- Guerrilla marketing is based on human behavior and psychology.

To implement an effective guerrilla marketing technique, both businesses and consumers must possess two key elements: creativity and

imagination. Marketers using this strategy have demonstrated that employing these elements in marketing communication can lead to significant savings in marketing budgets. Additionally, guerrilla marketing enables customers to find convenient and efficient solutions to meet their needs (Uysal, 2011: 69).

For a marketing strategy to be classified as guerrilla marketing, it must have a simple and understandable marketing plan. Proper timing is also a crucial element of guerrilla marketing (Levinson, Meyerson & Scarborough, 2008; Khalid, 2024). Guerrilla marketing provides insight into how potential customers make decisions. Guerrilla marketers first analyze the decision-making processes of consumers to understand how to influence and persuade them. Rather than just focusing on making a sale, guerrilla marketers aim to build long-term relationships with their customers (Levinson & Horowitz, 2010). If a customer believes that the product or service they received is not valuable, the guerrilla marketer must identify the root cause of the issue and develop effective solutions to prevent it from recurring. This ensures customer loyalty. Finding satisfied customers may be easy, but loyal customers are rare. The future of profitable marketing depends on loyal customers and repeated orders (Levinson & Hanley, 2006: 16-17).

2.GUERRILLA MARKETING'S HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT

The concept of guerrilla marketing emerged in the early 1980s. First introduced by Jay Conrad Levinson in 1984, this concept provides an effective marketing solution, particularly for small and medium-sized enterprises. The 1980s were a period of significant transformations in the marketing sector. Changes in consumer behavior, increasing competition, and limited budgets forced businesses and brands to seek innovative solutions. Inspired by guerrilla warfare tactics, Levinson developed a marketing approach aimed at creating high impact with minimal cost (Levinson & Lautenslager, 2010). During this period, guerrilla marketing was particularly characterized by street art, guerrilla theater, and advertisements displayed in unconventional spaces.

The period after 1990 saw broader acceptance and application of guerrilla marketing across various industries. While traditional media continued to maintain its influence, brands began shifting toward consumer-focused and experiential marketing strategies. Guerrilla marketing campaigns during this period aimed not only to increase brand awareness but also to establish direct and emotional connections with target audiences (Çeltek & Bozdoğan, 2012).

From 2000 onwards, with the widespread adoption of the internet and digital technologies, guerrilla marketing experienced a significant transformation. The rise of social media facilitated brands' ability to reach large audiences through viral campaigns. The preparation of low-cost yet attention-grabbing videos, viral content, and social media challenges turned guerrilla marketing into a widely used tool. Consequently, guerrilla marketing rapidly spread and achieved global influence (Uysal, 2011).

3. CORE CHARACTERISTICS OF GUERRILLA MARKETING

One of the defining characteristics of guerrilla marketing is its low-cost nature. This makes it an ideal approach for small and medium-sized enterprises that lack the financial resources to compete with larger corporations (Levinson, Myers & Kimble, 2021). Guerrilla marketing is particularly useful when financial constraints prevent businesses from gaining a competitive advantage through traditional marketing tools and strategies (Sula & Banyar, 2015: 50). Primarily, guerrilla marketing is used as part of the promotional mix within marketing strategies.

Guerrilla marketing integrates promotional activities within the marketing mix (Gegung, 2025). The distribution of guerrilla marketing components, as illustrated in Figure 1, explains its relationship with traditional marketing. Guerrilla marketing is a form of advertising that actively involves consumers in the experience (Klepek, 2007: 81). Guerrilla marketing campaigns creatively utilize unconventional methods to present dynamic ideas in unexpected places where advertising is least expected. The goal is to surprise, engage, and energize consumers. The element of surprise is a fundamental aspect of this marketing method (Isaac, 2014: 180).

Guerrilla marketing is an alternative approach designed to convey brand messages consistently. It consists of unconventional, non-dogmatic applications aimed at achieving maximum benefit with minimal investment (Levinson, 1994). Unlike other marketing methods, it seeks to discover and implement innovative, extraordinary strategies.

Key characteristics of guerrilla marketing (Özer, 2016: 43):

- It is creative and unconventional.
- It creates surprise effects.
- It incorporates 3D visuals, vehicle wraps, and building wraps.
- It places oversized replicas of products or brand symbols in unexpected locations.

- It requires the use of interactive technologies.
- It utilizes the environment for advertising purposes.
- Consumers should not be aware that they are being exposed to a promotional activity.
- It includes communication activities that make an impact in large organizations without being an official sponsor.
- It synchronizes external events with product promotion, even if they are independent of the advertised product.

Levinson also highlights the following features of guerrilla marketing (Singha & Tiwari, 2013: 18):

- It should be based on human psychology rather than experience, judgment, or estimation.
- Marketers should focus on how many new relationships they can establish each month.
- Instead of offering numerous diverse products and services, the focus should be on establishing a high standard of excellence in a single area.
- Rather than acquiring new customers, efforts should be directed toward obtaining more referrals, increasing transactions with existing customers, and securing larger transactions.
- Greater collaboration with other businesses should be emphasized.
- Messages should target small groups rather than broad audiences.
- Instead of pushing sales, marketers should seek consumer consent to provide more information.

4. GUERRILLA MARKETING PROCESS

The success of guerrilla marketing depends on knowing when and how to execute strategies. Companies that employ guerrilla marketing techniques must adapt quickly; otherwise, they risk losing their competitive edge in a dynamic market (Yüksekbilgili, 2011: 52-53). The most critical aspect is ensuring that the implemented tactics are uniformly applied across all areas while continuously evaluating the achieved results.

Levinson outlines a five-step process for businesses looking to implement guerrilla marketing. The key steps in this process are as follows (Gümüštepe, 2020: 12-14):

Creating a Comprehensive Database: Businesses must thoroughly understand their internal operations and external environment during the planning phase. To take the right steps, they should develop a solid plan. This requires conducting in-depth research into the industry they aim to enter and their target audience. Such research should include insights from employees, target consumers, competitor firms, and the economic conditions of the market. A well-conducted analysis serves as a blueprint for the business.

Conducting a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) Analysis: Companies must first identify their strengths and weaknesses while also considering market opportunities and threats. By doing so, they can leverage their advantages to develop competitive marketing strategies. Businesses adopting guerrilla marketing must accurately complete this analysis to maximize their strengths and capitalize on existing market advantages.

Choosing the Right Marketing Weapon Based on SWOT Analysis: To succeed in a competitive market, businesses must analyze their strengths and determine a suitable marketing strategy. The selected strategy should highlight the company's competitive advantages while aiming to increase profitability. Additionally, companies should collaborate with employees to develop a cohesive marketing plan that incorporates their insights. A well-prepared marketing plan enhances the likelihood of success.

Developing a Marketing Calendar: To ensure the success of a marketing strategy, businesses must establish a structured timeline incorporating guerrilla marketing tactics. Adhering to this timeline enhances the effectiveness of the plan. Furthermore, businesses must anticipate counteractions from competitors and ensure that selected marketing tools are deployed simultaneously and efficiently.

Executing Counterattacks: This phase involves determining the responses to competitive actions while implementing the guerrilla marketing plan. To maintain consistency across all marketing efforts, businesses should regularly assess the outcomes of their counterattacks against competitor strategies.

5. COMPARISON OF GUERRILLA MARKETING AND TRADITIONAL MARKETING

In parallel with studies in the literature, a summary of the key differences between traditional marketing and guerrilla marketing is presented in Table 1.

| Guerrilla Marketing | Traditional Marketing |
|--|--|
| Requires a low budget | Requires a high budget |
| Targets a specific and narrow audience | Target audience is broad |
| Suitable for small-scale businesses with small budgets | Requires large-scale businesses and large budgets |
| Prefers streets, social media, and public relations events | Prefers communication channels like television, radio, and print media |
| Message spreads to a small and narrow audience, creating a lasting impact | Messages spread to a broad audience, with lasting impact depending on the audience |
| The main driving forces are imagination and time | The main driving force is budget |
| Methods are diverse | Methods are limited |
| The message intended for consumers is clear, making it easy for them to understand | The message intended for consumers is not delivered directly |
| Focuses on obtaining customer consent | Focuses on making sales |
| Emphasizes cooperation with competitors | Does not focus on competitors' activities |
| Focuses on non-traditional marketing methods | Focuses on advertising |
| Based on psychology and human behavior | Based on experience and assumptions |
| The guerrilla approach presents reality openly and clearly | Creates a mysterious atmosphere that confuses people |
| Targets the subconscious and emphasizes details | Does not focus on the subconscious or small details |

Table 1: Comparison of Guerrilla Marketing and Traditional Marketing (Levinson, 2007; Kudryavtseva, 2012: 11; Isoraitė, 2018; Gutierrez et al., 2019: 5)

6.GUERRILLA MARKETING TOOLS

The tools used to implement a guerrilla marketing strategy are generally different from traditional marketing methods and adopt an approach focused on creativity, surprise effect, and interaction. The prominent tools in guerrilla marketing strategy are as follows (Oyman & Özer, 2018: 175):

- *Ambient Marketing*: Refers to the sudden and attention-grabbing display of a product or service in public spaces.

- *Viral Marketing*: A tool used to enable the rapid spread of creative content among consumers.
- *Flash Mob Events*: Involves a group of people gathering in a public space as part of a pre-planned event to perform and then disperse.
- *Stealth Marketing*: A tool in which the brand interacts with the consumer without direct promotion.
- *Experiential Marketing*: Involves organizing events that allow consumers to experience a brand directly.

Dagorn (2015) categorizes guerrilla marketing tools into four groups: street marketing, urban art and graffiti, offline gamification, anything that can turn into a billboard, and viral marketing. Street marketing activities are conducted only on streets or in public places, aiming for direct communication with customers. Street marketing includes multiple techniques such as urban art and graffiti. Offline gamification involves businesses creating engaging challenges and treasure hunts, such as finding a hidden reward inside a package (Dagorn, 2015: 15-16).

7. GUERRILLA MARKETING STRATEGIES

According to Baltes and Leibing (2008), guerrilla marketing is based on certain principles, and they outline seven tactical rules (Belic & Jonsson, 2012: 15):

1. The first tactical rule states that guerrilla marketing should focus a business's resources (e.g., time and location) to gain an advantage. This means that instead of conducting several small marketing activities, a business should concentrate on one large promotional activity in the right place to attract attention.
2. The second tactical rule emphasizes selling not just the product but also the ideology associated with it. Selling the product with an ideology is crucial because guerrilla marketing does not merely try to draw consumer attention to a specific product. Instead, it seeks to make the consumer a part of the brand rather than making the brand a part of the consumer.
3. The third tactical rule involves identifying, analyzing, and overcoming established patterns. Every guerrilla marketing activity should be unique and should not follow a specific model. This means a business should not use the same marketing style to promote two different products.

4. The fourth tactical rule highlights that guerrilla marketing should create synergy. Synergy refers to cooperation between two or more elements that together produce a stronger effect. In guerrilla marketing, synergy is crucial to making a strong impact on consumers.

5. The fifth tactical rule suggests cleverly overcoming any prejudices within the target audience. This means surprising marketing activities should challenge consumers' preconceived ideas and demonstrate what the business represents.

6. The sixth tactical rule advises finding alternative, indirect ways rather than taking a straightforward approach. This helps differentiate the product from other marketing messages that consumers are exposed to daily, thereby increasing interest.

7. The seventh tactical rule states that businesses using guerrilla marketing should be flexible and agile rather than building rigid structures. Flexibility will open many doors to success.

On the other hand, Nufer (2013) argues that three different strategies can be implemented using guerrilla marketing: attack strategy, niche marketing, and guerrilla marketing as a strategy for small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs).

- **Attack Strategy:** Based on the military origins of the term "guerrilla," guerrilla marketing can initially be defined as an attack strategy. This marketing strategy targets competition and focuses on a specific competitor as the recipient of an unexpected attack. A guerrilla attack consists of multiple small, pinpointed strikes that have a cumulative effect. The element of surprise is the defining component of this strategy. The strategic suitability of a guerrilla attack is particularly advantageous for SMEs with limited financial resources due to short-term power concentration.

- **Niche Strategy:** Refers to focusing on a very specific and narrowly defined buyer segment. Businesses serving niche markets distinguish themselves based on the characteristics of their product and service range. As a niche strategy, guerrilla marketing involves developing or creating new niches and defending traditional market niches.

- **Guerrilla Marketing for SMEs:** Relies on creativity, unconventional approaches, and flexibility. This approach is often implemented by small and medium-sized enterprises as they best meet these prerequisites.

CONCLUSION

From the perspective of modern marketing strategies, guerrilla marketing allows brands to reduce their dependence on traditional media tools and create more intimate and natural communication channels. Especially with the rise of social media, guerrilla marketing campaigns can have a viral effect and reach large audiences in a short time. This strategy, which encourages consumer interaction with the brand, also plays a significant role in building brand loyalty.

One of the biggest advantages of guerrilla marketing is its ability to generate high engagement at a low cost. While traditional advertising methods typically require large budgets, guerrilla marketing aims to reach a broad audience with minimal expenses. This strategy can be implemented through various methods, ranging from creative street art applications to viral advertising campaigns. Campaigns that directly touch consumers' daily lives and incorporate surprising elements are particularly effective in increasing brand awareness.

However, the success of guerrilla marketing depends not only on creative ideas but also on proper strategic planning. Campaigns must be designed to suit the target audience, create an unexpected yet positive impact, and strengthen the brand's image. A successful guerrilla marketing campaign should capture consumers' attention while delivering a powerful message that reminds them of the brand. However, a poorly planned or misdirected campaign can damage brand image and receive negative feedback.

This strategy, which aims to establish a direct emotional connection with consumers, contributes significantly to strengthening brand loyalty (Alsheikh, 2024). Guerrilla marketing campaigns encourage consumers to engage not only with a product or service but also with the brand's identity and values (Arafe, Hassani, Namamiyan & Ghanizade, 2023).

The effectiveness of guerrilla marketing largely depends on a deep understanding of consumer psychology and social dynamics. Strategic use of humor, surprise elements, and emotional connections can capture people's attention and influence them. Additionally, integrating social media in line with the digital age's requirements can accelerate campaign reach and engage larger audiences.

Strategic planning is crucial for the success of guerrilla marketing. Businesses must conduct detailed analyses before launching campaigns to determine the most suitable communication channels and creative approaches for their target audience. Guerrilla marketing suggests that rath-

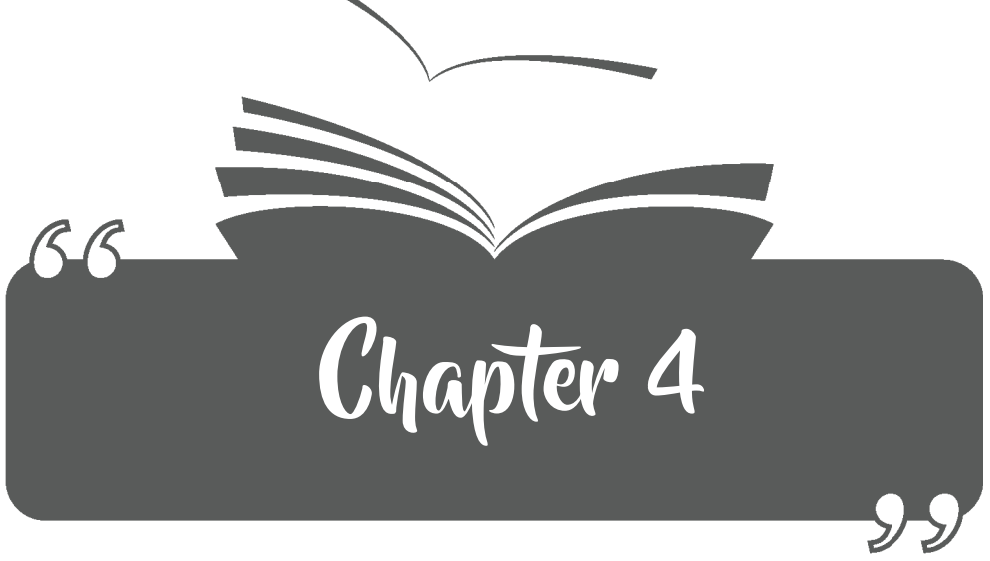
er than relying solely on one marketing method, combining it with other marketing techniques can yield more effective results. Instead of merely seeking new customers for growth, guerrilla marketing prefers to leverage an existing loyal customer base for significant and impactful transactions.

In conclusion, guerrilla marketing stands out as a powerful differentiation strategy that helps brands gain a competitive advantage. By creating new opportunities in the marketing world, guerrilla marketing continues to offer significant benefits, especially for small businesses. This approach, which prioritizes creativity and consumer engagement, is becoming increasingly valuable in the marketing industry. This study theoretically examines the opportunities guerrilla marketing presents from a marketing strategy perspective and evaluates how businesses can use this strategy more effectively. By analyzing the theoretical foundations of guerrilla marketing, this study details its advantages in marketing strategies. By evaluating how guerrilla marketing techniques are applied, in which situations they are effective, and successful campaign examples, the study aims to help businesses develop cost-effective yet impactful marketing strategies.

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**THE POSITION OF DEATH IN MODERN SOCIETY
AND WOMEN’S DEATH-RELATED EXPERIENCES**

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Introduction

In her work, *La Mort apprivoisée*, Ruth Menahem states: “In modern times, death is denied as if it were ‘something from outside’; one does not die, one is killed by something (we need to ask ‘what killed him?’)” (Bauman, 1992, 137, quoting Thibault). In other words, instead of being seen as a natural and inevitable part of life, death tends to be understood as something that needs to be controlled and as the result of an external cause. Therefore, a sudden disease, an infection, or an accident can be the cause of death, or people who do not restrain it die due to personal failure, weakness, or their own fault.

Throughout history, the attempt to explain death based on its predictable causes has first spread within the medical-scientific field due to the influence of techno-scientific advancements, and then it has disseminated into everyday life. Explaining death as being tied to a cause has reinforced the belief that when this cause is eliminated, death can be prevented, treated, banished from life, or at least postponed. Examining the psychiatric origins of this, Kübler-Ross (2009) argues that our subconscious understands such a tragic end not as “being able to die” but rather as “being able to be killed.” The modern individual believes that death, in an undeniable way, comes from the outside, in an aggressive and malicious manner (p. 2). Therefore, death must be fought. In this context, it becomes inevitable to say that death has emerged as a new illness, hysteria/neurosis. Looking for dangers, avoiding them, seeking treatment all reveal an effort aimed at eliminating potential threats and dangers related to death. In short, we encounter a series of responsabilizations surrounding the risk of death.

Historically, the banishment of death from social life has fundamentally altered humanity’s existential stance towards it. However, how and in what ways thoughts about death risk/threat have been produced, their distribution across gender roles, and their consequences have not been sufficiently addressed historically. As mainstream studies on death also indicate, when death began to be perceived as a manageable risk rather than an inevitable end, it gained certain types of “rationalization,” control, and explanation, etc., from masculine perspectives. Historically, the knowledge and power relations built by modernity around the struggle against death, dying, and the risk of death, the discourse it produced, and the ways this discourse circulated have found resonance in social life. However, it is understood that the effects and consequences of knowledge and power relations built on controlling death in the modern era on women have not been sufficiently addressed within this relationality. This study, precisely based on this assumption, argues that modernity, through its knowledge and power strategies built on controlling death,

shapes women's experiences of death differently due to their biological and social positions, the effects on their bodies, and gender roles. Beyond central discussions, this study aims to examine the current appearance of the theme of women and death and various approaches to this issue. Moving from this claim, the study also aims to discuss how modernity has shaped the experience of death, and especially the death-related fears, anxieties, and behavioral patterns it has produced for women and their bodies.

Modernity and the Trajectory of the “Good Death”

In his works, *Essais sur l'Histoire de la Mort en Occident* (1975) (“Batı’da Ölümün Tarihi”) and *L’Homme devant la Mort* (1977) (“Batılının Ölüm Karşısında Tavrıları”), Philippe Ariès presents an original conceptualization of the historical trajectory of death. In these works, Ariès describes the change in death mentalities, from the “tamed” death of the early Middle Ages to the death that became “wild” (even forbidden) towards the end of the 20th century. According to Ariès (2015), while death was “close, natural, and almost friendly” to people in the Middle Ages, in modern societies, the opposite is true: death has become “an animal that people fear, consider an enemy, and try to keep away from themselves as much as possible” (p. 12). Ariès (1991, 2015) describes death in the Middle Ages as an important and familiar part of life, often knowing that death was near, therefore preparing for it, and as something ordinary that was open to everyone (including children), with public farewell ceremonies, ritualized mourning, and certainly not fear-inducing. According to Ariès (2015), the coexistence of the living and the dead would begin to change rapidly between 1930 and 1950. This acceleration is related to an important factual situation: the place of death has changed. Death, which was public, in sight, beside the family, among loved ones, has evolved into a solitary, isolated death in the hospital (p. 80). It has been removed from daily life and social life, controlled in a techno-scientific field, and has entered the sphere of influence of techno-science.

Another significant figure addressing the changing attitudes towards death with modernization is Anthony Giddens. Giddens (1991) attempts to demonstrate how the organization of death and the experience of dying have been confined to the private sphere in the late modern period. He argues that due to this relocation, dead bodies and discussions about death have been almost entirely erased from public life. Modernization has slowly eroded collective action related to death, transferring farewell and mourning practices to the individual/private realm. Furthermore, secularization has left the management of rites of passage to professional institutions. Thus, it has been observed that the management associat-

ed with death has also changed its meaning (Howarth, 1996; Howarth, 1997). Indeed, the “good death” has traditionally been equated with a well-managed death, and a well-managed death has been understood as a death organized by the person dying before death itself (Kellehear, 2007).

Traditionally, a good death has been a process determined by those who are dying. A good death is not sudden and mostly refers to a death carefully prepared by people. It is a death that meets community expectations, aimed at making death as good and meaningful as possible for as many people as possible. A good death is determined by those who are dying. The priority is to prepare well for death in the way the community expects. This means considering the continuity and well-being of the family and other social networks important to the community, and doing something for this continuity and well-being (Kellehear, 2007, pp. 142-143). From the beginning of the 20th century, this situation has completely changed. As we have mentioned here, the displacement of death is one of the main reasons for this change. Thus, death in a hospital no longer occurs like a ceremony presided over by the relatives, friends, and acquaintances of the person who is about to die, where the rituals we have mentioned many times take place. Death has now transformed into a technical and scientific phenomenon, presented as a condition confirmed by doctors and hospital staff when treatment is no longer a cure. Death has become fragmented. It can be said that a series of small universes symbolize the fragmentation of death, where we often cannot determine whether it is the loss of consciousness or the cessation of breath. However, an important reality we can know is that the great dramatic impact of death has lost its effect in the modern era. While facing the fact that there was an emotional layer on death from the early Middle Ages, this emotional layer has gradually disappeared, and the initiative has passed from the person who is dying and their relatives to the doctor and hospital staff (Ariès, 2015, p. 81). Indifference to the dead and distancing from death, along with the rush to control and prevent death, were born under these conditions.

English sociologist Geoffrey Gorer (1955) was one of the first researchers to document his impressions of the approaching wild and forbidden death. Gorer shows how death became a taboo in the 20th century and, furthermore, how it replaced the taboo of sexuality.¹ The following quote from Gorer’s text is very striking: “Our great-grandmothers were told that babies were found under gooseberry bushes or cabbages; our children are likely to be told that those who have passed on (fie! on the gross Anglo-Saxon monosyllable) are changed into flowers, or lie at rest in lovely gardens” (p. 51). Where ceremony is hidden so much, not only children but adults must also lie to each other. Ariès (2015) conveys this as follows:

“The first duty of the family and the doctor was to conceal the seriousness of the situation from a patient doomed to die. The patient should never (except in exceptional circumstances) know that his end was near. The new custom required him to die unaware of his death. This is not just a habit that has naively entered traditions. It has become a moral rule” (p. 202).

Furthermore, the performance of death in a hospital also requires a similar role. Doctors and nurses extend and delay the moment of informing the family as much as possible, and they never want to inform the patient themselves. A fear has emerged of being drawn into a chain of emotional reactions that would cause them, as well as the patient and family, to lose control. Death was such a familiar figure in the past that moralism had to make it terrifyingly evil to create fear. However, modern society believes that even mentioning it leads to an emotional tension incompatible with the regularity of daily life. Health professionals are expected only to fight the disease of death, whether successful or not. For, as Helmut Thielicke said, the patient’s death is always “felt like a personal defeat. Doctors are like lawyers who have lost a case, so they are forced to act bravely up to the limit of their power. There is no doubt that they hide their faces and turn their backs.” What is important is that they fight. Any failure is seen as related to a method not being tried, a vaccine not being discovered, or a lack of equipment (Bauman, 1992, p. 189, quoting Thielicke).

For a very long time, modern medicine has considered it impossible in principle for any disease to remain unconquered. Although mortality looms before humanity as a terrible monster, it has been broken down into numerous stages that are treatable or potentially treatable. Death does not only appear at the end of life, as it did in traditional societies. It is there from the beginning, demanding constant vigilance, forbidding even a moment’s relaxation during the watch. Death watches us and waits to be watched while we work, eat, drink, and rest.

While it may be impossible to fully fight death itself, fighting the causes of dying becomes the meaning of life. There is always a need for reasoning calculated to prevent the threat of death (Bauman, 1992, p. 190). Since death has lost its previously predictable, knowable, and organizable nature, it is argued that new responses must be developed against it.

Establishing the Relationship Between Death and Risk

We have noted that with the rise of modernity, the relationship with death has undergone a fundamental transformation. Accordingly, death is no longer perceived as a distant end, inevitable when its time comes.

Understanding and concepts related to the nature of death emphasize its manageability (for example, preventable, postponable, etc.). The revolution experienced by medical science in the 20th century made it possible for the first time on a broad scale to treat many fatal diseases, extend lifespan, alleviate pain, and improve quality of life (Leys, 2010, p. 27). In the 19th century, doctors primarily faced acute or life-threatening and often contagious diseases and ailments. In the 20th century, it was determined that the vast majority of these diseases were eliminated and that various problems related to illness were more associated with changes in the population's lifestyle.

In the second half of the 20th century, most diseases began to manifest as "chronic ailments." The primary explanation for modern ailments became "stress," almost replacing the microbe of the 19th century. The concept of treatment was increasingly replaced by the concepts of rehabilitation, care, and lifestyle change (Turner, 2017, p. 17). Medical advancements, increased life expectancy, and the control of diseases have strengthened the belief that death can be overcome or at least postponed. However, this situation, instead of reducing individuals' and societies' anxieties about death, has led to a constant state of vigilance and a search for control against the risk of death.

Aronowitz describes this process as follows: "It demonstrates a series of changes and historical transformations in our 20th-century medical practices and the way we experience diseases. However, we have witnessed the process of health deterioration becoming an experience marked by fear, uncertainty, and lack of control, where risk dominates; whereas previously, pain, loss of function, and other symptoms were more significant. Alongside this change, our public health practices, medical interventions, and consumer products aimed at reducing and controlling risk have increasingly grown, rather than interventions that treat symptoms and cure disease" (Aronowitz, 2015, p. 10). In short, while individuals are held responsible for reducing the risk of death by making healthy lifestyle choices, societies have also tried to control the risk of death by improving health systems and implementing safety measures, for example, by creating policies that promote health.

This new relationship between death and risk fundamentally reshapes the existential stance of modern humans, while also necessitating a re-evaluation of our thoughts and experiences regarding death. In the 20th century, the struggle against diseases, particularly serious and fatal ones that can be characterized as "the disease of death," was dramatically shaped by the impact of scientific and technological advancements. Specifically, the discovery of antibiotics and the completion of the discovery

of almost all basic medicines by the 1980s, the increase in vaccine discoveries and the achievement of herd immunity, surgical advancements, technology, etc., solidified a great deal of medical knowledge such as controlling fatal diseases, significantly reducing the prevalence of infectious diseases, and increasing life expectancy. This situation profoundly affected both medical approaches and societal perception. Within the disease narratives of the 20th century, it would not be wrong to say that there was a disease inflation, precisely in contrast to these developments. However, paradoxically, the advances in medicine that led to a decrease in disease and death rates also necessitated the development of new risks and new interventions to address these risks.

Sociologists have long observed that Western societies are increasingly transforming into “risk societies.” However, there is very little recent discussion about risk distribution policies. For example, as is the subject of this study, how do women perceive these types of risks we are discussing? To reflect on this, it would be meaningful to focus on how medicine produces knowledge about women and their bodies. According to Dr. Kate Young, a public health researcher at Monash University in Australia: “For most of known history, women have been excluded from knowledge production in medicine and science, so the current health system – like many other things in society – was established by men for men.” According to Young, historically, “men have produced the medicine about women and their bodies. There is quite a bit of research that shows how knowledge was shaped to support the discourse of hysteria and the discourse that women are essentially fertile bodies. One of the most important examples concerns the first drawings of skeletons: male anatomy illustrators persistently draw women’s hips wider than they are and their skulls smaller.” As Young also points out: “Medicine sees female and male bodies differently, but never equally. When we examine medical texts, we see that throughout history, the male body has been constructed as superior to the female and as the basic template against which all bodies are compared.” All aspects of the female body that differ from men or do not have a counterpart in men (as in the case of the uterus) are evaluated as deviations from the norm or as “errors.” Because women can give birth, medical discourse has created a duality that identifies women with the ‘body’ and men with the ‘mind,’ which has been a duality that both reinforces and is reinforced by the public-private divide. In addition to restricting women’s participation in public life, such ways of thinking have provided an easy explanation for women’s diseases and ailments in medicine (Jackson, 2020). How women perceive both the risk of illness and death, and how they turn this into anxiety, will gain meaning if it is questioned from the

construction of knowledge and various medical discourses to the process of their circulation.

Various studies have found that women have a higher perception of risk and anxiety compared to men, while women seem to suffer not from death itself, but from the dying process and concerns about not being able to leave sufficient arrangements for their families after they are gone (Kastenbaum, 2007). In this context, their ways of perceiving risk are characterized as more emotional and sensitive. Similarly, in various disease studies, the risk of death stemming from illness is seen to be perceived in relation to those left behind, and especially elements such as children who are thought to directly need care work from the mother. A study conducted with organ transplant patients shows that some female patients waiting for a transplant experience anxiety and fears based on gender roles (For the study, see Sanal, 2013). Such gender-based role definitions emphasize the importance of understanding women's risk and anxiety related to death not only at an individual level but also within a social and cultural context.

Modernity and Women in the Face of Death Risk

Campaigns that trigger various emotional responses in women, such as fear of any disease, have been increasingly common in the last century. If these campaigns, especially those with a scientific veneer, spread among the public, their level of impact increases accordingly. Often, in campaigns involving, financed, and supported by the health and beauty industry, the basic strategy is therefore to spread fear reinforced by slogan-like expressions. Especially in Western countries, women frequently hear that they are in danger if they do not get screening tests. Sayings like "Don't leave it to chance, get tested" create a tendency to code women as vulnerable and potential victims in niche diseases like breast cancer. It can also create various stigmas. In an old advertisement from the American Cancer Society, after it was claimed that women who avoided screening tests were "crazy," it is seen that women were strangely encouraged to get mammograms with an ironic expression like, "If a woman doesn't have a mammogram, she needs more than just a breast exam" (Welch et al., 2012, p. 80). It can be argued that this creates a shared sense of fear about the future, a feeling of being in uncertainty, and the pressure they feel about self-monitoring among women.

For a very long time, the understanding of social medicine has focused on revealing the impact of the health industry on prescription inflation and the social, medical, and economic consequences it produces. The traces of "feminized overdiagnosis" are found within a very broad net-

work extending from women's social vulnerability to their biological vulnerability. Not only in certain types of cancer, but also in some chronic diseases (e.g., thyroid), fears and anxieties related to the disease can be pumped up without almost any mention of the situations arising from the social inequalities that women are in, and without questioning the impact of healthy nutrition and environmental conditions.

The impact of the media on women's health experiences is significant, with daytime television programs practically transforming into medical dramas. These types of medical dramas consistently manage to draw large audiences in the 18-49 age range to their screens. These programs, which offer viewers a heavy dose of drama, don't stop there but also convey critical messages about health and illness (Henderson, 2010, pp. 198-199). A boon for advertisers, these programs create a universe where miraculous drugs and amazing cures can be ordered with a single click. Almost all of them share a common message: "If you want to get better, you absolutely must take it!", "Don't miss out!", "Don't delay!" ... All this rush is sometimes built on individuals' "pure experiences". It is possible to find many examples, especially on social media channels, where the line between fiction and reality is blurred.

Additionally, some "feminine marketing" processes built around the theme of aging and presented in relation to lifestyle choices can create shared emotional data points among women. For example, in various marketing strategies, it is seen that various expectations and demands are established, similar to a serialized story, with phrases like "You'll see the effect with regular use". In such situations, narratives that stand at the very center of crises like illness, aging, and death can reproduce a gender-based distinction.

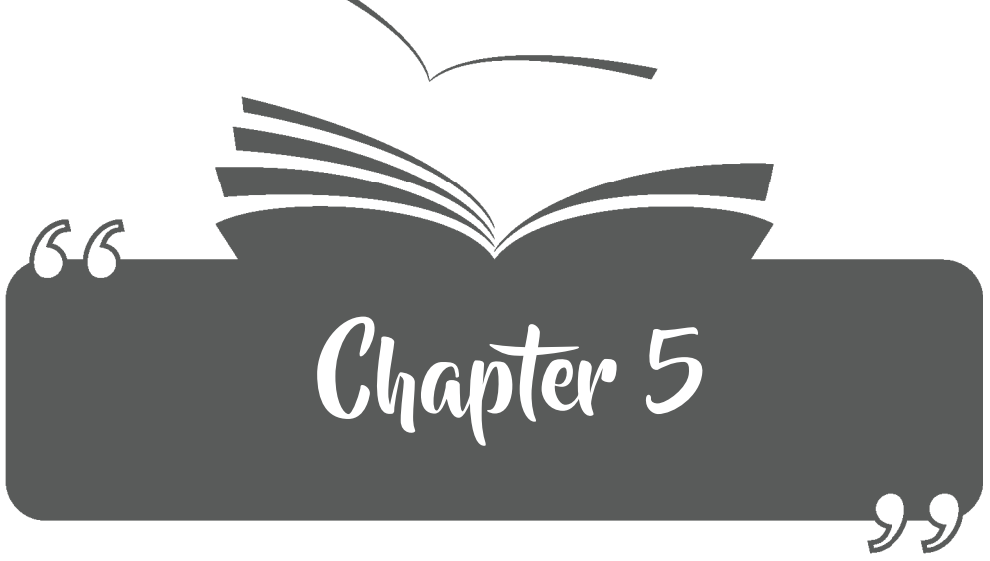
Conclusion

This study endeavors to explore the complex and evolving relationship that modernity has established with death, with a particular focus on women. After outlining the contours of modern (wild) death, which has disrupted traditional attitudes towards death, the role and knowledge-generating potential of techno-scientific advancements in this process are emphasized. The issue of how unwanted/rejected death manifests as a fear and anxiety within the women's world is addressed. In conclusion, it must be stated that modernity's relationship with death emerges as a multifaceted phenomenon that profoundly affects women's lives. The discourse of dangerous diseases that touch upon women's death experiences, the confusing discourses related to the female body and the perception of beauty, suggest how women's death experiences are shaped in dif-

ferent contexts. The intersection of these experiences with societal gender, as well as other factors like class and ethnicity, also necessitates in-depth examination. This study can be seen as a step in this direction.

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**GEOPOLITICAL RISKS IN THE MIDDLE EAST:
ECONOMIC CONSEQUENCES OF ISRAEL'S
REGIONAL POLICIES ON GLOBAL VALUE
CHAINS**

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1. Introduction

The dynamics behind geopolitical risks are diverse. Some of these risks are highly resistant to resolution due to their historical history spanning decades and perhaps hundreds of years. When evaluated geographically, one of the areas in the world where geopolitical risks are concentrated is the Middle East. The region, which entered a period of political reshaping between the two world wars, took on a structure pregnant with constant tension, with the position of the State of Israel among many states of Arab origin in the region (Fawcett, 2017, 2023; Gregory. F. Gause, 2009; Kamrava, 2013).

In addition to the problems of the Middle East, which has a very old historical past, the risks posed by the foreign policy and international strategy of Israel in the region are frequently discussed in current political discussions. In addition to the possibility that the tensions caused by Israel's struggle with Iran will create a domination effect in the Middle East, Israel's conflicts with Hezbollah in Lebanon and Hamas in Gaza cause geopolitical risks to increase further (Internacional Crisis Group, 2023). This expansion increases the possibility of other regional actors becoming involved in conflicts (Global Conflict Tracker, 2024; UNCTAD, 2024). Apart from these developments, which are mostly the subject of political strategies, a question that needs to be answered is how the risks created by the tensions in which Israel is somehow involved have left or will leave their mark on both the regional economy and the world economy.

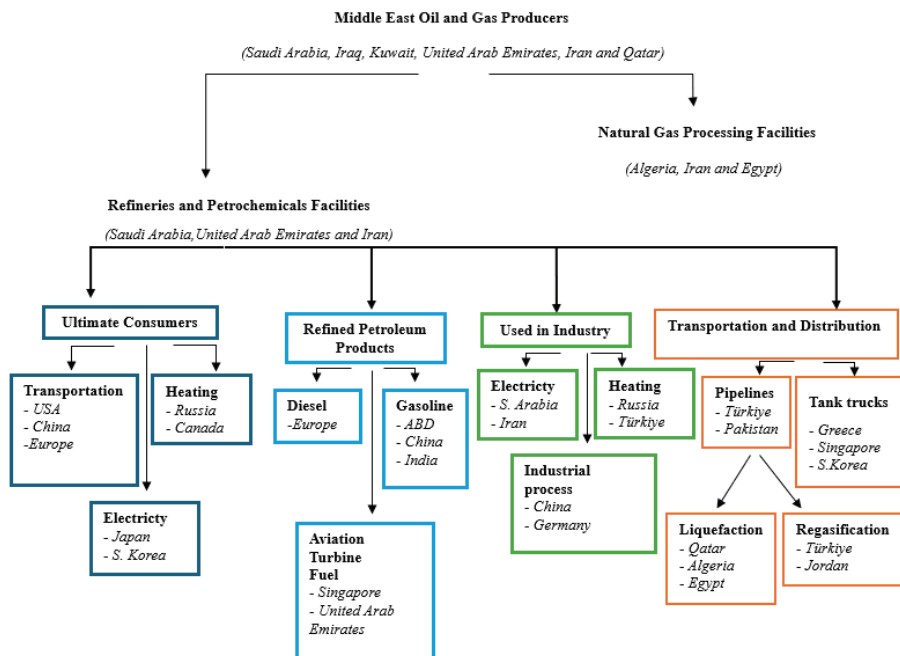
In addition to the natural risks posed by the strategies it adopts in foreign policy, Israel will have economic consequences in the medium and long term with its military strategies and operations. Although it is difficult to predict these results, it is possible to say that it is difficult to be optimistic about these results. On the other hand, the areas where these negative effects can be monitored in the short term are energy markets and regional/global supply chains (UNCTAD, 2023c). In particular, possible Israeli attacks on Iran's oil infrastructure may cause oil prices to rise sharply. This could lead to major fluctuations in global energy markets and increase economic pressures, especially for energy importing countries (Rajendran & Young, 2024). In addition, disruptions in critical trade routes such as the Suez Canal and the Red Sea may disrupt global trade. This may create serious pressures on both the regional and global economy (WEF, 2023).

Unfortunately, the negative effects of geopolitical risks created by Israel may not be limited to energy prices and supply chains. First of all, Israel's military actions can lead to high volatility in financial markets

(Altemur et al., 2024; Fernandez, 2014). Investors, especially those who tend to avoid risk, may turn to safe haven assets and cause fluctuations in the markets. Subsequently, rising energy prices and supply chain disruptions could re-trigger global inflationary pressures (Altemur et al., 2024; International Monetary Fund, 2024b). This may require central banks to tighten monetary policies, which may put pressure on the world economy, which is in the recovery process after the Covid-19 Pandemic, and on the individual growth performances of countries. Additionally, the expansion of Israel's military operations may also tighten credit conditions (Bank For International Settlements, 2023; International Monetary Fund, 2024a). In particular, increases in energy prices and market fluctuations may increase credit costs and make borrowing conditions difficult (Balciar et al., 2018; International Monetary Fund, 2023b). In the next step, when investors tend to diversify and protect their portfolios against such geopolitical risks, it will be inevitable for the demand for safe haven assets such as gold, US dollar and government bonds to increase (International Monetary Fund, 2023a; World Bank Group, 2024)

1.1. Background

The Middle East is one of the important crossroads of the world economy in terms of global value chains and production chains. The region is located in a position where value chains related to energy, petrochemicals, textiles, food and agricultural products are connected to each other for the world economy. In order to understand this position, it will be sufficient to examine some value chains related to the region. The diagram below shows the major oil and gas producers in the Middle East and other countries involved at each stage of the supply chain. The countries mentioned in the diagram were selected according to their roles and importance in the global energy market. Therefore, this list does not show many countries within the value chain and production networks. It is easy to think that a huge production network will emerge if countries not shown in the diagram are included.

Diagram.1 *Middle East Oil and Gas Producers*

Source:(BP, 2022; IEA, 2024; IEO, 2023; OPEC, 2023a)

Diagram-1 highlights the Middle East's central role in the global oil and gas supply chain. Countries such as Saudi Arabia, Iraq, Kuwait, United Arab Emirates, Iran and Qatar are among the world's largest oil and natural gas producers. These countries extract crude oil and natural gas and send them to refineries, petrochemical plants and natural gas processing facilities. Refineries and petrochemical plants process crude oil and turn it into products such as gasoline, diesel and jet fuel. These facilities are located in countries such as Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates and Iran. Natural gas processing facilities are located in countries such as Qatar, Iran, Algeria and Egypt and liquefy natural gas or make it ready for transportation through pipelines.

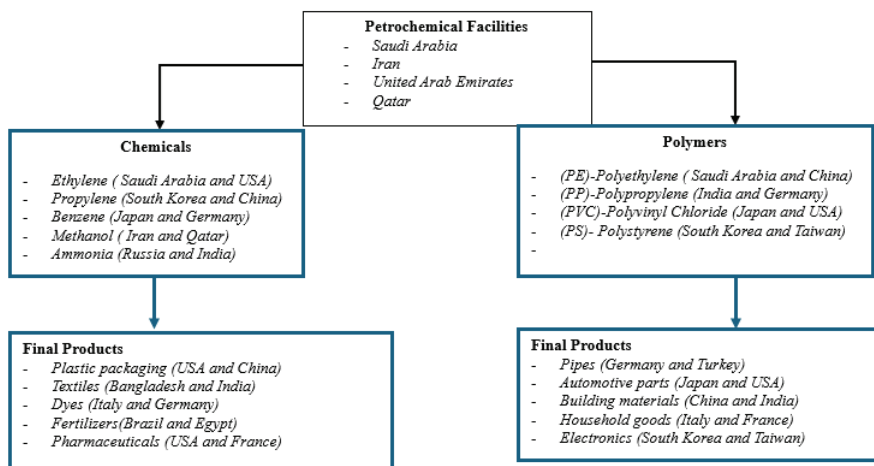
Refined petroleum products and processed natural gas are distributed around the world via tankers and pipelines. While countries such as Greece, Singapore and South Korea play an important role in oil transportation; Türkiye and Pakistan are in a strategic position in oil and natural gas transportation through pipelines. Ultimately, refined petroleum products reach major consuming markets such as the United States, China, India and Europe. Natural gas is sent to countries such as Saudi Arabia, Iran,

Russia, Turkey, China and Germany to be used in electricity generation, heating and industrial processes.

In the final stage, oil and natural gas products reach final consumers for transportation, heating and electricity generation purposes. Countries such as the USA, China, Europe, Russia, Canada, Japan and South Korea are among the world's largest energy consumers. This diagram illustrates the Middle East's vital role in the global energy market and the complex path oil and natural gas follow from production to final consumption. In addition, the rich hydrocarbon resources in the region have enabled the development of the petrochemical industry. Countries such as Saudi Arabia and the UAE are important actors in the production and export of petrochemical products. These products are used in many sectors such as plastics, fertilizers and synthetic fibers. The petrochemical value chain and the importance of Middle-Eastern countries in this chain can be easily understood with the help of the diagram-2.

Diagram-2 includes the major oil producers in the Middle East as well as other key countries at each stage of the petrochemical value chain. The countries were selected based on their role and importance in the global petrochemical industry. Oil producers in the Middle East (Saudi Arabia, Iran, UAE) provide the crude oil. Crude oil is processed in petrochemical plants (Saudi Arabia, Iran, UAE). Petrochemical plants produce essential chemicals such as ethylene, propylene and benzene. These chemicals are converted into polymers such as polyethylene, polypropylene and PVC. The resulting polymers are used in the production of final products in various sectors such as plastic packaging, textile, automotive and construction. These examples highlight the complexity of the petrochemical value chain on a global scale and the critical role of the Middle East in this chain. However, the countries listed are just examples and there are many other countries involved in the value chain.

Diagram.2 *Middle East Petrochemical Facilities*



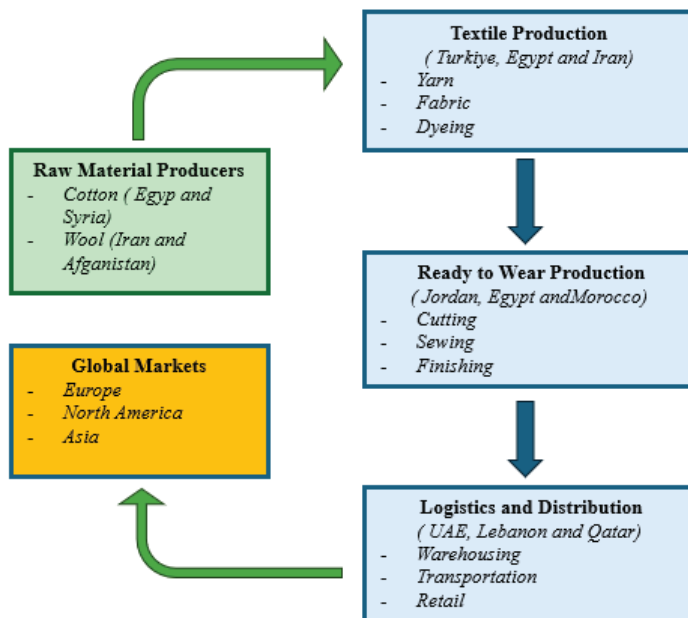
Source:(BP, 2024; International Energy Agency, 2024)

In addition to the oil and petrochemical value chains, the Middle East also plays an important role for the global fashion industry in the textile and apparel value chain. The region's role in the value chain can be divided into several basic stages. These stages are visualized in the diagram-3, based on the prominent countries in the sector. The first stage involves the production of raw materials. While Egypt and Syria stand out in cotton production, Iran and Afghanistan are known for wool production (Nordås, 2004). These raw materials form the basis of the textile industry in the Middle East. The next stage is textile production. At this stage, raw materials are turned into yarn and fabric and go through dyeing processes. Countries such as Türkiye, Egypt and Iran have developed textile production industries(Kanat, 2019). Turkey, in particular, has become an important player in the global textile market thanks to its advanced technology and qualified workforce (Tokatli, 2007).

After textile production, the materials pass to the ready-made clothing production stage. This stage involves cutting, sewing and finishing the garments. Countries such as Jordan, Egypt and Morocco have significant garment manufacturing industries (International Finance Corporation, 2023; Lopez-Acevedo & Robertson, 2012). These countries have benefited from their strategic locations, low labor costs and trade agreements with major markets such as the European Union (Berkum, 2012; Ghesquière, 2001). Once the clothes are produced, they move on to the logistics

and distribution phase. The United Arab Emirates (UAE), Lebanon, and Qatar serve as important regional hubs for warehousing, transportation, and retail (Rao et al., 2021a). With its developed infrastructure and business-friendly policies, the UAE has become a major distribution center for the fashion industry in the Middle East (Friedmann & Mills, 2021). Finally, apparel products from the Middle East are exported to global markets, including Europe, North America and Asia. The region's proximity to Europe and its trade agreements with the EU have made it an attractive supply center for European fashion brands (Kheir-El-Din et al., 2008; Senarova, 2006). Therefore, the textile and apparel value chain in the Middle East is a complex and interconnected network involving multiple countries and stages. The region's rich raw material resources, advanced manufacturing industries, strategic location and access to global markets have made it a major player in the global fashion industry. Thus, geopolitical risks caused by Israel may threaten the reliability and continuity of the textile value chain by damaging political stability in the region, triggering conflicts and escalating tensions.

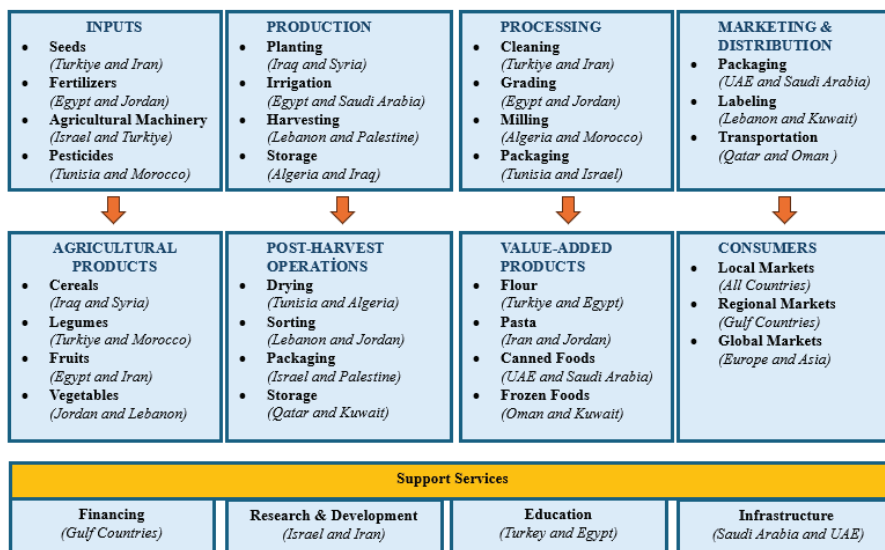
Diagram.3 *Integration of Middle East to Global Fashion Industry*



Source: (Acharya & Daly, 2009; International Finance Cooperation, 2023; Kanat, 2019; Rao et al., 2021b)

Another value chain that covers the Middle East and is more complex and sensitive compared to the textile and clothing value chain is the food and agricultural products value chain. The diagram below has been prepared to facilitate understanding of the value chain of food and agricultural products. The agricultural products section shows the main product groups (cereals, legumes, fruits, vegetables) produced in the value chain and the countries that stand out in the production of these products. The post-harvest processes section indicates the processes that agricultural products undergo after harvest (drying, sorting, packaging, storage) and the countries that specialize in these processes. The value-added products section shows processed agricultural products (flour, pasta, canned goods, frozen foods) and the countries that stand out in the production of these products. The consumers section highlights the target markets (local, regional, global) for food and agricultural products produced in the Middle East. Finally, the support services section shows the basic services that support the value chain (research and development, financing, education, infrastructure) and the countries that stand out in these services.

Diagram.4 *Food and Agricultural Products Value Chain of Middle East*



Source: (FAO, 2023, 2024; UNCTAD, 2023d; World Bank, 2023)

It is possible to summarize the Middle East's role in the food and agricultural products value chain as follows:

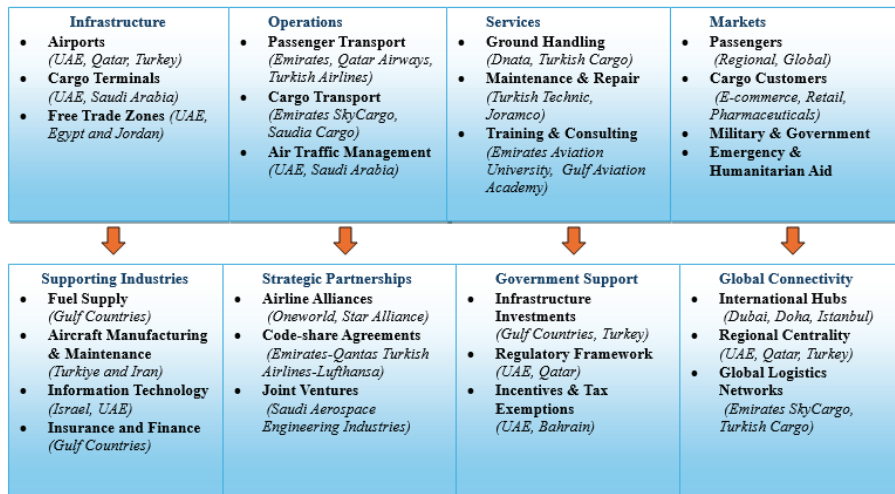
- In the first stage, grains such as wheat and barley; It grows a variety of agricultural products, including legumes such as lentils and chickpeas, and fruits such as dates, grapes and pomegranates.
- In the second stage, the harvested products are transformed into value-added products such as flour, pasta, canned goods and dried fruits in countries such as Turkey, Iran and Egypt.
- In the third stage, processed food products are stored, transported and retailed in countries such as the United Arab Emirates (UAE), Saudi Arabia and Qatar.
- In the final stage, food products produced and processed in the Middle East are exported to global markets, including Europe, North America, Asia and Africa.

This simple diagram highlights the Middle East's important role in the process from agricultural production to the global distribution of processed food products. The region makes significant contributions to the global food and agriculture industry with its fertile soil, suitable climatic conditions and strategic location.

Another area exposed to the negative consequences of geopolitical risks is the Middle East Aviation and Logistics Value Chain. It is enough to look at the diagram below to understand the scope of this chain. Examining the Middle East's role in the global aviation and logistics value chain, this diagram shows four key components that highlight the region's importance in the sector: infrastructure, operations, services and markets. The infrastructure component includes physical infrastructure elements such as airports, cargo terminals and free trade zones. Countries such as the UAE, Qatar, Turkey and Saudi Arabia stand out in this field with their modern airports and logistics centers (Deloitte, 2024; Hvidt, 2013; OAG, 2024). The operations component highlights the success of regional airlines such as Emirates, Qatar Airways and Turkish Airlines in transporting passengers and cargo. These companies play an important role in the global aviation industry with their extensive flight networks and modern fleets (CAPA, 2019; Narayanan, 2024a, 2024b). The services component includes aviation and logistics services such as ground handling, maintenance-repair, training and consultancy. Companies such as Dnata, Turkish Cargo and Turkish Technic specialize in these areas in the region (The Emirates Group, 2020; Turkish Airlines, 2021). The markets component represents the target markets of the aviation and logistics industry. Regional and global passengers, cargo customers in e-commerce, retail and pharmaceutical industries, military and government agencies, and emergency and humanitarian operations are important market

segments for aviation and logistics companies in the Middle East (PWC, 2020; World Bank, 2019).

Diagram.5 *Middle East Aviation and Logistics Value Chain*



Source: (CAPA, 2019; IATA, 2024; Oxford Analytica, 2020; PwC, 2025)

The diagram also shows that factors such as supporting industries, strategic partnerships, government support and global connections also contribute to the Middle East's strong position in the aviation and logistics value chain. Companies in the region benefit from supporting industries such as fuel supply, aircraft production and maintenance, information technologies and insurance. Strategic partnerships are established through airline alliances, codeshare agreements, and joint ventures (Doganis, 2009). Governments support the sector through infrastructure investments, regulatory framework and incentives (Oxford Analytica, 2020). Finally, international hubs such as Dubai, Doha and Istanbul and strong global logistics networks increase the global connectivity of the region (Altman & Bastian, 2020).

Finally, examining the Middle East's role in the global automotive supply chain, the diagram below shows that it has five main components: raw materials, components, assembly, markets and supporting activities, highlighting the region's importance in the industry. Turkey and Iran's steel production, UAE and Bahrain's aluminum production, Saudi Arabia and Egypt's plastic production, Turkey and Iran's rubber production and

basic raw materials used in the automotive industry are produced within the region (Mordor Intelligence, 2021; Peter et al., 2018).

Diagram.5 *Middle East's Role In The Global Automotive Supply Chain*



Source:(Deloitte, 2020; Fitch Solutions Company, 2021; Mordor Intelligence, 2021; OICA, 2020)

Again, Turkey and Iran produce chassis and body and powertrain parts, as well as engine parts, and Israel and Turkey produce electronic systems and suspension parts (Export.gov., 2019; Mark Ntel Advisors, 2023). While assembly activities are concentrated in passenger vehicles in Turkey, Iran and Egypt, Turkey and Iran come to the fore in commercial vehicles, and Turkey and Egypt come to the fore in buses (Fitch Solutions, 2021; OICA, 2020). Vehicles produced in the Middle East are supplied to local markets throughout the region, regional markets in the Gulf countries and North Africa, and global markets in Europe, Asia and Africa (Euromonitor International, 2020). Stages such as R&D and design (Turkey and Israel), logistics and distribution (entire region), after-sales services (Turkey, Iran, UAE, Saudi Arabia) and sustainability (Turkey, Israel, UAE) that support the automotive supply chain are also within the region. is taking place (Deloitte, 2020; PwC, 2019). In conclusion, this diagram clearly demonstrates the important role of the Middle East in the global automotive supply chain in terms of raw materials, components,

assembly, markets and supporting activities. While the region is becoming an increasingly important player in the automotive industry with its strategic location, rich resources, developing production capacity and state support, Israel's regional foreign policy has the possibility of damaging this value chain by increasing geopolitical risks.

1.2. Israel, Regional Security Risks and Economic Consequences

Israel's foreign policy and international strategy in the Middle East are frequently debated due to the increasing tension and conflict risks in the region. The possibility of tensions between Israel and Iran creating a dominance effect in the Middle East, as well as Israel's conflicts with Hezbollah in Lebanon and Hamas in Gaza, further increase geopolitical risks (Human Right Watch, 2023). This expansion increases the likelihood of other regional actors becoming involved in conflicts (Global Conflict Tracker, 2024; UNCTAD, 2023d).

The military strategies and operations adopted by Israel will have economic consequences in the medium and long term. Although these consequences are difficult to predict, it is difficult to take an optimistic view. The areas where these negative effects can be monitored in the short term are energy markets and regional/global supply chains (UNCTAD, 2023d). In particular, possible Israeli attacks on Iran's oil infrastructure could cause a sharp increase in oil prices. This situation may lead to large fluctuations in global energy markets and increase economic pressures, especially on energy importing countries (Ruiz Estrada et al., 2020).

Additionally, disruptions to critical trade routes such as the Suez Canal and the Red Sea could disrupt global trade. This situation can create serious pressures on the regional and global economy (UNCTAD, 2023a). Unfortunately, the negative effects of geopolitical risks created by Israel may not be limited to energy prices and supply chains. First, Israeli military actions could lead to high volatility in financial markets (Altemur et al., 2024; Fernandez, 2007). Investors, especially those who avoid taking risks, may turn to safe haven assets and cause fluctuations in the markets. Subsequently, rising energy prices and supply chain disruptions could re-trigger global inflationary pressures (International Monetary Fund, 2024c; OPEC, 2023b). This situation may require central banks to tighten monetary policies and put pressure on the world economy and the individual growth performances of countries in the recovery process after the Covid-19 Pandemic.

In addition, the expansion of Israel's military operations may also tighten credit conditions (BIS, 2023; OPEC, 2023b). In particular, rising energy prices and market fluctuations may increase credit costs and make

borrowing conditions difficult (Balcilar et al., 2018; Mensi et al., 2021; World Gold Council, 2023). In the next step, if investors tend to diversify and protect their portfolios against such geopolitical risks, it will be inevitable for the demand for safe haven assets such as gold, US dollar and government bonds to increase (CFA Institute, 2023; UNPRI, 2023; World Bank Group, 2023).

In order to better understand the economic effects of the increasing geopolitical risks originating from Israel in the Middle East region, it would be useful to examine how previous studies have addressed this issue. By revealing the extent of the risks and their possible consequences, the literature review will provide a broader perspective on the research topic and ensure that further analyzes are based on a solid foundation. In this context, in the next section, past studies will be examined in detail and a basis will be created to determine the position of this research in the literature.

2. Previous Research

The economic impacts of increasing geopolitical risks in the Middle East are a topic that has been extensively addressed in the academic literature. Due to the region's geostrategic location, energy reserves and ethnic-religious diversity, geopolitical risks are intensely experienced and the economic reflections of these risks are examined multidimensionally.

In terms of reflections on financial markets Yoganandham G, (2023), Altemur et al., (2024), Eissa et al., (2024) and Chau et al., (2014) found that Israel's operations against Palestine and conflicts with Hamas caused volatility in the region's stock markets. Similarly, Ahmed & Huo, (2021) ve Love & Turk Ariss, (2014) showed that civil unrest and the Arab Spring in the Gulf countries negatively affected the stock markets.

In studies on energy markets, commonly have predicted that Israel's attacks on Iran will increase global oil prices Ruiz Estrada et al., (2020) and U.S. Energy Information Administration, (2019) emphasized that Iran's nuclear program, US-Iran tension and Yemen civil war disrupted energy supply and increased prices. Aloui et al., (2018) also warned that geopolitical risks could trigger inflation. In the context of impacts to supply chains, its generally accepted that Israeli and Houthi activities could disrupt critical trade routes and energy/logistics chains. U.S. Energy Information Administration, (2019) and UNCTAD, (2023) pointed out that disturbances in the Red Sea and Persian Gulf could harm maritime transport.

In terms of implications for economic growth, many reports have indicated that political instabilities in the MENA region negatively affect growth. (Arezki et al., 2020) also stated that the Gulf Crisis imposed serious costs on the regional economies. From the perspective of investor behavior, IMF, (2023a) have indicated that the demand for safe haven assets will rise against increasing geopolitical risks. Regarding credit markets, geopolitical risks may tighten credit conditions and increase borrowing costs.

On the other hand, there are also studies examining the reflections of geopolitical risks in the Middle East on areas such as foreign direct investments, tourism, employment and migration (IMF, 2023b). In addition, analyzes have been made that decreasing economic activities may trigger poverty and inequality in the region (Baur & Lucey, 2010).

In general, academic literature shows that geopolitical risks in the Middle East deeply affect economic, social and political spheres. However, in the case of Israel, there is a need for studies that analyze in detail the specific effects of its increasing activities on regional and global economies with current data. This research aims to fill this gap by addressing the risks posed by Israel from a holistic perspective.

3. Data and Methodology

The table below includes economic and trade indicators, their definitions and sources in the dataset covering 44 countries between 1995-2022. Of the variables in the table, DVA is an indicator used to measure countries' value-added production capacity in global trade and is taken from the OECD's "Trade in Value Added (TiVA)" 2023 edition. RD shows the ratio of R&D expenditures to GDP. It reflects the level of innovation and technological development and is provided by the World Bank. EXPE-DU shows the ratio of education expenditures to GDP. It is an important indicator in evaluating the investments made by countries in education and is taken from the UNESCO Institute for Statistics. FDI shows direct foreign investment inflows and is used to measure the capacity of countries to attract global investment. GWT shows the GDP growth rate and reflects the economic growth performance of countries. REXC shows the real effective exchange rate based on 2010 and is used to analyze the competitiveness of countries in exchange rates. Reflecting the labor force participation rate, Lforce represents the level of labor force participation of the working-age population and is derived from World Bank data. The LSI is provided by UNCTAD and shows the level of integration of countries in global maritime trade.

| Abbreviation | Definition | Source |
|--------------|--|---|
| DVA | Domestic value added in foreign final demand | Trade in Value Added (TiVA) 2023 edition: Principal Indicators (OECD) |
| RD | Research and development expenditure (% of GDP) | World Bank |
| EXPEDU | Government expenditure on education, total (% of GDP) | UNESCO Institute for Statistic |
| FDI | Foreign direct investment: Inward flows | World Bank |
| GWT | GDP growth (annual %) | World Bank |
| REXC | Real effective exchange rate index (2010 = 100) | World Bank |
| Lforce | Labor force participation rate, total (% of total population ages 15+) (national estimate) | World Bank |
| LSI | Liner shipping connectivity index | UNCTAD |

To test the effects of geopolitical risk originating from Israil on supply chains, its used various estimaiton models in this study. Besides the standard fixed effect estimator, the approaches used in this study are the Instrumental Variable approach (IV), Spatial Panel Data analysis and the System GMM approach for robustness testing. The Instrumental Variable approach is a powerful tool for addressing the endogeneity issue in panel data analysis. Also, the approach aims to obtain consistent and unbiased estimates in cases where there is a correlation between the explanatory variables and the error term.

This study conducts an empirical analysis of the factors affecting the level of geopolitical risk using a balanced panel data set for the period 1995-2022. The Geopolitical Risk Index (GPR), which is widely used in the literature for measuring geopolitical risk (Caldara & Iacoviello, 2022), constitutes the dependent variable of our study. The GPR index is a comprehensive index based on a systematic review of 11 leading national and international newspapers and measures the risks created by geopolitical events.

Our econometric analysis examines the effects of participation in the global value chain (Participation), R&D intensity (RD), education expenditures (EXPEDU), tariff rates (TRFF1), economic growth (GWT), exchange rate (EXC), institutional quality (GOV), labor market dynamics

(LFORCE), and foreign direct investment (FDI) on geopolitical risk. The selection of this set of variables is based on theoretical and empirical studies in the geopolitical risk literature.

The gravity model is widely used across economics and political science for analyzing trade flows and lends itself well to testing our core hypotheses. Not only has the gravity model produced consistent empirical results across decades of economic research on interstate trade,⁴ but it is also consistent with more recent advances of theories of international trade (Anderson, 2010, 2011).

4. Estimation Results

As anticipated, the rise in global geopolitical risks has a detrimental effect on domestic value added, as seen in Table.x. Investors and firms can be influenced by geopolitical uncertainties to slow economic activity. This is particularly problematic. The domestic value added is lowered due to GPR increases in Model 3. The conclusion is in line with the notion that geopolitical instability has a detrimental impact on global trade, investment, and production choices.

However, the purpose of the *israel_risk* variable is to quantify the domestic value added caused by specific geopolitical risks in Israel. Based on Model 4, domestic value added (significant at 5%) is significantly lower in Israel due to the increase of geopolitical risks. According to this study, Israel's economic performance can be significantly influenced by its geopolitical position and regional conflicts. The impact of the Israeli economy and its role in global value chains can be influenced by the status of Israel's relations with its neighbors, the ongoing Israeli-Palestinian conflict, and regional instabilities.

In all models, the LSI variable is positively correlated with statistical significance according to the estimation results. The discovery indicates that the advancement of maritime transportation results in a higher domestic value added for foreign final demand. Every model has a significant positive coefficient for the variable "Inward flows (FDI)" that is associated with foreign direct investment. Foreign direct investment inflows are believed to have a positive impact on domestic value added.

Nevertheless, in all models the variable EXPEDU (Government expenditure on education) is negative and shows an overall positive impact. The decrease in domestic value added for foreign final demand is a consequence of the rise in public expenditure on education. In all models, both the variables REXC and RD have positive coefficients. The rise in the real effective exchange rate may lead to higher prices for domestic

goods for foreign buyers, but it can also result in an increase in domestic value added through increased exports. The creation of value added can be achieved through increased R&D spending, which can promote innovation and efficiency.

Table.1: Baseline Regressions

| | Model_1 | Model_2 | Model_3 | Model_4 |
|---------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| LSI | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) |
| EXPEDU | -0.024*** (0.005) | -0.014*** (0.005) | -0.015*** (0.005) | -0.015*** (0.005) |
| LForce | 0.002 (0.001) | 0.001 (0.001) | 0.001 (0.001) | 0.001 (0.001) |
| log10fdi | | 0.025*** (0.006) | 0.025*** (0.006) | 0.025*** (0.006) |
| GWT | | 0.002* (0.001) | 0.002 (0.001) | 0.002 (0.001) |
| REXC | | 0.002*** (0.0003) | 0.002*** (0.0003) | 0.002*** (0.0003) |
| RD | | 0.029*** (0.009) | 0.029*** (0.009) | 0.030*** (0.009) |
| GPR | | | -0.009* (0.013) | |
| israel_risk | | | | -0.234** (0.102) |
| Constant | 4.812*** (0.094) | 4.625*** (0.090) | 4.629*** (0.090) | 4.660*** (0.090) |
| Fixed effects | | | | |
| N | 533 | 383 | 383 | 383 |
| r2_o | 0.414 | 0.539 | 0.530 | 0.561 |

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

The previous fixed effects table measures the impact of geopolitical risks in the present era using the “GPR” and “israel_risk” variables, while the lagged model evaluates their laggy effects. The effects of “GPR” are significant when the level is 10%, and they are important when it is significant if the variable in question is “israel_risk “. “L.GPR” is a variable that

remains significant at the 10% level in the lagged model, while it becomes significant when used at only 1%.

According to the lagged model, domestic value added is more impacted by global geopolitical risks than the specific negative effects that exist in Israel. This finding indicates that the economic performance of Israel may be affected in the long run by its geopolitical position and regional tensions. However, the L.LSI is positive and statistically significant in all models. This outcome implies that heightened connectivity in seaborne transportation results in higher domestic value added over the next period. In all models, however, notice that the coefficients for foreign direct investments are positive and significant for the lagged value (L.log10fdi). Why? Following one year, the positive impact of foreign direct investments on domestic value added is demonstrated by this outcome. All models have a negative lagged value of education expenditures (L.EXPEDU), which is statistically significant. Public expenditure on education is shown to have a negative impact on domestic value added after ten years. The outcome can be construed as the impact of education expenditures on economic output may be delayed or interdependent with other factors. There are also significant and positive coefficients on the lag values of real effective exchange rate (L.REXC), for lagged values, and on R&D expenditure (L.RD). After a period, the domestic value added is positively correlated with exchange rates and investments in R&D.

Table 2. Lagged Independent Variables

| | Model_1 | Model_2 | Model_3 | Model_4 |
|----------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| L.LSI | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.001*** (0.0001) |
| L.EXPEDU | -0.021*** (0.006) | -0.013** (0.006) | -0.014** (0.006) | -0.014** (0.006) |
| L.LForce | 0.002 (0.002) | 0.002 (0.002) | 0.002 (0.002) | 0.002 (0.002) |
| L.FDI | | 0.023*** (0.006) | 0.023*** (0.007) | 0.023*** (0.007) |
| L.GWT | | 0.003** (0.001) | 0.003** (0.001) | 0.003** (0.001) |
| L.REXC | | 0.002*** (0.0003) | 0.002*** (0.0003) | 0.002*** (0.0003) |
| L.RD | | 0.034*** (0.012) | 0.035*** (0.012) | 0.036*** (0.012) |
| L.GPR | | | -0.027* (0.015) | |

| | | | | |
|------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|----------------------|
| L.israel_risk | | | | -0.315*** (0.109) |
| Constant | 4.939*** (0.102) | 4.688*** (0.104) | 4.700*** (0.104) | 4.747*** (0.104) |
| Fixed effects with lagged | | | | |
| N | 497 | 362 | 362 | 362 |
| r2_o | 0.417 | 0.533 | 0.502 | 0.551 |

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Table 3. Addressing Endogeneity: System GMM

| | Model_1 | Model_2 | Model_3 | Model_4 |
|-------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|----------------------|
| L.Katılım | 0.667*** (0.017) | 0.913*** (0.013) | 0.918*** (0.014) | 0.777*** (0.016) |
| LSI | 0.001*** (0.0001) | 0.0001*** (0.00002) | 0.0001** (0.00002) | 0.00003 (0.0001) |
| EXPEDU | 0.069*** (0.008) | 0.003 (0.003) | 0.001 (0.003) | -0.009 (0.007) |
| LForce | 0.019*** (0.001) | 0.002** (0.001) | 0.002** (0.001) | 0.008*** (0.001) |
| log10fdi | | 0.035*** (0.005) | 0.035*** (0.006) | 0.090*** (0.008) |
| GWT | | 0.008*** (0.0005) | 0.008*** (0.0005) | 0.007*** (0.0005) |
| REXC | | 0.002*** (0.0002) | 0.001*** (0.0002) | 0.003*** (0.0004) |
| RD | | 0.001 (0.003) | 0.001 (0.004) | 0.046*** (0.014) |
| GPR | | | -0.003** (0.003) | |
| israel_risk | | | | -1.439** (0.706) |
| GMM Results | | | | |
| N | 533 | 383 | 383 | 383 |
| r2_o | | | | |

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

Estimated results indicate that the dependent variable's lagged value is positive and statistically significant in all models. It is evident from this finding that domestic value added is strongly linked to the value of the previous period. The coefficients' magnitude ranges from 0.667 to 0.918, indicating that much of the value added is due to past values.

GMM results exhibit some discrepancies compared to previous models. Education expenditures and R&D expenditure have more stable and significant coefficients in the fixed effects model, but their influence is less apparent in GMM. Also, while GMM has a positive impact, the fixed effects model is not as effective in dealing with global geopolitical risks. Differences in the estimations used in models, control variables, and estimation methods may be responsible for them.

Model 3 and Model 4 both yield consistent results in assessing the impact of geopolitical risk variables on domestic value added. The GPR in Model 3 has a significant and negative coefficient at the rate of 5%. A decrease in domestic value added is suggested by the rise in global geopolitical risks. This conclusion matches general expectations and theoretical arguments presented in the literature. Economic activity and participation in global value chains may be hampered by the presence of geopolitical risks. A rise in uncertainty can lead to delayed investment decisions, weakening trade relations, and raising the cost of financing. Also, geopolitical tensions can lead to security concerns that could result in supply chain disruptions and increased production costs.

A negative and significant coefficient of 5% is observed in Model 4 for Israel-specific geopolitical risks (*israel_risk*). The outcome implies that the rise in Israel-specific geopolitical risks lowers domestic value added. The findings are consistent with both literature and theoretical models. Due to its geopolitical position, relations with neighboring countries, and regional tensions, economic activity and participation in global value chains may be hampered by Israel's economy. Risiken specific to Israel could deter foreign investments, reduce tourism revenues, and increase defense spending—leading to inefficient utilization of resources. Israeli firms' access to international markets may be restricted, and the country's risk premium could rise, resulting in a decline in economic growth.

These findings align with those of the fixed effects model. At levels of 10% and 5%, the fixed effects model considers the GPR variable for uncertainty as negative while the *israel_risk* variables represent positive values. The GMM results demonstrate these relationships by incorporating dynamic effects and considering potential issues with endogeneity. The

negative impact of geopolitical risks on domestic value added is strongly supported in both models.

LSI is an explanatory variable and has significance of only 1% in the first, second and third models. Nonetheless, it has no bearing in the fourth edition.' The results indicate that the impact of maritime connectivity on domestic value added is reduced when other factors are taken into account. The EDU is a crucial element in the first model. The other models do not consider it important. The data indicates that education costs become more significant in combination with other variables. The Lforce, FDI, GWT, and REXC are all positive. These variables are responsible for boosting domestic participation in global value chains.

In Model 4, the RD variable is positive and only shows a small %. The results indicate that when other factors, such as geopolitical risks, are managed, the impact of R&D investments becomes significant.

4.1. Robustness Check: Spatial Perspective

Table 4. Robustness Tests: Spatial Regression

| | Model 1 | Model 2 | Model 3 | Model 4 |
|------------------|----------------------|---------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| LSI | 0.001*** (0.0003) | 0.001** (0.0003) | 0.001*** (0.0003) | 0.001** (0.0003) |
| <i>Wx LSI</i> | 0.003*** (0.001) | 0.002*** (0.001) | 0.002*** (0.001) | 0.002*** (0.0005) |
| EXPEDU | -0.001 (0.003) | -0.003 (0.003) | -0.003** (0.004) | -0.003 (0.004) |
| <i>Wx EXPEDU</i> | -0.075** (0.037) | -0.090** (0.036) | -0.090** (0.036) | -0.084** (0.036) |
| LForce | 0.001** (0.0003) | 0.0004* (0.0002) | .0004* (.0002) | 0.0004** (.0002) |
| <i>Wx LForce</i> | 0.003* (0.002) | 0.002 (0.002) | 0.003 (0.002) | 0.003 (0.002) |
| FDI | | -0.00002 (0.002) | -0.0003 (0.002) | -0.001 (0.002) |
| <i>Wx FDI</i> | | 0.0001 (0.0102) | -0.003 (0.0112) | -0.005 (0.011) |
| GWT | | 0.004 (0.003) | 0.004 (0.003) | 0.005 (0.003) |
| <i>Wx GWT</i> | | 0.0003 (0.010) | 0.001 (0.010) | 0.003 (0.011) |
| REXC | | 0.002* (0.001) | 0.002* (0.001) | 0.002** (0.001) |
| <i>Wx REXC</i> | | 0.007 (0.004) | 0.008* (0.005) | 0.008* (0.005) |

| | | | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| RD | | 0.017 (0.032) | 0.018 (0.031) | 0.022 (0.034) |
| <i>Wx RD</i> | | -0.032 (0.115) | -0.023 (.115) | -0.003 (0.123) |
| GPR | | | -0.005*** (0.011) | |
| <i>Wx GPR</i> | | | -0.044*** (0.049) | |
| israel_risk | | | | -0.002*** (0.062) |
| <i>Wx israel_risk</i> | | | | -2.264*** (0.805) |
| Spatial Rho | -0.373* (0.229) | -0.817*** (0.230) | -0.816*** (0.229) | -0.827*** (0.222) |
| r2 o | 0.555 | 0.634 | 0.635 | 0.640 |

Standard errors in parentheses

* $p < 0.10$, ** $p < 0.05$, *** $p < 0.01$

The results of the spatial panel data analysis reveal the local and spatial effects of the variables. While the coefficient of each variable shows the direct effect of the relevant variable on the domestic value added, the coefficients starting with the prefix “Wx” reflect the spatial spillover effect of the relevant variable, that is, the effect of the change in neighboring regions.

According to the results of the spatial panel data analysis, the GPR and israel_risk variables and their spatial effects (Wx GPR and Wx israel_risk) are negative and significant in Model 3 and Model 4. These results show that global and Israel-specific geopolitical risks have direct negative effects on domestic value added. In addition, the fact that the spatial effects of these variables are also significant reveals that geopolitical risks in a region also negatively affect the economic performance of neighboring regions. In other words, geopolitical risks negatively affect not only the region where the risk originates, but also neighboring regions and reduce economic activity.

The LSI variable is positive and significant in all models, indicating that the increase in maritime transport connectivity increases the domestic value added. In addition, the Wx LSI variable is also positive and significant, meaning that the increase in maritime transport connectivity in a region increases the value added of neighboring regions. This result reveals that maritime transport connectivity has positive spatial spillover

effects. The EXPEDU variable is negative and significant in Model 3, but not in the other models. However, the Wx EXPEDU variable is negative and significant in all models. This indicates that the increase in the level of education in a region reduces the value added of neighboring regions. This suggests that the increase in the level of education may have a competitive effect among regions. The LForce variable is positive and significant in all models. However, the Wx LForce variable is significant only in Model 1, indicating that the spatial spillover effect of labor is limited. The REXC variable is positive and significant in Models 2, 3, and 4, meaning that the increase in the real exchange rate increases the domestic value added. In addition, the Wx REXC variable is positive and significant in Models 3 and 4, indicating that an increase in the real exchange rate in a region also increases the value added of neighboring regions.

Finally, the Spatial Rho coefficient is negative and significant in all models. This indicates that the spatially lagged dependent variable has a negative effect on domestic value added. In other words, an increase in the value added in neighboring regions reduces a region's own value added. This result suggests that there may be competitive effects between regions.

5. Conclusion

This study has comprehensively analyzed the impacts of geopolitical risks originating from Israel on value chains and economic performance in the Middle East. Our empirical results show that geopolitical risks created by Israel's regional policies and military operations negatively affect not only regional economies but also global supply chains and markets.

The results of the study can be summarized around three main findings. First, Israel-specific geopolitical risks (*israel_risk*) appear to have a statistically significant and negative impact on value-added production. This effect is consistently observed in both the fixed-effects model and the GMM estimations. Second, our spatial analysis shows that geopolitical risks originating from Israel also have a spillover effect on neighboring countries and regions. This finding reveals that geopolitical risks have indirect effects as well as direct effects, and that these effects spread spatially. Third, when compared to the global geopolitical risk index (GPR), Israel-specific geopolitical risks appear to have a more intense impact on regional economies.

In terms of economic variables, maritime transport connectivity (LSI), foreign direct investments (FDI), real effective exchange rate (REXC) and R&D expenditures (RD) positively affect value added production, while the effect of the education expenditures (EXPEDU) variable exhibits a

complex structure. These results emphasize the importance of these factors in the economic integration of regional countries and their participation in global value chains.

The implications of our study in terms of policy recommendations are as follows: First, normalization of relations and reduction of tensions between Israel and regional countries are important not only politically but also economically. Second, global and regional economic actors should develop risk management strategies by taking into account the potential impacts of geopolitical risks originating from Israel on their supply chains. Third, initiatives aimed at strengthening regional economic integration can reduce the economic costs of geopolitical tensions and increase the participation of regional countries in global value chains.

For future research, a more detailed analysis of the sectoral effects of geopolitical risks originating from Israel, examination of the evolution of risks over time and evaluation of alternative economic integration models are recommended. In addition, developing geopolitical risk measures and analyzing the economic impacts of changes in Israel's relations with neighboring countries should also be included in future research agendas.

In conclusion, this study contributes to the literature by empirically analyzing the economic impacts of geopolitical risks originating in Israel and helps to better understand political-economic relations in the Middle East. Our findings suggest that regional stability and peace are critical not only for political but also for global economic prosperity.

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