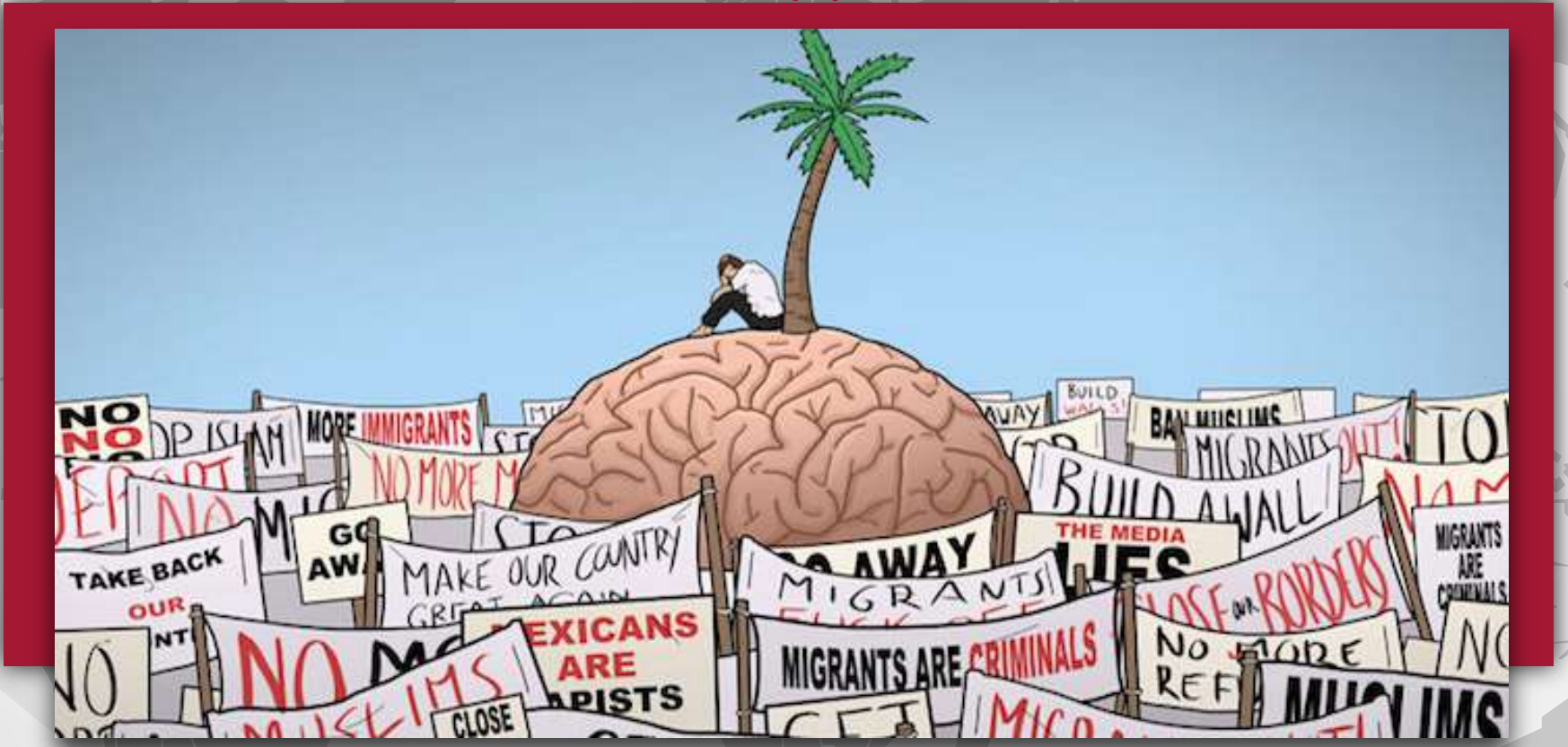


E-BULLETIN

Digital Diplomacy and Inclusive Peace Studies Platform for Youth

- MATERIALISM**
- TECHNOLOGY, SOCIAL MEDIA AND DEMOCRACY**
- CHILD LABOR**
- GLOBAL MIGRATION AND THE WORLD ECONOMY**



MEDIA, POPULISM AND DEMOCRACY



E-BULLETIN

CONTACT US

 www.divandernege.com

 @ibam_tr

 +90 (530) 765 4472

 @divandernege

 Başakşehir Mh. Şehzade Sk.
No:13 Başakşehir, İstanbul

CONTENTS



MEDIA, POPULISM AND DEMOCRACY

4-5-6-7-8



TECHNOLOGY, SOCIAL MEDIA AND YOUTH

9-10



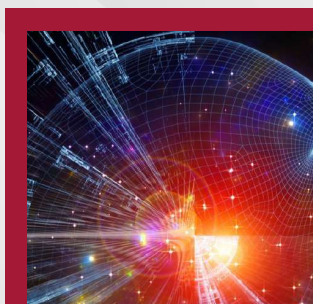
GLOBAL MIGRATION AND THE WORLD ECONOMY

11-12



CHILD LABOR

13-14



MATERIALISM

15-16

WORLDWIDE NEWS



1

MEDIA, POPULISM, AND DEMOCRACY

Media and Populism

Numerous political individuals who have distinguished themselves via their personalities and their expression of the general unhappiness have appeared on the European political scene over the past ten years. These include people like Silvio Berlusconi, Jörg Haider, Pim Fortuyn, Christoph Blocher, and Jean-Marie Le Pen, who are all more recent examples of the

populist political atmosphere that dominates much of contemporary Europe, as outlined in the introduction to this volume. Regardless of their ideologies, the leaders of populist movements and parties frequently share traits that unmistakably contribute to their popularity and political appeal: they are typically charismatic personalities with a strong media presence. Additionally, as Gianfranco Pasquino points out in his chapter, "Populist leaders do not represent the people; rather, they think themselves—and are successful in being perceived as—an important part of the people. They belong to the populace. These characteristics typically work together to provide long-lasting public notoriety and intense media coverage, which leaders can then employ as political capital to further their objectives at home. This has undoubtedly been the case with Le Pen, who has been successful in garnering (and using to his advantage) the criticism of the press, while Austria's Jörg Haider has attracted public attention both at home and abroad thanks to his personal appeal and provocative opinions.

Pim Fortuyn used a slightly similar communication style when he addressed sensitive topics of public interest (such as Muslim immigration) and shown a flashy outspokenness that guaranteed him ongoing media attention. When we examine the most well-known examples of populist phenomena in Europe, we may observe that movements and leaders frequently appear to rely on "media complicity." Numerous times, it appears that the European media helped to legitimize the topics, buzzwords, and communication gimmicks of populist leaders. By using communication techniques that guarantee media coverage, "underdog" leaders who aim to attract the public's attention have repeatedly demonstrated their ability to take advantage of the media's fondness for anything that "breaks the routine" in political spheres. This "supply and demand" relationship causes the populist message to become significantly more visible and resonate with a larger audience. It is clear that no inference is being made in this article that the media is responsible for the rise of populism.



However, if we look at the symbolic building of favorable opinion climates, as well as populist leadership, credo, and action, we discover that the media play a crucial role in supporting the emergence of populist phenomena. Of course, the media factor is by no means the sole independent variable in this situation. That is to say, the other structural aspects examined in this book, such as the characteristics of the political system and the particulars of the social and cultural political climates, cannot be divorced from media action. The example of social and political malaise—a typical precursor for the rise of anti-political sentiments—illustrates how political and media variables work together in a special way, with the country's political climate serving as the spark. Despite the fact that the media did not directly cause this gloom, they do contribute to its dissemination by keeping it on the public's radar and by fostering a climate of political distrust and fatalistic disengagement, all of which populist politicians may quickly and easily exploit.

Democracy and Populism

Government "of, by, and for the people." This well-known quote from President Abraham Lincoln's Gettysburg Address in 1863 could be readily embraced by both populists and Democrats. Lincoln's formula, after all, is lofty but nebulous, consisting of essential words to be filled with equally important but undefined substance. Furthermore, as most scholars (e.g. Canovan, 1981 and 1999; Mény and Surel, 2000 and 2002; Mudde, 2004) like to point out, populism and democracy are closely related. There is also a natural tension between them, but it has rarely been thoroughly examined. Given that both populism and democracy have strong roots in the populace and both emphasize the people's supreme importance, it is simple to draw a relationship between them.

Analysts and citizens alike are aware that where the people have no authority at all, there is no democracy. Of course, the definition of democracy may and must be made richer than a basic etymological reference to the "power of the people" or to the even less clear "sovereignty of the people." Lincoln's famous quote can therefore be read populistically, i.e., by emphasizing that any growth in the people's power—regardless of how small—means that democracy has improved.

This is nearly true if the power of the people is defined in relation to the most significant factors that make up a democratic environment: the level of voter participation and information, the significance and intensity of political competition, the likelihood of office-changing, and, finally, the openness and adaptability of the mechanisms and structures that define the political sphere's accountability. However, populists not only typically reject any political institutions that serve as a conduit between the people and the leader, but their fundamental notion of the people that creates analytical and political problems. There are numerous reasonable definitions of "the people," as has frequently been pointed out. Beginning with the first, which is found in many constitutions.

We the people of the United States..., which appears in the preamble of the US Constitution, denotes that the people are citizens endowed with rights and obligations, but most importantly with the power of sovereignty, which – and this is a very important point – must be exercised within the bounds and framework outlined in the constitution itself. I believe that this definition is the only one that is compatible with democracy. Therefore, the "people" are not an undifferentiated mass of people as populists frequently believe (see the preface to this chapter). Instead, they are employees, associations, parties, and citizens. The nation is the focus of the second definition of people. People have the same rights and obligations as citizens in addition to others. They are primarily persons who have the same ancestry and live in the same region (Blut und Boden). They have the

same history and are members of the same tradition. Therefore, the populace is more than a demos; they are an ethnos. This definition is exclusive and becomes incompatible with a democratic viewpoint when populists apply it too strictly.

The third definition of humans is based on a social class perspective and is the last one. Only the less wealthy segments of a society—those who are left behind, who toil and struggle to exist, those who are taken advantage of by the elites, the Establishment, and even groups like the parties and "official" labor unions—are deemed to be the people. Right-wing populists (like those organizing Argentina's descamisados) and their left-wing counterparts can be found in this definition (e.g. the French revolutionists who mobilized the sans culottes). These three definitions all have a similar viewpoint and point of view. The relationship between the populace and populism has always been exceedingly murky, and it still is.





2003], I think the contrary is actually true: populist ideas are almost invariably incompatible with democracy, especially liberal democracy.

Democracy and Media

As the second decade of the twenty-first century draws to a close, study on social media and its impact on democracy has swept through many areas of the social sciences, particularly political communication. This document provides a quick overview of various recognized research fields based on the gathered information in this body of literature. It first emphasizes how social media encourages people to voice their political views. Second, it clarifies how this improved communicative behavior has rekindled a more democratic and participatory society. Thirdly, it investigates the democratic knowledge acquisition deficit methods in social media. The research concludes by providing a theoretical justification for this knowledge gap using the 'news-finds-me' perception theory.

The division of powers among the different independent branches of government—typically the legislature, which enacts laws, the judiciary, which interprets and applies the law, and the executive, which oversees government operations—is one of the fundamental principles of a liberal democracy, the current dominant form of government. In the past, societies were relatively small, allowing citizens to participate in discussion and decision-making face-to-face or through handwritten communications.

As populations grew, mediation became necessary for democratic participation, which is why communication is now mediated. The newspaper was the first form of mass media, followed by radio, television, and, as of today, the Internet. The media was viewed as the fourth estate, supporting the three pillars of government by offering checks and balances because of its developing role as a watchdog that oversees the operation of the country by exposing abuses and corruption and holding those in power accountable. The media also fulfills a more fundamental function as a source of knowledge required for reasoned discussion. Making educated decisions rests on the electorate receiving high-quality information, which is essential for a healthy, functioning democracy.

There are numerous definitions of populism that have been put out (see Taguieff, 2002 for a comprehensive list). There have been previous attempts (Ionescu and Gellner, 1969; Canovan, 1981; Taggart, 2000), but it would be difficult to identify one that does not emphasize the people's power, role, importance, and unquestionable decisiveness. The real problem therefore becomes identifying and defining the strategies that the people can and do use to effectively exercise their power. Despite the prevalent belief that populists are not always anti-democratic (as summarized by Tarchi,



As a long-standing institution, the media has long benefited from the status of a reliable source of news and information. It is no longer feasible for every citizen to directly engage in the democratic process due to the growing population. As a result, representatives began to speak and act on behalf of people, creating the representational form of democracy. In this setting, the media adopted the function of representing the public's voice to those in power. Dahlgrens (1995) divided the mediated public sphere into four dimensions to better comprehend it as a result of the media's development into a venue where the public can engage in the democratic process.

It is possible to study the media as an institution. Does the government own or control the media? Do they represent the interests of the general population or a select group of those held by media owners? Do media outlets that are supported by and subject to government regulation serve the public interest, or are they merely propaganda mouthpieces? Are private firms that control the media serving the public's interests or their own economic ones when they do so?

In light of these developments, concerns have also been voiced regarding how the public is portrayed in the media. There are concerns about whether there is a wide enough spectrum of opinion to represent the interests of the public because journalists, and by extension the media, are increasingly considered as a representative of the public. There are concerns regarding the quality of the news and information as the media grows more commercial, which may be harmed when the media places a greater emphasis on entertainment to keep its consumers' attention. Entertainment is frequently viewed as emotional and the polar opposite of reasoned discourse. Additionally, there are worries that voters' only democratic role has been reduced to that of an observer who casts the deciding vote.



2

TECNOLOGY, SOCIAL MEDIA AND YOUTH

The use of cellphones and social media by kids and teenagers has dramatically increased over the past ten years, along with an increase in mental distress and treatment for mental health disorders among youth in the world. Since the Center's most recent survey of youth and technology usage in 2014-2015, the environment of technology for young people has changed in numerous ways, one of which is how teens' use of social media has changed. Most notably, having a smartphone has practically become a need for teenagers: 95% of teenagers say they currently possess or have access to a smartphone.

In turn, more consistent online activities are being supported by these mobile connections: Nowadays, 45% of teenagers claim to be online almost constantly. The survey also reveals that kids are not in agreement about the impact that social media has on today's youth. The majority of teens (45%) think that it has been neither positive nor negative, however minorities of teens describe it as largely positive (31%) or mostly negative (24%). These are some of the key conclusions from the Center's survey of American teenagers, which was carried out between March 7 and April 10, 2018. The term "teens" refers to those between the ages of 13 and 17.



Teens now live in a very different social media environment than they did only three years ago. 71% of teenagers who participated in the Center's study of teen social media use in 2014-2015 indicated that they use Facebook. At the time, the majority of kids used Instagram and Snapchat, with about half (52%) of teens reporting that they utilized other platforms. In 2018, a substantial majority in this age group uses three online platforms besides Facebook: YouTube, Instagram, and Snapchat. Currently, 51% of teenagers claim to use Facebook. The percentages of teenagers who use Twitter and Tumblr are roughly comparable to the percentages from the poll conducted in 2014-2015.



It is significant to note that between the Pew Research Center's 2014–2015 and 2018 studies of teen social media use, some question wording changed. The selections for the 2014–2015 survey did not include YouTube or Reddit, but they were in the current survey. Additionally, respondents to the 2014–2015 study had to explicitly state if they used each platform, whereas those who took the 2018 survey were given a list of websites and permitted to choose the ones they use.

Even still, it is obvious that compared to three years ago, the social media landscape now revolves less around a single platform. Teenagers claim they visit Snapchat (35%) or YouTube (32%) the most frequently, while 15% say the same of Instagram, when asked which of these online platforms they use the most. Comparatively, only 10% of teenagers describe Facebook as their primary online platform, and even fewer mention Twitter, Reddit, or Tumblr. Again, kids from lower-income families are much more likely to say Facebook is the internet site they use most frequently (22% vs. 4%) than are teens from higher-income families. When it comes to the websites that teenagers use the most, there are obviously some disparities based on gender, color, and ethnicity. Boys are more likely than girls to name YouTube as their preferred platform (39% vs. 25%), but females are more likely to indicate Snapchat is the website they use most frequently (42% vs. 29%). Furthermore, more white teens (41%) than Hispanic (29%) or black (23%) teens say Snapchat is the online platform they use most frequently, while more black teens than whites say Facebook is their preferred website.

Despite the virtually ubiquitous use of social media in their lives, youths are divided on the long-term effects of these platforms on young people. A majority of teenagers (45%) think social media has no real impact on young people, either good or bad. Three out of ten teenagers (31%) say social media has primarily had a positive impact, while 24% say it has primarily had a negative impact.

90% of teenagers report playing video games of any kind (whether on a computer, game console, or cellphone), and 84% of them claim to have or have access to a game system at home. Even though a sizable majority of girls (75%) and boys (83%) say they have access to a gaming console at home or play video games in general, respectively. Almost nine out of 10 boys (92%) own or have access to a gaming console at home, and 97% report playing video games in some capacity. Since the Center's previous analysis of the teen technology landscape in 2014–2015, gaming console ownership among Hispanic teens and teens from lower-income families has increased. During this time, a 10-point increase of Hispanics who claim to have access to a gaming console at home was seen. Additionally, 85% of teenagers from families with annual incomes under \$30,000 report having a game console at home, up from 67% in 2014–2015.

3



GLOBAL MIGRATION AND THE WORLD ECONOMY

Modern cross-border migration experts have long recognized the value of broad comparative viewpoints as the foundation for in-depth research on specific regions and ethnic groups. A "big picture" approach to the history of international migration has recently been developed by economists, and Jeffrey Williamson and Timothy Hatton have been at the vanguard of that group.

The most recent and thorough study produced by this team, *Global Migration and the World Economy*, expands on the previous joint and individual research while also making significant new discoveries. For instance, the majority of this new book is not repeated in Williamson and Kevin O'Rourke's collaboration, *Globalization and History*, or in their *Age of Mass Migration*. The writers deconstruct the economic underpinnings of global mass migration by combining an astonishing array of original theory, statistics, and logic along with a wide range of discoveries from other experts. They apply their multi-pronged analysis to the ups and downs of the contemporary migratory era, including changes in origin countries, the shift in the economies of destination countries from industry to services, the increasing significance of asylum-seeking and unauthorized migration, and the emergence of policy regimes that are more stringent, sophisticated, and challenging to effectively implement.

A thorough analysis of contemporary issues is informed by a solid historical perspective, covering everything from the significance and constraints of immigration laws in determining the scope and nature of migration to democratic disconnects between public opinion and public policies on migration to the intricate offsets and feedbacks between education and mobility, skilled and unskilled labor, the "brain drain" and remittances. It can be difficult for the reader to keep track of which of the many moving open problems is being addressed or where it has previously been handled in *Global Migration and the World Economy*, which is packed of precise and important concerns and attempts to at least answer most of them.

Global Migration has some issues, despite being an amazing job overall. Although the authors apply an inadequate corrective, they correctly emphasize the significance of labor markets, which have received little attention in the majority of migration historiography. They don't talk much about labor demand, focusing instead on labor supply and giving exogenous labor market issues even greater weight (such as travel costs, famines, wars, and government policies). Their idea of potential migrants in developing nations being trapped in a "poverty trap" until they can "escape" it through the use of higher salaries, government aid, international remittances, or cheaper travel costs is at the heart of their historical explanation for "what drove migration." Relocation costs have undoubtedly always been taken into account when deciding whether or not to move across international borders, and they were generally a more serious restriction the further back in time one looks. However, the Hatton and Williamson model attributes to them a centrality that is not supported by their data. The real costs of travel decreased during the nineteenth century as a result of rising wages throughout the Atlantic basin, new travel technologies, a shift in the sources of Europe's overseas emigrants southward and eastward to areas farther from New World destinations, and a long-term secular trend towards lower average labor market "skills" among transatlantic migrants. Everything above supports the idea that the cost barrier to migration is lowering.

There are at least two issues with the authors' assertion that "during the major change from trickle to flood, it was the fall in steerage rates and in the time in passage that mattered most." First off, the majority of emigrants to the United States during the nineteenth century came from Europe. The peak of immigration to the United States in terms of population occurred in the early 1850s, when very few people had yet traveled to



the country on steamships, which slashed travel times across the ocean by at least two thirds. Before 1865, sailing ships carried more steerage passengers to the United States than did steamships. Second, the majority of sources of such data, such as the fares compiled by Kristian Hvidt (1971) or Arnold Kludas (1986), which show an increase in North Atlantic transit fares after 1900 and coincide with an even sharper rise to the second highest all-time peak in the U.S. immigration rate, are not included in the supporting passage cost data presented in Global Migration.

Global Migration and the World Economy is a book that historians should read since they will probably need to deal with some of the key topics it raises more directly in the future. Cross-border mass migration will be about much more than ethnic identities, culturally dispersing diasporas, or even elegantly constructed narratives in an interconnected world of population pressures, resource constraints, and growing climatic disruptions, for example. Even if the historical record does not provide any "easy solutions to the world migration problems" of the near future, as Hatton and Williamson realistically conclude, it seems a reasonably safe bet that the upcoming global migration challenges will also stoke interest in geographically broad historical insights.



4

CHILD LABOR

The use of children as employees, servants, or apprentices has been a common practice for the majority of recorded human history, although it peaked during the Industrial Revolution. Long hours and unpleasant working conditions, such as overcrowded and filthy workplaces, were the norm. Children were less likely to form unions and could be paid less. Working children frequently couldn't go to school, which led to a cycle of poverty that was challenging to overcome. Reformers and labor activists fought to limit child labor and improve working conditions throughout the nineteenth century in an effort to uplift the masses, but it took the Great Depression, when people were scrambling for jobs, to end the country's long-standing child labor traditions.

Children were also expected to adhere to the 13 colonies' and their founders' Puritan work ethic, which emphasized hard effort above idleness. Child labor was a vital component of the American agricultural and handicraft economies throughout the first half of the 1800s. Children were employed as indentured workers and on family farms. Boys often started their apprenticeships to learn a trade between the ages of ten and fourteen.

During the Industrial Revolution, mines and factories that needed laborers grew. Because kids could be paid less, were frequently smaller than adults and could complete jobs in small places, and were less likely to organize and go on strike in protest of their appalling working conditions, children made excellent employees.

Although it was still a relatively tiny portion of the economy, women and children played a significant role in American manufacturing prior to the Civil War. After the war, improvements in industrial techniques led to a rise in jobs, which in turn led to an increase in child labor.

Conveniently, immigration to the US increased during the Industrial Revolution, creating a fresh source of labor—including child labor. Irish immigrants arrived to fill lower-level factory jobs after the Irish Potato Famine hit in the 1840s. Groups from southern and eastern Europe arrived in the 1880s, creating a new source of child labor. Numerous immigrant children continue the pattern now by working in agriculture, which is free from some labor laws. Mid-nineteenth-century educational reformers made an effort to persuade the populace that a primary school education was essential if the country was to grow as a whole. While many of these regulations were riddled with loopholes that were easily exploited by employers looking for cheap labor, other states imposed a minimum salary for work and requirements for attending school.

Beginning in 1900, social reform in the United States increasingly focused on measures to control or outlaw child work. State child labor committees and the National Child Labor Committee, both established in 1904, took the lead. In the face of delayed progress, these organizations used adaptable strategies. They invented strategies such as expert investigations, the exploitation of images of child laborers to arouse indignation about the subpar working conditions for youngsters, and effective lobbying campaigns. To reach the people, they employed written flyers, brochures, and mass mailings. Child labor committees focused on state legislator reform from 1902 through 1915. As a result of the reform movement of the Progressive Era, numerous laws banning child labor were implemented. However, many Southern states objected, which prompted the decision to advocate for a federal statute against child labor. Although such legislation were passed by Congress in 1916 and 1918, the Supreme Court ruled that they were unconstitutional.

States were hesitant to ratify the 1924 constitutional amendment authorizing federal child labor laws because of the conservative political climate of the 1920s as well as opposition from farm and church organizations worried about increased federal control over children. These obstacles included the conservative political climate of the 1920s. The Great Depression resulted in widespread reforms under Franklin Delano Roosevelt's New Deal programs and left thousands of Americans without jobs. These centered on enhancing federal regulation of the workplace and providing jobs for unemployed people, so giving parents strong incentives to keep their kids out of the economy. Nearly all of the regulations created in accordance with the National Industrial

In reality, it was against the law to employ anyone under the age of sixteen in the manufacturing and mining industries. Although it has considerably decreased in the US, child labor still exists in some sectors of the economy, such as agriculture, where it is more challenging to control migrant employees.

Since 1938, child farm employees have not been entitled to the same labor safeguards as other working youngsters. For instance, despite the risks associated with exposure to pesticides and farm equipment, children 12 and younger are legally permitted to labor in farm fields.

In an effort to compete with imports from low-wage countries, employers in the clothing sector have turned to the offspring of illegal immigrants. Despite rules restricting the number of hours that children and teenagers can work while still enrolled in school, many people are working longer hours to make ends meet due to the rising cost of education. State by state regulation of child labor laws varies to this day.





5

MATERIALISM

The privatization of property and the construction of commercial real estate have started "the biggest transfer of wealth in human history," along with the growth of economic reforms and widespread urbanization. Chinese citizens are seeing a wealth explosion and an increase in their desire for material goods. There are many various definitions of materialism, including personality qualities (Belk, 1984), values orientation (Richins & Dawson, 1992), and goal orientation.

The trend of materialism is prevalent in contemporary work and life (Kasser & Ryan, 1993, 1996). The empirical research on materialism is mostly value/target oriented and reflects ideals or goals that place a strong emphasis on material wealth, social status, and outward appearance in the context of daily life. Low-level demands are typically the focus of high-level materialists, who also have high extrinsic motivation and poorer happiness. In recent years, academics have broadened the idea of materialism from several angles.

According to recent thinking, materialism is the pursuit of identity goals (Shrum et al., 2013). Materialism is more than merely a particular collection of actions (such as conspicuous consumption, luxury purchases). Materialism is a continuum from low to high rather than a simple dichotomy (materialist and non-materialist) (Richins, 2017). The expansion of these ideas offers a fresh viewpoint for the investigation of materialism's beneficial impacts.

Psychologists, consumer researchers, and sociologists have all expressed a great deal of concern about related findings on materialism in recent years. The majority of current domestic research focuses on the negative impacts of materialism, such as compulsive consumption, declining levels of happiness, and life satisfaction. Less research has been done on the good consequences of materialism. In light of this, it is very important to advance research on materialism's beneficial effects and to successfully counteract its destructive ones.

In this study, the interventions of materialism are summarized together with their good and negative impacts at the individual, consumption, organizational, and societal levels. Promote the study of materialism and its applications, identify the gaps in present materialist research, and suggest areas for future study.

Materialism has a favorable effect on people's consumption habits. To some extent, materialism can increase consumer desire and motivation for achievement. This sense of accomplishment not only raises individual income and living standards but also increases commodity demand, fostering economic growth and societal advancement (Sirgy et al., 2013, 2015). Younger persons with higher degrees of materialism have been found by Goldberg et al. (2003) to buy more frequently, know more about goods and services, and are more receptive to advertising and promotions. They might therefore be early adopters, trend-setters, and influential people. The study also discovered that the center, a crucial aspect of materialism, controls consumer innovation and plays a significant role in fashion innovation (Goldsmith et al., 2013). Sales data can be used by marketers to pinpoint their ideal clients, advance strategic brand communication, and encourage societally desirable consumer behavior (Heath & Chatzidakis, 2012).

Additionally, materialism has a favorable relationship with attitudes and behaviors of consumers who are motivated by hedonism, image, and status values. For instance, Dittmar et al (2014) 's meta-analysis demonstrates that materialism is positively associated with engaging in health-hazardous behaviors like consumption (of tobacco, alcohol, etc.) and strong hedonism; materialism also maintains positive attention to image-related attitudes and behaviors, such as fashion and apparel and cosmetic surgery (Kamal, Chu, and Pedram, 2013; Workman & Lee, 2011); materialistic motives should also be of concern (Srivastava, Locke, & Bartol, 2001).

In conclusion, the present research on materialism's influence amply supports the following traits: The research primarily concentrates on the individual level and the consumption level, with numerous studies on materialism and subjective well-being, as well as on the organizational level and society. There aren't many studies available at this level. The influence of materialism and its interventions are thoroughly summarized in this essay, but its internal mechanisms are insufficient. Future studies should investigate the mechanisms of mediation and adjustment for materialism's influence and develop a more thorough theoretical foundation.

The modern world is rife with materialism cues. An important impact of materialism on people, consumerism, organization, and society. It has a significant practical impact on preventing materialism. It is important to concentrate on the inner aim rather than the exterior objective, enhance sense of security, lessen the effect of social variables, and promote the public through the guiding role of the mass media in order to reduce materialism and have more enjoyment in life. We encourage everyone to actively participate in philanthropic endeavors and charities in order to reconstruct good values in light of the detrimental effects of materialism. Parents should set a positive example for their children and limit the unfavorable influences that lead to materialistic attitudes in their lives. To offer counseling and safety, educators can build up health-related courses and run psychosocial services. The following aspects of future study are subject to in-depth investigation and discussion.

EDITOR

Fidan Babayeva

REFERENCES

ARTICLES

- https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230592100_2https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230592100_2.
- <https://www.scirp.org/journal/paperinformation.aspx?paperid=90676>
- <https://www.taylorfrancis.com/books/mono/10.4324/9780203406878/media-democracy-james-curran>
- <https://www.studocu.com/my/document/kolej-matrikulasi-selangor/english/people-are-becoming-more-materialistic/22129670>
- <https://www.britannica.com/topic/materialism-philosophy>
- https://link.springer.com/chapter/10.1057/9780230592100_
- <https://www.cmaj.ca/content/192/6/E136.short>
- <https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1573447107040570>
- <https://www.history.com/topics/industrial-revolution/child-labor>
- https://books.google.com/books?hl=en&lr=&id=PErJDQAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PP1&dq=materialism&ots=_ChfViAeu4&sig=oW7qZ
- https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Timothy-Hatton_2/publication/23573575_Global_Migration_and_the_World_Economy_Two_Centuries_of_Policy_and_Performance/links/5494da6b0cf20f487d2c483e/Global-Migration-and-the-World-Economy-Two-Centuries-of-Policy-and-Performance.pdf
- <https://www.britannica.com/topic/materialism-philosophy#:~:text=materialism%2C%20also%20called%20physicalism%2C%20in,or%20even%20reducible%20to%20the>

REFERENCES

PHOTOS

- <https://leverageedu.com/blog/media-psychology/>
- <https://jewishwebsite.com/opinion/democracy-human-rights-and-the-limits-of-international-interventions/32562/>
- <https://pixabay.com/tr/illustrations/teknoloji-kent-par%4b1lt%4b1l%4b1-i%59fletme-6701504/>
- <https://uwaterloo.ca/arts-computing-newsletter/spring-2021/feature/data-sharing-within-social-media-call-action>
- <https://edition.cnn.com/2022/11/16/health/teens-social-media-pew-survey-wellness/index.html>
- <https://www.oneworldeducation.org/our-students-writing/global-migration-moving-to-america/>
- <https://www.gfmag.com/global-data/economic-data/economic-data-worlds-gdp-growth-by-region>
- <https://www.humanium.org/en/child-labor-in-india/>
- <https://www.yunuscengel.com/tag/materyalizm/>
- <https://sunflowernewsosyalplatform.com/wp-content/uploads/2021/03/Adsiz-tasarim-13-1200x580.png>
- <https://media.msf.org/AssetLink/1wh056y7e320a2bd2x40f23g6c6xu711.jpg>

THANKS