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87/23A, KohilaKotuwa Road, Neelammahara,

Maharagama, Colombo, Sri Lanka

Tel: +94-112-849-268 / Fax: +94-112-849-426

Mobile: +94-773-940-838 / +94-715-279-696

For Paper Submission: editor@gariteam.com

For Help: helpdesk@gariteam.com

WhatsApp / Viber: +94-773-940-838

Skype: gari.conference

Web: <http://globalacademicresearchinstitute.com>

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**THE EFFECT OF PERCEPTION OF EMPLOYEE'S INSTITUTIONAL SOCIAL
RESPONSIBILITY ON THE BEHAVIOR OF ORGANIZATIONAL CITIZENSHIP:
AN AMPIRICAL RESEARCH AT MUNICIPALITY**

Adnan Celik, Omer Faruk Diken

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) perceptions on Organizational Citizenship Behaviors (OCB) of the municipality employees. In this context, data were collected from the employees of a central town municipality of Konya through question forms. Data were analyzed using SPSS 25.0. It is seen that there are positive relations between CSR scores and altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score. As OCB scores increased, CSR scores also increased. In terms of demographic variables, there is a relationship between organizational social responsibility perception and Organizational Citizenship (OC). As a result of the regression analysis, it was determined that the perception of CSR positively affects the OC level positively.

Keywords: Social Responsibility, Institutional Social Responsibility Perception, Organizational Citizenship

INTRODUCTION

Organizational Citizenship (OC) is defined as the activities realized by the individual without expecting any concrete reward for the labor that these activities are not clearly defined in the work processes and enforced if not done. Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB) is defined as the role behavior which does not exist in formal reward system and is not defined within it, also a

voluntary role of an individual. In this study, OCB dimensions; altruism, scrupulousness, sportsmanship, kindness and civil virtue developed by Organ (1988) were taken into consideration. Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) can be done as an effort to increase the vital quality of society and contribute to the sustained financial structure. In this study, CSR, which is expressed as a voluntary and collective sharing of social and environmental concerns in relations with partners, is dealt with in economic, legal, ethical and philanthropic dimensions.

In this study, it is aimed to obtain information about the dimensions and effects of the application of the effect of employees' perception about CSR on OCB in a municipality. In particular, municipality, which aim to produce services to the citizens, are expected to believe in their employees commitment to the institution and act as a citizen of that institution in order to create a healthy satisfaction. If employees have a good sense of CSR in the municipality where they work, it can be expected to mention their OC towards the organization. In this study, data about the employees was collected from one of the municipality in the central districts of Konya using a questionnaire. The main population of the study consisted of full-time employees in the relevant district municipality. The results were analyzed and

recommendations were developed as a result of the study.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

Organizational Citizenship Behavior OCB

Definition and Importance of OCB

OC is defined as activities that are not clearly defined in the work processes and do not sanction if not done, without expecting any concrete reward for the labor shown by the individual (Gürbüz, 2006: 48). OCB is defined as the voluntary role behavior of the individual which contributes to every function of the organization even though it is not directly included and defined in the formal reward system (Bateman and Organ, 1983: 587). Unlike the structure of formal organizational behaviors, which are based on voluntarism (Organ and Konovsky, 1989: 157-164), which go beyond routine business behaviors (Podsakoff, et al., 2000: 513), are not explicitly based on orders and instructions (Dyne et al, 1994: 765-802), however, behaviors and movements that provide benefits for organizational success in the short, medium and long term are distinguished from formal organizational behaviors (Williams and Anderson, 1991: 601). Such informal behaviors that go beyond formal and written behaviors are called OCB in general (Organ et al., 2006; Moorman, 1991; 845-855; Niehoff and Moorman, 1993: 527-556, Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997: 136-137, Akbaş, 2011: 53-82). In other words, behaviors that an organization individual exhibits other than official role definitions lead to OCB (Şimşek, Çelik and Akgemci, 2019: 259).

Based on the definitions of OCB and the scope of such behaviors; OCB come together in three main points (Bateman and Organ, 1983: 587; Podsakoff and

MacKenzie, 1997: 137-151); 1. Being optional and voluntary; 2. Impact of OCB not in official job descriptions: Contribution to development and education; 3. Contribute to the effectiveness and success of the organization.

When the structure of OCB is examined, it can be seen that such behaviors can be evaluated in two groups (Organ and Konovsky, 1989: 157-164; Farh et al., 1990; 705-721; Moorman, 1991: 845-855; Organ and Ryan, 1995: 775-802): 1. Active participation and benefit to the organization, 2. Avoiding all kinds of behaviors that may harm the organization and preventing such behaviors from occurring within the organization. The activities in the institution can effectively run through OC without any special effort. For example, behaviors such as helping others in busy working hours, finding a better atmosphere with pleasant conversation, guiding others with a different perspective are the OC Behaviors (Zellars et al., 2002: 1068; Titrek et al., 2009: 1-28; Baş and Şentürk, 2011: 29-62).

The OCB enhances the capabilities of the staff in the organization and enables them to interact and collaborate. In this way, an environment where less stress and productivity increases can be seen. Employees do not perform their sensitive OC Behavior because of instructions or to avoid themselves from other officers. These are adapting to the group and to behave to do the best spontaneously (Ölçüm, 2004; Yücel and Demirel, 2012: 24; Çetinkaya and Çimenci, 2014: 237-278). In summary, when it is desired to classify OCB dimensions, the following can be asserted (Çelik, 2007: 61-84); “- The rules obeyed in institution is not a duty fulfilled. -If it is not fulfilled, there is no expectation of penal transaction or benefit when realized. - Can't be engrained through education. -These attitudes should be done by officials

spontaneously. -It is difficult to distinguish and delimit in the work processes. - Plays a role in the path followed by the organization. - It is about belief and thinking.

Dimensions of OCB

The dimensions of OCB can be specified in different ways. However, the OCB developed by Organ (1988) is widely accepted as follows (Bolat and Bolat, 2008: 75-94, Tokgöz and Aytemiz Seymen, 2013: 61-76):

1. Altruism: It is the event that the officials in the organization help others with their own consent against the problems encountered. While performing this task, he is expected to do the same without expecting reward-like returns (Castro et al., 2004: 27; Karadağ and Mutaçlılar, 2009: 41-70). Taking over the task of someone who is unable to perform business processes is an example (Kidwell et al., 1997: 775-793).

2. Sportsmanship: The business officer in the face of the difficulties encountered in the stable, to continue without reducing the contribution provided and willingly do business despite these things (Sezgin, 2005: 317-339; Konovsky and Organ, 1996: 253-266). It is to defend a pleasant working environment without causing unnecessary conflicts (Polat, 2009: 1591). Commitment to the manager and the organization itself is necessary for this. In the absence of this, loyalty towards the organization decreases (Netemeyer et al., 1997: 85-98).

3. Scrupulousness: It is the case that the employees in the business take the forms of doing business seriously and do not enter into situations such as making less effort during the work period (Polat, 2009: 1592-1596). He also obeys the rules in cases where he is not followed (Barksdale and Werner, 2001: 148). Employees evaluate the working time more efficiently

and try to do the best they can (Dipaola et al., 2009: 490-507).

4. Civil virtue: The presence of officials in all departments of the institution, the adoption of the institution, it means hard and active participation (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1994: 351). Employees in the institution should feel themselves tasked and willingly involved (Schnake and Dumler, 1993: 352). There are stages such as personal initiative, employee negotiation The implementation of the work related to the image of the organization can be given as an example (Thompson and Werner, 1997: 583-601, Bolino, 1999: 82).

5. Kindness: Counseling with others before starting or comparing activities can be an example of kindness. Kindness consists of attitudes that affect the later stages of events. For example, in the case of other processes in the business processes that concern the moment, there are solutions to problems that may occur in kindness (Burns and Collins, 2000: 1).

Definition, Scope and Importance of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)

Although responsibility varies between societies, businesses and even individuals, it can be considered as a sense of accountability when necessary due to the responsibility undertaken against society in general. Social responsibility, economic legal and moral responsibilities of enterprises, basically the information brought to the parties in the enterprise should be accurate and reliable. The only element of the company's ability to fulfill its responsibilities towards society is the form of management that emerges from decisions based on accurate and reliable information (Güneş and Otlu, 2003: 108-110) Social responsibility is not only the profit of businesses, but also the responsibility of other individuals in the community to operate with a sense of

responsibility (Çağlar, 1996: 90-91; Krueger and Mas, 2004: 253-289; Benabou and Tirole, 2009: 1-19). It is not enough to satisfy the increasing desires of the consumers, and the enterprises that make efforts in relation to the society come to the forefront. Partnership negotiations with these organizations, shopping, etc .. situations are more. Another explanation for this situation is the accrued nature pollution, negative attitudes in using raw materials, global warming, unfavorable job opportunities and so on. It is also important to be sensitive to consumers. Businesses have to pay more attention to social and environmental developments over time in order to sustain their lives, increase their reputation and gain success compared to other enterprises. Thus, the concept of social responsibility became more important. The responsibilities that enterprises must fulfill can be listed as economic, legal, moral and voluntary (social) responsibilities. CSR; rather than the law and the impulse to increase profits, the obligation to society, avoiding activities that may have bad consequences, factors that will return to society as abundance, and so on and perform actions accordingly (Top and Öner, 2011: 91, Akkoyunlu and Kalyoncuoğlu, 2014: 125-144; Saran, et al., 2011: 3732-3747).

Another definition of CSR can be made as an effort to contribute to the sustained financial structure and to increase the vital quality of society (Herndon, et al., 2001: 73-85). CSR is a situation where voluntary and collective sharing of social and environmental concerns is valid in relations with partners. At this stage, the authorities should follow the direction of the interests of the society and thus be directed (Luthans et al., 1987; Akerlof, 2002: 411-433; Aguinis and Glavas, 2012: 932-968). To classify the factors that play a role in the importance of CSR; The attitudes of those who make coercion related to work, financial conditions that

improve, prosocial individuals, technology and communication, increasing the importance of social behaviors, importance of top institutions, benefits to the market, and increasing expectations can be listed. Developments related to society, higher authorities and the environment in particular can improve CSR faster. With the increase of these factors, organizations start to feel indebted to the society. It is possible to retain more staff and suppliers, and increase satisfaction (Bayraktaroğlu, et al., 2009: 38).

It can be said that the efforts made for CSR improve the social environment and stimulate the personal interest of the employees in the institution. It can be said that there is a belief that the social environment in the organization eliminates the harmful effects and increases the beneficial effects. CSR has become a necessity for the enterprise and has given the organization financial and economic sensitivity in terms of CSR initiatives. It is thought that if institutions succeed in sustaining and maintaining CSR, it will arouse great interest in the long term. CSR reduces costs and risks of the organization. It can achieve this by revealing potential threats of customers and stakeholders, creating a livable environment in the organization, attracting economic interests through its works, and mitigating threats that will adversely affect social performance (Zadek, 2000; Kurucz et al., 2008: 83-112; Carroll and Shabana, 2010). It is important to act proactively when making decisions, to develop current and future environmental regulations by the company and to reduce operational costs. Establishing moderate relations with the community can provide advantages in the field of taxation as it gives the company the qualification of an appropriate institution (Berman et al., 1999: 486-506).

CSR provides a competitive advantage. As it concerns the communication of

corporations with its customers, it strengthens the company's competitive advantage. For example, increasing brand loyalty and encouraging CSR initiatives by consumers create energy environment (Pivato et al., 2008: 3-12) (Bhattacharya and Sen, 2004: 10). Such philanthropic activities are beneficial if there is a feedback by stakeholders (Buchholtz et al., 1999: 169). Firms and so on. increase their sales capacity, perform more attractive relationship with the government and other institutions by performing by hiring staff (Bruch and Walter, 2005: 50). Philanthropy studies increase the direct recognition of the relevant institution, ensure that the organization has a competitive advantage and return the spend (Seifert et al., 2003: 195-211). CSR increases the reputation of the organization. Thanks to CSR, the organization operates based on social norms, expectations and different stakeholders. In addition, it can increase its reputation by generating value and increasing earnings. Organizations that can create high sales standards and brand value organizations are companies that have worked hard in this field materially and relationally (Smith, 2005: 57-65). Emphasizing product advantages, increasing sales incentives, increasing firm and product image and so on. can be done to increase reputation (Smith and Alcron, 1991: 19-35). Economic, environmental and social performance of the institution is also increased due to factors such as reputation (Antal et al, 2002: 22-42).

Social Responsibility Development Process

Social responsibility concept, for the first time, was stated in the Hammurabi laws in the 18th century BC. (Peltekoğlu, 1993: 181). Then, after the Industrial Revolution, productive work and activities increased the weight of environmental problems. For this reason, it is only the

fact that it does not look at the concrete feedback. Especially in the aftermath of World War II, due to the increase in financially strong companies, studies have been carried out in this field and it has been requested to be in harmony with the opinions of the society (Kakabadse et al., 2005: 279).

The views shared by social circles about the importance of economic responsibility in order to increase the monetary return made by Adam Smith and Milton Friedman and thus the strong ones will benefit the people with this power are shared by some circles (Alakavuklar et al., 2009: 106). However, this theory has only been advocated for alternatives, since it does not adequately defend the interests of the other parties, on the grounds that it raises the returns of high-ranking individuals. Therefore, Stainer says that in 1972, it was the beginning the fulfillment of society's desires, both as a source and as an employment. For example, there should be activities in order to reduce the damages caused by the organization during the activities carried out in the second ring. Ultimately, organizations that strive to solve social problems rather than acting solely on their return or loss personally fulfill this view (Torlak, 2007: 38). After 1950, corporate enterprises increased, and the concept became known as CSR. Bowen's (1953) article Social Responsibilities of a Businessman was the turning point of this change (Carroll, 1999: 270). At this point, there is a difference between social responsibility of organizations and CSR. There are conditions in social responsibility, ie not cheating, fair treatment, ethical and respectful, but there is a genuine desire in CSR. There is the urge to contribute to the environment and humanity while improving the business situation (Kotler and Lee, 2006). In CSR, a goal is stated for organizations and consumers. For example, it can create a bond with a product and put the CSR project into

effect. It determines and concludes targets by acting on it. In this way, it informs the parties and can produce projects in similar ways (Orçan, 2007: 27; Balı ve Cinel, 2011: 45-60).

CSR Features

CSR activities cover a long period of time, so there is voluntary basis rather than legal regulations (Sönmez, 2004: 476-490). CSR is not only philanthropy, but also a long-planned one. It has recycling. It is a type that will preserve profitability rather than simply bring the organization's financial interests. CSR has economic, legal, ethical and charity dimensions (Carroll, 1991: 39-48; Alexander and Buchholz, 1978: 479-486; Cochran and Wood, 1984: 42-56; McWilliams and Siegel, 2000: 603-609):

1. Economic Dimension: Organization is primarily an economic unit. Consequently, it tries to meet the desires of the consumers and make a profit in order to continue its existence. He can't do the others without succeeding. It is also important that it has a competitive power in the race with other organizations, a positioning, an operational activity and an increase in equity. Economic responsibilities such as minimizing what is stated here, making long-term plans, continuous improvement of the organization and trying not to decrease the number of employees can be realized.

2. Legal Dimension; It indicates that organizations have to pay attention to legal regulations in their activities. For example, the state's expectations, responsibilities and must comply with the law (Carroll, 1991: 39-48; Friestad and Wright, 1994: 1031; Du, et al., 2010: 8-16). To see the financial or operational power of the company well, whether our outputs are in accordance with the procedures, making the payments or promotions according to merit and so on. It is also important to follow the rules.

3. Ethetic Dimension: There is an ethical perspective which is to make a distinction between good or bad for society and which we encounter in our lives. The organization should also consider this perspective (Ay and Aytekin, 2005: 45-60). For example, social values, emerging concepts, being a sincere organization and not to move away from being moral, etc . (Carroll, 1991: 39-48). To present ethical training activities, to act honestly during the work placement and valuation process, to provide complete and detailed information to the buyers and so on, can also be said in this field.

4. Charity Dimension: Apart from being a useful organization, there is an effort to move the society, country and environment to better places. In philanthropy, these stakeholders and similar activities come from inside, to help non-profit organizations, educational institutions or businesses to provide grants support, eliminating unnecessary costs and so on (Maignan and Ferrell, 2001: 461).

Classification of CSR Areas

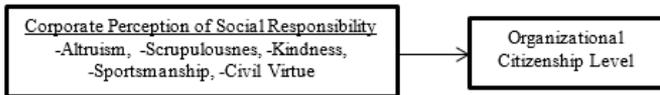
CSR areas in the workplace (health at work, safety, fair sharing among staff, specialization based tasks, acquisition of knowledge and skills, etc.), market (impression of the company's outputs, the course of the relationship with customers and suppliers, the safety of the target audience information, business processes and ethical values in culture and society, risk management in environmental situations, aid activities based on the course of environmental events, human rights, attitudes towards animals, assistance in order to be beneficial to society, support in the fields of education and job teaching outside of their duties (CSRQuest, 2019: 1). First of all, starting from the organization, the necessary atmosphere in the working environment should be provided and the officials should be raised to a more competent

level. Then the market situation should be taken into consideration and the needs of customers, contact with suppliers should be considered. Then, it is important to get in touch with the environment and society. Damages and bad consequences should be reduced, integrated with society and beneficial. In order to take CSR to the next level, by transferring the costs to the outputs, the products and services may become expensive and this may cause problems for the company in the market. Increasing the number of officials in the organization in order to strengthen CSR or showing too much tendency to CSR activities may put the priority that will provide direct return to the organization (Çelik, 2007: 61-84). However, those who show no interest may experience loss of credibility and legal sanctions.

THEORETICAL MODELS AND HYPOTHESES

The model of the study is as in figure 1.

Figure 1: Research Model



The hypotheses of the research are as follows:

H1: There is a positive relationship between organizational citizenship perception and corporate social responsibility levels of employees.

H2: There is a relationship between organizational social responsibility and organizational citizenship in terms of demographic variables.

METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

Purpose and Importance of Research

In this study, it is aimed to obtain information about the dimensions and effects of the application of the effect of employees perception of CSR on OCB in a municipality. Municipalities, which aim to produce services to the citizens, are expected to believe in their employees commitment to the institution and act as a citizen of that institution in order to create a healthy satisfaction. If employees have a good sense of CSR in the municipality where they work, it can be expected to mention their OC towards the organization. As a result of this empirical study on The Impact of Employees Perceptions of CSR on OCB information will be provided on the dimensions of the relationship between OCB and social responsibility created by the municipality.

Scope of Research

The Impact of Employees Perceptions of CSR on OCB: Application in a Municipality hypotheses created from different sources were tested by applying to the personnel of a central district municipality in Konya.

Method of Research

In this study, the effect of CSR perceptions on OCB of Municipality was investigated. In this study, data were collected for the employees of a municipality from the central districts of Konya using a questionnaire. The main population of the study consists of full-time employees in the relevant district municipality. 470 questionnaires were distributed to all personnel. The sample of the study was determined easily by using sampling technique. Data were collected from 250 volunteers who participated in the survey. After completing the missing questionnaires, 206 questionnaires were

taken into consideration in the study. The questions between 6-18 in the questionnaire were formed using the CSR scales in Nuray Yılmaz Sert's study called "Investigation of Relation between Corporate Social Responsibility and Activism: The Relationship of Private Sector in Turkey, Corporate Social Responsibility and Activism". Since the reliability and validity analyzes were performed in the study, a factor analysis was not necessary. The questions between 19-37 are formed using the OC scales in the study by Özge Turhan called "The Mediating Role of Loneliness in Organizational Life in the Effect of Emotional Labor on Organizational Citizenship: A Research". Since the reliability and validity analyzes were performed in the study, a factor analysis was not necessary. Questions 38 and 39 of the questionnaire were adapted using Corporate Citizenship Scales in the study by Bülent Aydın called "The Effects of Organizational Communication on Employee Job Satisfaction and OCB". Since the reliability and validity analyzes were performed in the study, a factor analysis was not necessary.

RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Research Analysis

Frequency tables are given below.

Table 1. Age Distribution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	20-25	10	4,9	4,9	4,9
	26-30	22	10,7	10,7	15,5
	31-35	49	23,8	23,8	39,3
	36-40	52	25,2	25,2	64,6
	41-45	40	19,4	19,4	84,0
	46and above	33	16,0	16,0	100,0
	Total	206	100,0	100,0	

Among the participants, 49 were between the age of 31-35, 52 were in the 36-40, 40 were in the 41-45, and 33 were in the 46 years old or older.

Table 2. Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Women	42	20,4	20,4	20,4
	Men	164	79,6	79,6	100,0
	Total	206	100,0	100,0	

Among the participants, males were identified as 164 people and women as 42 people.

Table 3. Educational Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Middle School	4	1,9	1,9	1,9
	High School	43	20,9	20,9	22,8
	Associate degree	57	27,7	27,7	50,5
	License	91	44,2	44,2	94,7
	Master's Degree	11	5,3	5,3	100,0
	Total	206	100,0	100,0	

It is determined that 43 of the participants hold a degree of high school, 57 had associate degree, 91 had License degree and 11 had Master's degree.

Table 4. Duties in the Institution

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Manager	8	3,9	3,9	3,9
	Branch manager	1	,5	,5	4,4
	Technical Staff	80	38,8	38,8	43,2
	Administrative Staff	60	29,1	29,1	72,3
	Other	57	27,7	27,7	100,0
	Total	206	100,0	100,0	

The number of technical staff was 80, the number of administrative staff was 60 and the number of other employees were 57.

Table 5. Working Time

Valid		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Less than 1 year	11	5,3	5,3	5,3
	1 – 3	24	11,7	11,7	17,0
	4 – 6	57	27,7	27,7	44,7
	7 – 9	34	16,5	16,5	61,2
	10 – 15	33	16,0	16,0	77,2
	16 – 20	13	6,3	6,3	83,5
	Over 20 years	34	16,5	16,5	100,0
	Total	206	100,0	100,0	

When we look at the working time of our participants in the institution, the range of 4-6 years was 57 people, 7-9 was 34 people, 10-15 was 33 people, and 20 years and over was 34 people.

The acceptance / rejection of the above-mentioned hypotheses tested in the research will be included here.

H1: There is a positive relationship between organizational citizenship perception and corporate social responsibility levels of employees.

H2: There is a relationship between organizational social responsibility and organizational citizenship in terms of demographic variables.

Statistical analysis of the data is as follows:

Within the scope of the research, using the parametric analysis techniques, the participants' scores on CSR and OCB; age, gender, educational background, task type, working time and social responsibility projects in the institution. Some assumptions were checked before the analyzes performed. Firstly, it was investigated whether there are extreme values in the data set that make normal distribution difficult. For this purpose, box graphics were created and examined. The results showed that there are 8 extreme values in the data set. Observations of

these values were excluded from the data set. In the next stage, the distribution of the scores obtained from the CSR and OCB scales was examined. For this, skewness and kurtosis coefficients were calculated. The fact that these coefficients are within ± 1 range indicates that the data has normal distribution (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). The calculated coefficients were within the specified range (Table 6). This result showed that the data had normal distribution.

Table 6. Coefficients of Skewness and Kurtosis

Variables	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Value	Standard Error	Value	Standard Error
Corporate Social Responsibility	198	-0,08	0,17	-0,24	0,34
Altruism	198	-0,57	0,17	-0,07	0,34
Scrupulousness	198	-0,36	0,17	0,02	0,34
Kindness	198	-0,05	0,17	0,02	0,34
Sportsmanship	198	-0,22	0,17	-0,03	0,34
Civil virtue	198	-0,31	0,17	-0,01	0,34
Total points	198	0,07	0,17	-0,59	0,34

Within the scope of the research, independent sample t test was used to compare the gender and the status of social responsibility projects in the institution. One-way analysis of variance was used to compare age, educational status, task type and working time. In the analysis of variance, Scheffe multiple comparison test was used to determine the source of the difference. The relationship between the scores obtained from the scales was examined using Pearson correlation analysis technique. Data were analyzed using SPSS 25.0.

Research Findings

H1: "There is a positive relationship between employees perception of organizational citizenship and their levels of corporate social responsibility." Testing the hypothesis:

Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficients of the Relationship between OCB Scores and CSR

Variables	Corporate Social Responsibility
Altruism	,485**
Scrupulousness	,375**
Kindness	0,126
Sportsmanship	,252**
Civil virtue	,327**
Total points	,382**

Scores ** p <0.01; N = 198

When the table is examined, CSR scores and altruism ($r = 0.485$; $p < 0.01$), scrupulousness ($r = 0.375$; $p < 0.01$), kindness ($r = 0.126$; $p > 0.01$), sportsmanship ($r = 0.252$; $p < 0.01$), civil virtue ($r = 0.332$; $p < 0.01$) and total score ($r = 0.382$; $p < 0.01$). As OCB scores increased, CSR scores also increased.

H1: There is a positive relationship between employees perception of organizational citizenship and their levels of corporate social responsibility.

H2: "There is a relationship between corporate social responsibility perception and organizational citizenship in terms of demographic variables." Testing the hypothesis:

Table 8. Descriptive Values of the Scores Obtained from the CSR and OCB Scales

Variables	N	Min.	Maks.	\bar{X}	Ss
Corporate Social Responsibility	198	2,90	5,00	4,14	0,50
Altruism	198	3,00	5,00	4,44	0,51
Scrupulousness	198	3,00	5,00	4,39	0,42
Kindness	198	2,67	5,00	3,99	0,48
Sportsmanship	198	2,25	5,00	3,95	0,59
Civil virtue	198	2,00	5,00	3,91	0,62
Total points	198	3,38	5,00	4,13	0,38

When the table is examined, the average scores of CSR, altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship and civil virtue are 4.14 ± 0.50 ; 4.44 ± 0.51 ; 4.39 ± 0.42 ; 3.99 ± 0.48 ; 3.95 ± 0.59 and 3.91 ± 0.62 , respectively. The values obtained were as follows; It has shown that the perceptions of CSR, kindness, sportsmanship, civil

virtue are high and the perceptions of conscience are high.

Table 9. Mean CSR Score by Gender, Standard Deviations and t Test Results

Variables	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Ss	t	p
Corporate Responsibility	Social Women	39	4,15	0,54	0,22	0,82
	Men	159	4,13	0,49		

When the table is examined, there is no significant gender-related difference in the mean scores of CSR ($p > 0.05$). CSR scores

of the men and women who participated in the study were not differentiated.

Table 10. Mean of CSR Score by Age, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results

Variables	Age	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Corporate Responsibility	20-25	10	4,22	0,40	0,35	0,88
	26-30	22	4,20	0,50		
	Social 31-35	46	4,11	0,54		
	36-40	48	4,09	0,47		
	41-45	40	4,19	0,51		
	46 and above	32	4,12	0,50		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of CSR according to age groups

($p > 0.05$). The social responsibility scores of the participants who participated in the study and in different age groups did not differ.

Table 11. Average of CSR Score, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results by Education

Variables	Education	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Corporate Responsibility	1. Middle School	4	3,75	0,48	0,68	0,61
	Social 2. High School	42	4,12	0,35		
	3. Associate degree	53	4,16	0,48		
	4. License	88	4,13	0,56		
	5. Master's Degree	11	4,19	0,55		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference between the mean scores of CSR depending on the educational status ($p > 0.05$). The social

responsibility scores of the participants who participated in the research and at different educational levels did not differ.

Table 12. Means of CSR Score, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results by Task Type

Variables	Task	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Corporate Responsibility	Manager	9	4,41	0,51	1,49	0,22
	Social Technical Staff	75	4,07	0,53		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,15	0,47		
	Other	55	4,17	0,47		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference between the mean

scores of CSR depending on the type of task ($p > 0.05$). The CSR scores of the

managers, technical personnel, administrative staff and other participants were differentiated.

Table 13. Mean of CSR Score, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results by Professional Seniority

Variables	Professional seniority (Year)	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p	Post-Hoc
Corporate Social Responsibility	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,09	0,33	3,22	0,00	6>4,
	2. 1 – 3	23	4,27	0,48			
	3. 4 – 6	55	4,09	0,49			
	4. 7 – 9	34	3,94	0,45			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,08	0,59			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,58	0,39			
	7. Over 20 years	34	4,21	0,45			

When the table is examined, there is a significant difference in the average scores of CSR depending on professional seniority ($p < 0.05$). According to the results of Scheffe test, CSR score average

of the participants whose professional seniority is 16-20 years, is significantly higher than that of the participants whose professional seniority is 7-9 years

Table 14. According to the Status of CSR Studies According to the CSR Score Means, Standard Deviations and t Test Results

Variables	Are there any social responsibility activities in your institution?	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Corporate Social Responsibility	Yes	106	4,15	0,44	1,56	0,21
	No	17	4,31	0,67		
	Partially done	75	4,08	0,53		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference in the average scores of CSR depending on the status of social responsibility studies in the institution studied ($p > 0.05$). The CSR scores of the participants who stated that social responsibility projects were done, not done and partially done were not differentiated.

Table 15. Mean of OC Score by Gender, Standard Deviations and t Test Results

Variables	Gender	N	\bar{X}	Ss	t	p
Altruism	Women	39	4,42	0,45	-0,29	0,77
	Men	159	4,45	0,52		
Scrupulousness	Women	39	4,33	0,43	-0,97	0,33
	Men	159	4,40	0,42		
Kindness	Women	39	3,93	0,36	-0,83	0,41
	Men	159	4,00	0,50		
Sportsmanship	Women	39	3,86	0,62	-1,03	0,30
	Men	159	3,97	0,58		
Civil virtue	Women	39	3,77	0,61	-1,57	0,12
	Men	159	3,94	0,61		
Total points	Women	39	4,08	0,32	-0,91	0,37
	Men	159	4,14	0,39		

When the table is examined, there is no significant gender-related difference in the mean scores of altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and

total score ($p > 0.05$). The OCB scores of the men and women included in the study were not differentiated.

Table 16. Mean, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results of OC by Age

Variables	Age	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Altruism	20-25	10	4,70	0,26	1,60	0,16
	26-30	22	4,43	0,52		
	31-35	46	4,50	0,55		
	36-40	48	4,47	0,53		
	41-45	40	4,45	0,45		
	46 and above	32	4,25	0,51		
Scrupulousness	20-25	10	4,55	0,37	1,20	0,31
	26-30	22	4,33	0,37		
	31-35	46	4,41	0,41		
	36-40	48	4,42	0,38		
	41-45	40	4,41	0,44		
	46 and above	32	4,25	0,49		
Kindness	20-25	10	4,33	0,35	1,45	0,21
	26-30	22	4,00	0,37		
	31-35	46	4,04	0,45		
	36-40	48	3,92	0,51		
	41-45	40	3,95	0,50		
	46 and above	32	3,96	0,51		
Sportsmanship	20-25	10	4,18	0,46	1,28	0,28
	26-30	22	3,74	0,73		
	31-35	46	4,06	0,57		
	36-40	48	3,90	0,61		

	41-45	40	3,93	0,53		
	46 and above	32	3,95	0,54		
Civil virtue	20-25	10	4,10	0,57	0,48	0,79
	26-30	22	4,02	0,50		
	31-35	46	3,93	0,65		
	36-40	48	3,88	0,67		
	41-45	40	3,87	0,60		
	46 and above	32	3,83	0,60		
Total points	20-25	10	4,36	0,19	1,24	0,29
	26-30	22	4,09	0,39		
	31-35	46	4,19	0,41		
	36-40	48	4,09	0,38		
	41-45	40	4,12	0,36		
	46 and above	32	4,08	0,37		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference in terms of altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score average depending on age groups ($p > 0.05$). OCB scores of the participants included in the

study and in different age groups did not differ.

Table 17. Mean, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results of OC by Age

Variables	Education	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p	Post-Hoc
Altruism	1. Middle School	4	3,50	0,58	4,52	0,00	2>1, 3>1, 4>1, 5>1
	2. High School	42	4,46	0,55			
	3. Associate degree	53	4,56	0,47			
	4. License	88	4,41	0,48			
	5. Master's Degree	11	4,45	0,47			
Scrupulousness	1. Middle School	4	4,19	0,24	0,69	0,60	-
	2. High School	42	4,35	0,47			
	3. Associate degree	53	4,43	0,34			
	4. License	88	4,37	0,44			
	5. Master's Degree	11	4,50	0,42			
Kindness	1. Middle School	4	4,00	0,00	9,52	0,00	1>5, 2>5, 3>5,
	2. High School	42	4,20	0,42			
	3. Associate degree	53	4,18	0,41			
	4. License	88	3,81	0,48			
	5. Master's Degree	11	3,73	0,39			
Sportsmanship	1. Middle School	4	3,06	0,99	3,32	0,01	2>1, 3>1, 4>1, 5>1
	2. High School	42	4,07	0,54			
	3. Associate degree	53	4,02	0,57			
	4. License	88	3,90	0,57			
	5. Master's Degree	11	3,82	0,54			
Civil virtue	1. Middle School	4	3,75	0,32	2,89	0,02	1>5, 2>5, 3>5,
	2. High School	42	4,07	0,61			
	3. Associate degree	53	4,03	0,60			
	4. License	88	3,81	0,62			

	5. Master's Degree	11	3,55	0,56			
Total points	1. Middle School	4	3,71	0,36			2>1,
	2. High School	42	4,23	0,35			3>1,
	3. Associate degree	53	4,22	0,37	3,80	0,01	4>1,
	4. License	88	4,06	0,38			5>1
	5. Master's Degree	11	4,01	0,28			

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference in scrupulousness scores depending on the educational status ($p > 0.05$). However, there is a significant difference in the mean scores of altruism, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score ($p < 0.05$). According to the results of Scheffe test, the mean scores of high school, associate, license and master's degree were significantly higher

than those of middle school graduates. On the other hand, the average courtesy and civil virtue scores of the middle school, high school and associate degree graduates were significantly higher than those of the master's degree.

Table 18. Mean, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results

Variables	Task	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Altruism	Manager	9	4,50	0,50	0,68	0,56
	Technical Staff	75	4,49	0,51		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,46	0,48		
	Other	55	4,36	0,54		
Scrupulousness	Manager	9	4,50	0,45	0,30	0,83
	Technical Staff	75	4,36	0,45		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,39	0,43		
	Other	55	4,39	0,36		
Kindness	Manager	9	3,89	0,58	0,34	0,79
	Technical Staff	75	3,96	0,46		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,02	0,49		
	Other	55	4,01	0,47		
Sportsmanship	Manager	9	4,25	0,53	0,86	0,46
	Technical Staff	75	3,94	0,58		
	Administrative Staff	59	3,94	0,65		
	Other	55	3,92	0,54		
Civil virtue	Manager	9	4,07	0,52	1,38	0,25
	Technical Staff	75	3,80	0,65		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,00	0,61		
	Other	55	3,92	0,59		
Total points	Manager	9	4,25	0,39	0,36	0,78
	Technical Staff	75	4,12	0,38		
	Administrative Staff	59	4,14	0,39		
	Other	55	4,11	0,37		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference in terms of altruism,

scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score average

depending on the type of task ($p > 0.05$). OCB scores of the managers, technical personnel, administrative personnel and

other different tasks were not differentiated.

Table 19. OC Average, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results by Professional Seniority

Variables	Professional seniority	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p	Post-Hoc
Altruism	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,50	0,45	1,41	0,21	-
	2. 1 – 3	23	4,33	0,65			
	3. 4 – 6	55	4,41	0,55			
	4. 7 – 9	34	4,44	0,46			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,52	0,47			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,79	0,40			
	7. Over 20 years	34	4,38	0,43			
Scrupulousness	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,57	0,30	3,30	0,00	$6 > 2$,
	2. 1 – 3	23	4,16	0,53			
	3. 4 – 6	55	4,38	0,40			
	4. 7 – 9	34	4,35	0,36			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,53	0,40			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,65	0,41			
	7. Over 20 years	34	4,31	0,38			
Kindness	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,27	0,36	1,18	0,32	-
	2. 1 – 3	23	3,90	0,38			
	3. 4 – 6	55	4,00	0,43			
	4. 7 – 9	34	3,92	0,57			
	5. 10 – 15	29	3,93	0,45			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,14	0,61			
	7. Over 20 years	34	4,00	0,51			
Sportsmanship	1. Less than 1 year	11	3,89	0,65	1,99	0,07	-
	2. 1 – 3	23	3,72	0,66			
	3. 4 – 6	55	3,89	0,58			
	4. 7 – 9	34	4,03	0,51			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,22	0,54			
	6. 16 – 20	12	3,90	0,68			
	7. Over 20 years	34	3,91	0,55			
Civil virtue	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,21	0,56	1,33	0,25	-
	2. 1 – 3	23	3,77	0,73			
	3. 4 – 6	55	3,93	0,50			
	4. 7 – 9	34	3,78	0,70			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,01	0,59			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,11	0,72			
	7. Over 20 years	34	3,83	0,60			
Total points	1. Less than 1 year	11	4,29	0,30	2,08	0,06	-
	2. 1 – 3	23	3,98	0,38			
	3. 4 – 6	55	4,13	0,36			
	4. 7 – 9	34	4,08	0,41			
	5. 10 – 15	29	4,24	0,38			
	6. 16 – 20	12	4,31	0,42			
	7. Over 20 years	34	4,07	0,35			

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference in terms of altruism, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score average depending on the type of task ($p > 0.05$). There was a significant difference in scrupulousness scores

depending on professional seniority ($p < 0.05$). The mean scrupulousness scores of the participants in the “16-20” age group were significantly higher than those of the “1-3” age group.

Table 20. OC Score Means, Standard Deviations and ANOVA Results According to the Status of Social Responsibility Studies

Variables	Are there any social responsibility activities in your institution?	N	\bar{X}	Ss	F	p
Altruism	Yes	106	4,44	0,48	0,40	0,67
	No	17	4,35	0,68		
	Partially done	75	4,47	0,51		
Scrupulousness	Yes	106	4,39	0,39	0,02	0,98
	No	17	4,37	0,66		
	Partially done	75	4,39	0,40		
Kindness	Yes	106	4,01	0,45	0,36	0,70
	No	17	3,92	0,32		
	Partially done	75	3,97	0,54		
Sportsmanship	Yes	106	3,90	0,61	0,90	0,41
	No	17	3,93	0,59		
	Partially done	75	4,02	0,55		
Civil virtue	Yes	106	3,88	0,60	0,40	0,67
	No	17	3,84	0,77		
	Partially done	75	3,96	0,61		
Total points	Yes	106	4,12	0,36	0,11	0,89
	No	17	4,11	0,43		
	Partially done	75	4,15	0,39		

When the table is examined, there is no significant difference between the means of altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score, depending on the status of social responsibility studies in the institution ($p > 0.05$). OCB scores of the participants who stated that social responsibility projects were done, not done and partially done were not differentiated.

H2: There is a relationship between organizational social responsibility and organizational citizenship in terms of demographic variables

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this study, it is aimed to obtain information about the dimensions and effects of the application of the effect of employees perception of CSR on OCB in a municipality. In particular, municipality, which aim to produce services to the citizens, are expected to believe in their employees commitment to the institution and act as a citizen of that institution in order to create a healthy satisfaction. If employees have a good sense of CSR in

the municipality where they work, it can be expected to mention their OC towards the organization. As a result of this empirical study on the effect of employees perception of CSR on OCB, information was provided on the dimensions of the relationship between OCB and the social responsibility perception of the organization.

In this study, data were collected for the employees of a municipality from the central districts of Konya using a questionnaire. The main population of the study consists of full-time employees in the relevant district municipality. The sample of the total study was determined easily by using sampling technique. Data were collected from 250 volunteers who participated in the survey. After completing the missing questionnaires, 206 questionnaires were taken into consideration in the study. Nuray Yılmaz Sert's to questions 6-18 of the questions in the survey "Corporate Social Responsibility and Investigation of Relationship Activism: Private Sector in Turkey, Corporate Social Responsibility and Activism Relevance" was created adapted from his work. The questions 19-37 were adapted from Özge Turhan's "The Mediating Role of Loneliness in Organizational Life in the Effect of Emotional Labor on Organizational Citizenship: A Research". Questions 38 and 39 were adapted from Bülent Aydın's "Effects of Organizational Communication on Employee Job Satisfaction and OCB". Since the reliability and validity analyzes have already been carried out in these studies, there is no need to carry out Factor Analysis on this subject. Approximately 50 percent of the subjects are between the ages of 31-40 and 80% of them have male, associate and license level education level above 70%. As expected, almost 70% are administrative and technical personnel. 27.7% of the subjects have 4-6 years, 16.5% of them have 7-9 years, 16.0% of

them have 10-15 years working in the institution.

Since the coefficients are within ± 1 range, it is seen that the data have normal distribution. Within the scope of the research, independent sample t test was used to compare the gender and the status of social responsibility projects in the institution. One-way analysis of variance was used to compare age, educational status, task type and working time. In the analysis of variance, Scheffe multiple comparison test was used to determine the source of the difference. The relationship between the scores obtained from the scales was examined using Pearson correlation analysis technique. Data were analyzed using SPSS 25.0.

In the study, CSR scores and altruism ($r = 0.485$; $p < 0.01$), scrupulousness ($r = 0.375$; $p < 0.01$), kindness ($r = 0.126$; $p > 0.01$), sportsmanship ($r = 0.252$); $p < 0,01$), civil virtue ($r = 0,327$; $p < 0,01$) and total score ($r = 0,382$; $p < 0,01$). As OCB scores increased, CSR scores also increased.

In hypothesis H1, it was found that there is a positive relationship between employees perception of OC and their levels of CSR. There is no significant difference between the H2 hypothesis, altruism, scrupulousness, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score averages related to the status of social responsibility studies in the institution ($p > 0.05$).

OCB scores of the participants who stated that social responsibility projects were done, not done and partially done were not differentiated.

Similarly, in the H2 hypothesis, there is a significant difference in the mean scores of CSR depending on professional seniority ($p < 0.05$). According to the results of Scheffe test, the average score of CSR of the participants with a professional seniority of 16-20 years, was significantly higher than that of the participants with a professional seniority of 7-9 years.

In this hypothesis, there is no significant difference in conscience scores depending on educational status ($p > 0.05$). However, there was a significant difference in the mean scores of altruism, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score ($p < 0.05$). According to the results of Scheffe test, the mean scores of high school, associate, license and master's degree were significantly higher than those of middle school graduates. On the other hand, the average courtesy and civil virtue scores of the middle school, high school and associate degree graduates were significantly higher than those of the master's degree. On the other hand, there was no significant difference in terms of altruism, kindness, sportsmanship, civil virtue and total score ($p > 0.05$). There was a significant difference in scrupulousness scores depending on professional seniority ($p < 0.05$). The mean scrupulousness scores of the participants in the "16-20" age group were significantly higher than those of the "1-3" age group.

As a result of the study, the following suggestions can be put forward:

- The criteria specified in the service sector may not be the same as those required in the industrial sector. Therefore, if the study is carried out considering the characteristics of each sector, it may be possible to achieve more effective and efficient results.

- If CSR is given importance in the corporate sense, the perception of OC becomes even better. It leads to a positive perception. This is expected to reduce employee turnover rate and will have a positive effect on organizational commitment as well as individual satisfaction.

- The effect of these variables on employee turnover rate can be investigated in academic studies.

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SECTORAL EFFECTS OF IPARD SUPPORTS: EXAMPLE OF KONYA MILK SECTOR

¹Prof. Dr. Orhan Çoban, ²Ayşe Çoban

¹Department of Economics, ²Department of Logistic, Selcuk University, Turkey

¹ocoban@selcuk.edu.tr, ²acoban@selcuk.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to analyze the sectoral effects of IPARD funds based on the Konya dairy sector. In this context, the impacts of these supports at the micro level at the enterprise level and at the macro scale at the economic, environmental, institutionalization, technological and socio-cultural dimensions were discussed. The population of the research consists of enterprises benefiting from IPARD support in Konya Dairy Sector since 2011 and TKDK employees who have worked in IPARD support. Within this scope, IPARD support has been provided to 84 out of 137 Dairy Producing Agricultural Enterprises and 9 out of 21 Dairy and Dairy Businesses which have applied to IPARD support since 2011. As can be seen from these data, the universe of the study consists of 84 enterprises operating in the milk sector in 22 districts of Konya. SPSS and E-Views were used in the analysis.

cooperation has increased. When the opinions of the employees involved in the IPARD support were analyzed, it was determined that the objectives of the projects were achieved and they achieved significant gains.

Keywords: Rural Development Policies, European Union, IPARD.

INTRODUCTION

According to the results of the analysis, 56% of the surveyed enterprises have limited company status. 67% of these enterprises defined themselves as a family business. When the number of employees is taken into consideration, it has been determined that the enterprises subject to the field study have micro enterprise status. After IPARD support, employment, production and technology level of the enterprises increased as well as the use of tractors, technical knowledge level in production, access to technical knowledge and input usage. It has been determined that the income, number of animals, variety of plant products, milk production, milk sales, investments, credit usage and credit demands have increased due to IPARD projects. It has been determined that immigration has decreased due to IPARD projects and that the desire to organize and the awareness of establishing

Rural development is a difficult and tedious process for countries. The ability to speak of collective rural development depends on changing the behavior and habits of individuals. It will be very difficult to prevent migration from rural to urban, which is one of the human behaviors of individuals, unless it increases the living standards and income level of the rural people. In addition, anarchy and terrorism, which is the biggest

problem caused by rural-urban imbalance, can be opened. Indeed, there is a long time in Turkey and also one of the major causes of the terrorism problem causing the loss of many lives and property, is not providing enough rural development. In short, it will be difficult to reach the desired level in rural development if the social and psychological aspects of these policies are neglected, considering rural development as a problem that can be solved only as a result of material economic policies to be implemented - raising the income level, improving the agricultural sector and increasing the contribution to the economy. What is expected with rural development is to create villagers who can benefit from the opportunities of urban life while preserving their own cultural values in their village and thus eliminate the differences between village and city.

Since the general activity of the rural population is low value-added activities such as agriculture, animal husbandry and fisheries, the general life and income levels of this population are low. Therefore, countries are implementing rural development policies in order to reduce the rural-urban imbalance. Currently, immigration and terrorism as the problem of Turkey maintains its place in the first row. Failure to implement an effective rural development policy is seen as one of the most important causes of problems such as terrorism. In this context, the development differences between rural and urban areas, modernization efforts in the process of economic and social development emerge as a result of industrialization and economic transformation. Turkey in particular rural development speed could not catch the urban growth rate in the said period. The most important reasons are; The transformation of the Turkish economy in favor of the service and industrial sector and the migration from rural to urban areas. Namely; Turkey in

1927 to 75.8% in the waist of the population in rural areas and villages namely, the 24.2% lived in urban areas; In 2016, the proportion of urban residents increased to 92.3%, while the proportion of rural residents decreased to 7.7% (TurkStat, 2017).

The development policies implemented in Turkey are generally "planned development policies" could be described as. It began in 1930 with the planned development policy in Turkey, especially the 5-year development plans have been prepared since 1963. In this context, support agricultural practices in Turkey have been applied for many years for different purpose and scope. as to assist in resolving the structural problems permanently on the wrong understanding and application support Turkey's rural development has caused problems even to increase exponentially. Especially in 2005 with the start of Turkey's EU full membership negotiations on issues of rural development, it has now been conferred a special importance in terms of integration into the European Union. In this context, new for Turkey and rural development to help order the Regional Development Agency for the project call in the context of financial support programs, problems with the site identifying and resolving focused on decentralization concept, when used effectively as from political concerns may make important contributions to the development of rural development. Won in 2005 the European Union candidate country status of Turkey, on the one hand, the rural-urban imbalance in the harmonization process should pay attention to this unity has become one of the most important issues. Approximately 90% of the European Union is rural and 56% of the population lives in rural areas. Approximately 77% of rural areas are agriculture and forestry. This has led to the particular importance of rural development within the Union. In

addition, the fact that rural development activities enable the development of a small scale local infrastructure linking the rural communities with the large investments to be made within the scope of regional and cohesion policies shows that rural development policies are in fact related to multidimensional and ongoing policies such as energy, transportation and environment. Turkey's level of development in rural areas compared with European Union countries are in need of substantial improvement (Gülçubuk et al., 2010: 4-5).

Turkey began full membership negotiations with the European Union since 2005. The ninth development plan covering the years 2007–2013 has focused particularly on rural development. Rural development action plan was prepared in the ninth development plan. This plan emphasized that rural development should be achieved not only in the agricultural and regional areas, but also in the environment, culture, energy, education, industry and trade. The European Commission has collected the financial assistance to the candidate countries in the period 2007-2013 under a program called pre-accession financial assistance (IPA). This program; Transition assistance and institutional capacity are cross-border cooperation, regional development, human resource development and rural development. The IPARD program is a fund allocated to the candidate countries by the European Union. Turkey is foreseen to benefit from this development funds for the 2007-2013 period. In this context, Turkey is divided into 1,165 million euros a share. Agriculture and Rural Development Support Agency (ARDSI-TKDK in Turkish), the European Union and the Republic of Turkey, carried out in accession negotiations, "Agriculture and Rural Development entitled" the 11th chapter, facilities available to the Rural Development funds allocated in the pre-accession process for rural development.

The ARDSI, which had the authority to use the funds in 2011 due to the late completion of the accreditation process, has brought an investment of TL 4.6 billion (approximately EUR 940 million) to the national economy in a 4-year period. Referring to the figures, Turkey's annual agricultural support under IPARD is 4 times the amount given 4 years. Therefore, it would be efficient to analyze IPARD funds at the point of effectiveness rather than financial support figures.

ARDSI support has gained importance in four areas. These; local dynamics, self-financing, development of project culture and sustainable development. In order to mobilize local dynamics through ARDSI support and to increase the number of project applications, meetings were held in all districts, meetings were held with agricultural chambers and calls for support through newspaper advertisements. ARDSI supports are not 100% grants but 50-65% of the project is supported. Therefore, the remaining part is met by the project owners / beneficiaries. Here, the self-funding situation of the project owners is very important for the sustainability of the project. Therefore, the financial analyzes made at the application stage have an important steering power in terms of supporting the support to the beneficiaries who are able to sustain the projects. In this way, the biggest problem of Turkey's agricultural support "can be converted to the problem of investment support" has made significant progress in resolving points. In order to benefit from IPARD funds, beneficiaries have to prepare projects with detailed information. It also investors in Turkey "project culture" is a critical point in the formation point. ARDSI has the authority to audit the investments for 5 years after the completion of the investments. This has been a driving force in terms of sustainability of investments. IPARD funds have played a leading role in

ensuring the sustainable development of rural development.

In 2011, ARDSI started IPARD support in 42 provinces with rural development assistance, 4 main measures and 11 different sub-measures. In the dairy sector there are two measures implemented in IPARD. These; "Milk and Dairy Products Processing and Marketing" and "Milk Producing Agricultural Enterprises". IPARD supports the long-term goals of the dairy processing sector, where there are a significant number of small and medium-sized milk processing plants, and aims to achieve strict quality and hygiene control across all processing lines. One of the most important issues of IPARD is the development of a systematic cold chain management throughout the milk collection, processing and marketing chain. Rural development component, which is the 5th Component of IPA, supports harmonization preparations and policy development for the implementation and management of the common agricultural policy, rural development policy and related policies of the European Union. allocated to Turkey under the rural development component "IPARD" in the exercise of funding from Agriculture and Rural Development Support Agency was established in 2008. Approximately three-year accreditation (authorization for the use of funds) since 2011. After a period of IPARD funds opened for use in rural development and an important move in Turkey point is provided. Within the scope of IPARD supports, a minimum of 50,000 Euros and a maximum of 3,000,000 Euros were granted to milk processing plants. In addition, at least 25.000 Euro and a maximum of 1.000.000 Euro grant has been given to milk collection centers. This study, the first rural development and will focus on the importance, after then referred to the rural development policy implemented in Turkey since the removal of devolution in 2011 by TKDK supported

and its impact on rural development of the project life will be evaluated.

Rural Development, Importance of Rural Development and IPARD Funds

The concept of rural development is a concept that emerged at the beginning of the 19th century and has survived to the present day in parallel with the changes in the international arena. Rural development in its most general definition; These are the studies for improving the environmental conditions that bring negativities to human life. In a broad sense, rural development is a process in which rural societies are transformed into advanced society status, and this process will be realized step by step. A rural development period will start with the diagnosis and identification of the problems in the rural area. Then, planning studies are carried out in which the best alternative for the solution of these problems is selected and the way of intervention to the rural structure is determined. The prepared plans and projects are put into the application area and execution is carried out. During the implementation process, monitoring is made and the rural development period is evaluated with the monitoring values collected (UN, 2017). When it comes to rural development, it is generally the first agricultural sector that comes to mind. Rural development no longer only involves sectoral approach or agricultural development, although we cannot distinguish these two facts. Development instead of growth, sharing instead of production, marketing instead of sales, local development instead of national scale, different society dynamics instead of homogenous society structure are increasingly coming to the fore. Therefore, in a globalizing world, rural development policies also change and turn into common "policies with a functional and integrated approach that includes agriculture and non-agricultural sectors for the welfare of

the rural society” (Gülçubuk et al., 2010: 9-10).

The rapid increase in the world population and the depletion of natural resources lead human beings to understand the importance of effective use of limited resources, one of the problems that economics has to solve. Using natural resources effectively will be possible by increasing their productivity and realizing the investments made for people. The efficient use of human capital becomes even more important in countries in the transition period from agriculture to industry. Increasing the efficiency of human capital will be possible by increasing their social and economic welfare levels. This has led mankind to understand the fine line between rural and urban. The relationship between the countryside and the city left humanity face to face with the problem of development. At this point, besides “general development”, “village development” has brought the problem of “rural development” to the agenda with a more general expression. Various approaches for rural development in the world and Turkey has been developed and implemented. Since the 1750s, the national income of Western European countries, where the revolution emerged, increased significantly. The difference between the countries that realized the revolution about 250 years after the industrial revolution and the countries that could not realize the revolution increased. In this context, the foreign trade revolution developed in favor of the countries and the development differences between the countries increased rapidly. The economies of developing countries are based on agriculture. While most of the population is engaged in agriculture, the agricultural sector has the biggest share in national income. In this context, it is important to place agricultural development at the center of rural development. A sustainable and balanced

development can be achieved through investments in other sectors (Gürlük, 2001: 2-3).

In the light of all this, rural development gains importance on the basis of optimizing socio-cultural and economic differences between urban and rural areas, developing rural population in situ, in other words, solving migration and employment problems. Looking at the main purpose of rural development policies, it will be seen that there are policies aiming to improve the economic, social and cultural opportunities of rural communities. The main objectives of these policies are to ensure that the rural people take part in the development and welfare of the country, and the destruction of poverty and malnutrition in the rural areas.

Countries wishing to join the European Union have many pre-accession assistance instruments, which are applied to the non-adaptive sectors. One of them is the IPARD program implemented in Turkey. IPA Rural Development Program for Turkey (IPARD) priorities and needs in the context of pre-accession rural development in the country has been prepared taking into consideration the period. European Union contribution to the budget foreseen for IPARD 873.9 million euros, while Turkey in this framework, Turkey's contribution is 291 million euros. Therefore, the total IPARD budget is 1.165 billion Euros (TKB, 2007: 26-27).

The Agriculture and Rural Development Support Institution (ARDSI, TKDK in Turkish), which was established in 2007, has been tasked with implementing IPARD following its establishment. The purpose of the establishment of the institution is to carry out activities for the implementation of rural development programs, including the resources provided by the European Union and national institutions, within the framework of the principles and objectives envisaged in the national development

plans, programs and strategies. In IPARD, 42 provinces were included in the scope of support, and support programs were implemented in two phases in these provinces. Phase 1 provinces are 20 and started supporting activities in 2011. In the 2nd Phase determined in 2012, 22 provinces were included and they started their first project call with the 9th Call in 2013. The provinces where IPARD supports are applied are shown in Table-1.

Table- 1: Provinces where IPARD Supports are Applied

Afyonkarahisar	Balıkesir	Diyarbakır	Kahramanmaraş	Manisa	Sivas
Ağrı	Burdur	Elazığ	Karaman	Mardin	Şanlıurfa
Aksaray	Bursa	Erzincan	Kars	Mersin	Tokat
Amasya	Çanakkale	Erzurum	Kastamonu	Muş	Trabzon
Ankara	Çankırı	Giresun	Konya	Nevşehir	Uşak
Ardahan	Çorum	Hatay	Kütahya	Ordu	Van
Aydın	Denizli	Isparta	Malatya	Samsun	Yozgat

Source: TKDK, 2015.

Some criteria have been determined in the selection of the provinces in Table-1. These criteria, GDP value (below 75% of the average of Turkey), migration weak in terms of value and potential of the agricultural sector and rural areas of the city and strengths are. In the first phase it has been evaluated identified the poorest provinces of Turkey. In this context, the provinces are grouped according to the criteria of having a GDP of less than 75% (1,432 Euros) of GDP per capita (1,910 Euros). GDP is less than 75% of the average 43 Turkey listed. Later, these provinces were ranked according to the increase in foreign migration rates. This process provided a priority ranking for these provinces for their disadvantaged situations. In the second stage, 43

provinces were evaluated according to their agricultural potential. During the evaluation of the agricultural potential of the provinces; The production potential of 43 provinces in the meat, dairy, fruit and vegetable and fisheries sectors, their performances and sustainability in the agricultural production and processing sector, the weaknesses and needs of agricultural enterprises and companies to reach the Community standards were evaluated. In addition, the capacity of the provinces for the activities determined under the measure of diversification of economic activities was also analyzed. As a result of this analysis, 23 provinces with high agricultural potential were identified among 43 provinces. In the third stage, 20 additional provinces were selected. In

order to make geographic focus on programming of IPARD; Besides the importance of the disadvantaged conditions of the provinces, the agricultural potential has also been an important parameter. IPARD primarily with high potential in selected agricultural sector but GDP per capita is above 75% of the average of Turkey, 20 additional yl, were included in the scope IPARD. In the final stage, in 20 provinces with a high agricultural potential, development and excluding the highest provincial income potential, location of the agricultural potential and GDP per capita of Turkey provinces were included in the program which is below the 75% of the average (TKB, 2007: 166- 167).

Among the selected provinces, in the first implementation period of the IPARD program, applications were started only in 20 provinces in order to develop experience and capacity, and in the second implementation period of the program, 20 and 22 more provinces were added and 42 provinces were included in the scope of IPARD Program.

LITERATURE

Can and Esengün (2007) study, the IPARD program of Turkey's agricultural sector and rural areas are said to be the solution to all problems of life. In addition, it is emphasized that the IPARD support for agriculture and rural areas are in place and effective use of Turkey is necessary. The effective use of supports depends on the realization of the needs analysis, the sound foundation of the institutional structure that will operate the implementation mechanism and the determination of the planning according to the need.

Işık and Baysal (2011) discussed in their studies that raising the standard of living and increasing their income is one of the most basic problems of the

countries, since the societies living in rural areas around the world are more limited than those living in the city, and therefore, different policy searches for rural development are brought up. This policy search started with the Common Agricultural Policy (CAP) in the European Union in the 1950s and continued with the rural development programs applied to the candidate countries. In Turkey, rural development policy has been emerging as a factor to be considered along with the five-year development plans, in this context, as in the last seven-year development plan covering the years 2007-2013 focuses on the seriousness of the issue. Turkey conducts negotiations with the EU when compared to the developed countries of the European Union to become a full member as in many other indicators, it is a reality that was quite backward in terms of rural development indicators. As a matter of fact, considering the figures on a few basic indicators related to the issue, according to 2008 data, the country with the highest proportion of the rural population to the total population is Romania with 45.76%, followed by Poland with 38.7%. seen. Turkey comes after the two countries in terms of the indicators mentioned by 31.3%. France and the Netherlands 18.2%, respectively, and they're better than the rate in Turkey with 22.6%. The agricultural added value in Turkey in 2008. Gross Domestic Product (GDP) or rate was about 8.64%, said that improved the ratio of the agricultural sector by about 1.7% in the Netherlands, while in France is approximately 2%. According to data from 2008, 26.2% of total employment in Turkey when operating in the agricultural sector, this rate of 2.7% in the Netherlands, while France is 3%. This basic indicator referred to in order to capture the standards of developed countries of the European Union that Turkey needs to do a lot of work clearly demonstrates.

TEPAV (2012), with the “Analysis of Structural Properties and Determination of Competitive Strategies in Agricultural Industry” project, to increase the competitiveness of the region and to increase the competitiveness of the region through the existing data evaluation and field studies made especially in the Konya region, on the basis of product groups that are members of the Konya Commodity Exchange (KTB). It aimed to develop strategic approaches that would accelerate development. For this purpose, 10 sectors of KTB (seed, cereals, pulses, feed, milk and eggs, flour, livestock traders, butchers, raw leather and fleece, other) have been dumped, and flour production critical to Konya and milk and milk Detailed analyzes were carried out in the production of products. This report includes detailed analyzes for the dairy industry.

Sert et al. (2013) states that the livestock sector is an increasingly important sector in the world in terms of economic, social and political importance. In addition, animal husbandry, which meets the important needs of people, especially foodstuffs such as meat, milk and eggs, is one of the important sub-sectors of agriculture. So much so that in many countries including European Union countries, the share of livestock sector within total agricultural income generally varies between 30-50%. Meat and milk, which are largely made from beef, are processed into many products, adding depth to both the nutrition area and the economy in all its dimensions. Drinking milk, butter, yogurt, sausage, bacon, etc. The importance of milk and meat for the economy can be more easily understood if the products and their variety and phases until they are consumed are considered. Dairy and dairy products industry, which has a 15% production value in the food industry, is an extremely important sub-sector in terms of the fact that milk contains many nutrients in its composition

and is an essential nutrient that should be consumed in every stage of human life, as well as the added value it provides to the national economy.

Unal and Fidan (2014), for which Turkey is an important issue for the agricultural sector in the social dimension, as well as economic, reported a healthy support program cannot be implemented. In this context, in our study, it was aimed to examine the efficiency of agricultural supports provided by European Union funds. A European Union funds to the economy after the implementation of IPARD in Turkey and its impact on agriculture by taking in Kutahya Turkey, for example, is to investigate the efficacy of such programs compared to traditional agricultural support. Agricultural support issue; Besides its effects on dairy cattle, broiler and medicinal and aromatic plant breeding, its contribution to agricultural education is discussed in dimensions. As a result of the study, it was found that IPARD application produced successful outputs in the supporting titles examined. Thus, if implemented correctly it said that the agricultural support Turkey can bring lasting solutions to the structural problems in agriculture. Working in the field of agriculture which have a vital importance for Turkey, regarding the process of implementing the structural transformation includes results can contribute in the size of agricultural subsidies.

Aras and Köseoğlu (2015), milk sector in Turkey and Konya is a sector which is growing every year because of the close relationship and that depend on the agricultural sector, the raw material suppliers emphasizes that it has a twofold significance. It also states that with the added value it creates, it is one of the sectors that are especially important for rural and regional development. population growth experienced in the world and in Turkey in recent years has increased the production and consumption

of milk and milk products of economic development and transformation. Especially in developing countries like us, the increase in per capita income and population has increased the consumption of milk and dairy products, which is an important source of protein. Both Turkey and demand increases experienced in the world of milk and milk products was reflected in a positive way trade. This process paved the way for the support policies for the sector to increase and thus new investments in the national and international arena. Turkey required in terms of both production and raw milk production in dairy products is an important country in the world. World production trend experienced in the last 10 years in Turkey showed the effect of production of raw milk and dairy products in Turkey has experienced growth in the sector at a serious level. Implemented support policies and is the industry made significant investments required the presence of animals both in terms of raw milk production that Turkey has the potential to stand out in the world.

Aslan et al. (2016) stated in their study that the Agriculture and Rural Development Support Institution (ARDSI) used the grant granted under the Rural Development, the fifth component of the Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance. In 2012, TKDK Mardin Provincial Coordinator was established and started accepting projects in 2013. Contracts of 167 projects in total have been signed in the province of Mardin. Investments in the context of these contracts have benefited the development of sectors such as milk, meat and beekeeping. In addition, these investments had a positive impact on employment in Mardin.

Stojcheska et al. (2016) emphasized that rural development policy reforms and institutional arrangements are crucial for the Western Balkan countries, whose economies are highly dependent on

agriculture, to overcome transition challenges. The complex rural development context in these countries triggers the need to better understand and explain the factors affecting the use of rural development policy funds. Therefore, the aim of the study is to reveal how behavioral determinants and some socioeconomic characteristics affect farmers' willingness to apply for rural development support (RDS). The analysis part is based on the theory of planned behavior and structural equation modeling using agricultural survey data collected in Macedonia, Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2014. The results show that the success of RDS depends on farmers' basic psychological structures. Willingness to use RDS funds is stronger for farmers with positive attitudes (in all three countries), from the social setting (in Serbia and Bosnia and Herzegovina) and in higher perceived behavior control (in Bosnia and Herzegovina and Macedonia). In addition, although the impact of farm profitability on age, education and behavioral determinants is less pronounced, previous experience with applying RDS funds positively affects farmers' willingness to apply for RDS. In the study, it was stated that these three countries are at different levels in terms of using IPARD supports of national rural development policies. Although Macedonia has access to a more stable national rural development policy and IPARD funds, it has a very low level of support use (7%). Serbia usually allocates low-level funds from the budget for rural development measures and makes necessary institutional arrangements to take advantage of IPARD funds. Bosnia and Herzegovina does not have an agricultural and rural development policy at the national level.

METHODOLOGY

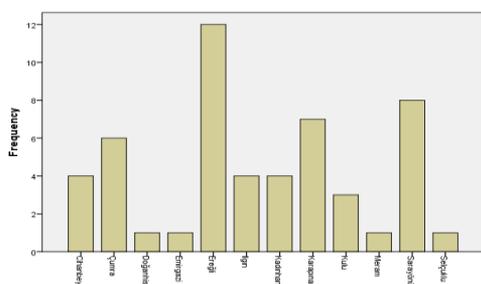
The most important aim of this project is to reveal the sectoral effects of IPARD supports based on the Konya Dairy Industry Case. In this context, our study is an impact assessment analysis. These analyzes add a quantitative dimension to the study. Based on this, a field study will be conducted in order to determine the effects of IPARD supports. For the field study, previously tested questionnaire forms will be used.

The universe of the research is the enterprises and IPARD employees who have benefited from IPARD supports in Konya Dairy Sector since 2011. It is addressed under two headings as Agricultural Enterprises and Milk and Dairy Products Processing and Marketing of milk sector in Konya. In this context, IPARD support has been provided to 84 of 137 Milk Producing Agricultural Enterprises that have applied to IPARD support since 2011, and to 9 of the establishments that have been processing and marketing 21 Milk and Dairy Products. As it can be understood from these data, the universe of our project constituted a total of 84 businesses operating in the dairy sector in 22 districts of Konya.

ANALYSIS RESULTS

In evaluating the results obtained from the survey analysis, the respondents of the survey were taken into consideration. The distribution of enterprises participating in the survey application by districts is given in Figure-1.

Figure- 1: Dairy Producer Companies Surveyed



According to Figure-1, the district with the highest number of surveys was Ereğli with 12 surveys. Ereğli was followed by Sarayönü with 8 surveys, Karapınar with 7 surveys and Çumra with 6 surveys.

When the positions of the respondents were analyzed, it was determined that 26 of the respondents were owners, 13 of them were partners, 4 of them were professional managers and 5 of them were in other positions, while 1 questionnaire was not answered.

When the education levels of the participants were examined, it was seen that 21 were university graduates, 14 were high school graduates, 6 were primary school graduates, and 4 were graduate education graduates. A total of 7 participants did not answer this question.

According to the information regarding the age groups of the respondents, 43% of the respondents are in the 36-46 age group, 31% in the 25-35 age group, 14% in the 47-57 age group and 12% in the 58-68 age group. When the genders of the survey were analyzed, it was determined that 48 of 52 participants were male and 3 were female and 1 question was not answered in 1 questionnaire.

When the professions of the respondents were analyzed, 30 declared that they are in Economist-Operator, 9 in Engineers, 5 in Other Social Sciences and 1 in Other Science and Other Health Sciences.

When the answers given to the question of the boundaries of the activities of the enterprises are analyzed, it is determined that 68% of them operate locally, 29% regionally and 3% nationally.

When the legal status of the companies that responded to the questionnaire was examined, it was seen that 56% of the companies participating in the survey were limited companies, 17% were joint stock companies, 14% were single-person businesses and 14% were operating in other ways.

When the company structures of the enterprises are analyzed, 35 of the respondents defined themselves as a family business. According to the answers given by the respondents to the question regarding the type of integration of the enterprise, it is seen that 67% of the enterprises operate as capital integration, 16% as capital-management integration and 14% as capital-market integration.

When the answers given by the enterprises regarding the capacity utilization rates are analyzed, 33% stated that they work with 81-90%, 29% 90% + and 17% work with less than 10% capacity. When the responses of the enterprises regarding their operating year are analyzed, 45% declared that they have been operating for 1-3 years, 28% for 10+ years and 24% for 4-6 years.

When the data on the number of employees of the enterprises are analyzed, it is determined that 77% of the employees employ 1-10 people and 21% employ 11-30 people. Accordingly, it can be said that the enterprises subject to field work have the status of micro enterprises. When the answers given to the question of whether there is a share of foreign capital or not, it is seen that 50 of 52 enterprises have no share of foreign capital in the working capital, while 2 enterprises do not answer this question. According to the answers given for determining the technology level of the enterprises, it was determined that 58% of the enterprises continue their activities with state-of-the-art technology, 29% with advanced technology and 14% with medium-level technology.

When the answers given to the question about whether the share of the R&D activities are allocated from the company's turnover, it is determined that 34% of the enterprises do not allocate any shares, and 21 of them share 1-2%. When the answers given to the question about whether they sell abroad or not are analyzed, 51 of the enterprises stated that they did not sell abroad, while only 1 of them sold less than

10%. When the data on the post-support production capacities of the enterprises were analyzed, it was determined that the number of enterprises with a capacity of 80-120 animals was 30, and the number of animals in the remaining enterprises was more than 120 heads. In this context, when the milk production amounts of the enterprises after analysis were analyzed, it was determined that the daily milk production of 41 enterprises that answered this question was 442533 liters.

When the responses regarding the technology used by the enterprises after IPARD support were analyzed, 65% of the enterprises after the support stated that they reached the latest technology, 17% advanced and 17% partially advanced technology. When the answers given to the questions regarding the marketing of the produced milk were examined, 35% of the enterprises surveyed stated that they sold their products to the producers' unions, 33% to the producers' unions and other companies, and 19% to other companies. When the answers given to the question regarding the supply of raw materials used in milk production are examined, it is determined that 33% of the enterprises themselves go to obtain raw materials by themselves, 31% by both their own means and from the outside. When the answers given to the question about what kind of contributions of businesses to the local economy after IPARD support were analyzed, it was found that 88% of them contributed to the local economy in the form of employment and production, 7% of employment and 5% of production.

Considering the blue and white collar separation after IPARD support, when employment data were examined, it was observed that 40 blue collar workers were employed in one enterprise and 20 in another enterprise, while the blue collar employment in other enterprises was less than 20. When the data on white collar employment is evaluated, it is seen that only 1 person in 20 firms and 54 people in

one business are employed in white collar status.

When the effect of IPARD projects on employment is examined, 39% of the enterprises declared that the employment definitely increased, 45% increased and 16% did not change. Accordingly, it can be stated that depending on IPARD projects, 84% of the enterprises experienced an increase in employment.

According to the answers given to the question about whether IPARD projects increase the number of tractors in the enterprises; It was determined that the number of tractors definitely increased in 25% of the enterprises, it increased in 37%, and it did not change in 15%. The rate of those who do not answer this question is 23%. When the impact of IPARD projects on agriculture income is analyzed, 15 of the enterprises stated that they definitely increased, 25% increased, 35% did not change and 4% decreased.

Whether there is a change in the number of animals depending on IPARD projects, 37% of the enterprises stated that the number of animals definitely increased, 49% increased and 14% did not change. Accordingly, depending on IPARD projects, it can be said that the number of animals increased in 86% of the enterprises.

Whether IPARD projects have an impact on herbal product diversity has been questioned; 19% of the enterprises stated that the variety of herbal products definitely increased, 37% increased and 44% did not change.

When the effect of IPARD projects on milk production is examined, 41% of the enterprises declared that the milk production definitely increased, 47% increased and 12% did not change depending on IPARD projects. From this point of view, it can be stated that as a result of IPARD projects, milk production increased in 88% of the enterprises. In this context, when the effects of projects on milk sales are analyzed; 38% of

enterprises stated that milk sales definitely increased, 40% increased and 22% did not change.

The impact of IPARD projects on investments has been examined, 33% of businesses declared that their investments have definitely increased, 43% have increased, 22% have not changed and 2% have decreased. In this context, when it is analyzed whether IPARD projects have an effect on loan usage or loan demands, 23% of enterprises declared that they definitely increased, 42% increased and 35% did not change.

The environmental impact dimension of IPARD projects is addressed under 5 subtitles. In this context, the impact of IPARD projects on the conscious use of water was examined, 24% of the enterprises stated that the conscious use of water increased, 38% increased and 38% did not change depending on the projects. In this context, when the effect of IPARD projects to use environmentally friendly technology is analyzed, 24% of enterprises stated that they definitely increased, 50% increased and 26% did not change. Similarly, when it was questioned whether the projects caused a change in environmental cleanliness, 31% of the enterprises stated that the environmental cleanliness understanding definitely increased, 55% increased and 14% did not change.

In the survey study, it is discussed whether there is a change in institutionalization depending on IPARD projects in the company's subject to analysis. In this context, the impact of projects on the application of new information has been examined, and 35% of enterprises think that the implementation of new information has definitely increased, 57% have increased and 8% have not changed. In this context, 96% of enterprises state that communication with new institutions and organizations has increased, while 92%

think that the demand for new enterprises has increased.

Discussion and Conclusion

The differences in development and prosperity that arise between regions in terms of country economies not only have economic effects, but also bring along some social and political problems. In this context, rural development programs are the most frequently used method in reducing regional development disparities. A number of plans and programs are made by various institutions and organizations on rural development. One of these institutions is the European Union. It offers various funds and grants under different headings in order to reduce or eliminate regional development disparities in the European Union member and candidate countries. One of them since 2011. Turkey has implemented IPARD support. In this study, it is aimed to analyze the effects of IPARD supports given based on Konya province. Konya dairy sector sample was taken into consideration in the analysis.

Two different questionnaire forms were used within the scope of the analyzes. While the data obtained from 52 companies that benefited from the IPARD support in the Konya dairy sector were taken into consideration in the first one, the opinions of the employees who took part in IPARD support were sought in the second.

The IPARD-II program, which is the continuation of the IPARD-I program currently under implementation, covering the period 2014-2020, was officially approved by the European Commission on 27 January 2015. Within the IPARD-II program, 1 Billion 45 Million Euros (3 Billion TL) grant will be used. In the light of the experience gained within the scope of IPARD-I, evaluation of IPARD-II funds will undoubtedly have positive effects on rural development.

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EXPLORATION OF CHIEFTAINCY SUCCESSION DISPUTES IN GONJALAND: A STUDY OF THEIR MANIFESTATIONS IN THE BOLE TRADITIONAL AREA

¹Dr. David Suaka Yaro, ²Tseer Tobias, ³Dr. Adams Sulemana Achanso

^{1,3}*Department of Development Education Studies, ²Department of Social, Historic and
Political Studies, University for Development Studies, Ghana*

¹*davidsuaka37@gmail.com, ²christ4me002@gmail.com, ³dr.aadams@uds.edu.gh*

ABSTRACT

The once cohesive Kingdom of Gonja has now become a host to many chieftaincy succession disputes. It is this situation that triggered the investigation of the sources of the disputes and their manifestations particularly in the Bole Traditional Area of the Kingdom. To achieve the objectives of the investigation, a pragmatic research philosophy was adopted and deductive and inductive theory approaches developed for the investigation. A mixed method design was employed where both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, using questionnaire and interview guide. The primary data was complemented by extensive literature review on chieftaincy succession disputes in Ghana and Africa as a whole. The data was processed using content analysis and the Statistical Package for Social Solution (SPSS). The results revealed that the main sources of the conflicts were the commodification of thrones, desire to control resources and political influence. The investigation also revealed that the manifestation of the conflicts in the Bole Traditional Area was a result of power struggle between the current Yagbonwura, Tuntumba Boresa I, and the then Bolewura, Awuladese Pontonprong I. The effects of the dispute include division among the people,

avoidance of social functions and disloyalty to the Yagbonwura. Some of the recommendations are the need for the central government, political parties, the Bole District Assembly and all stakeholders to show a high sense of morality by refraining from the exploitation of ethnic sentiments for electoral favours and a reduction of the role and power of the chief so that calculated risk of perpetuating chieftaincy violence will become greater than their “pay-off.

Keywords: Ghana, Gonja Kingdom, Yagbonwura, Chieftaincy, Disputes

INTRODUCTION

As observed by Adiyaye and Misawa (2006), the chieftaincy institution in Ghana and Africa at large has played pivotal role in economic and social development of African communities. Its adoption for the execution of the Colonial Indirect Rule policy by the British is a proof of the institution’s vitality since time immemorial. The chieftaincy institution has survived the wave of change that is characteristic of modern, post-modern and contemporary period driven by advancement in technology and scientific knowledge. Odotei (2010) observes that

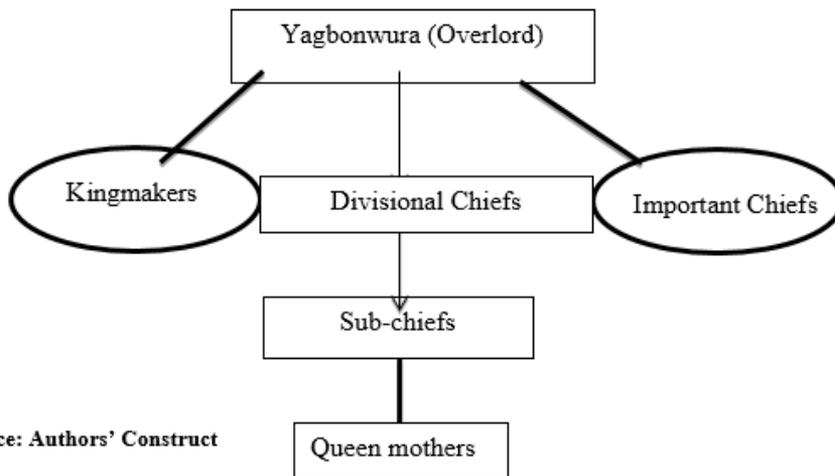
till date, chiefs act as mouth piece between their subjects and the central government, excise maximum control over land under their jurisdiction, and make vital contribution to governance and administration in Africa.

Chieftaincy is not valued any less in Ghana. The position of chiefs is guaranteed under the Fourth Republican Constitution of 1992. Article 270(1) of the 1992 Constitution of Ghana upholds the institution of chieftaincy together with its traditional councils as established by customary law and usage. Article 277 of the 1992 Constitution defines a chief as ‘a person who hailing from the appropriate family and lineage, has been validly nominated, elected or selected, enstooled, and enskinned or installed as a chief or queen mother in accordance with the relevant customary law and usage. Chiefs in Ghana wield a lot of powers. They have great control over the people and resources within their jurisdiction. It is, therefore, no

surprise that people fight to get installed as chiefs.

The powerful nature of the Gonja Kingdom makes their kings and chiefs equally powerful within the northern territories of Ghana and beyond. The Gonja kingdom has an overlord who is the Yagbonwura, and the final adjudicator in disputes resolution in the Kingdom. He is often supported by nine kingmakers and five divisional chiefs who are often referred to as important chiefs. There are also sub-chiefs who assist the divisional chiefs to rule the divisions and their respective areas of jurisdiction. The sub-chiefs who are overseers of villages within the Kingdom are also supported by queen mothers who are enskinned alongside their male counterparts (GLYA 2013). Figure 1.1 presents the structure of traditional chiefs in the Gonja Kingdom at a glance.

Figure 1:1 The Structure of the Chieftaincy Institution in the Gonja Kingdom.



BACKGROUND

According to Braimah (1967), the Gonja ethnic group is one of the groups that have had their history recorded by

Muslim scholars who accompanied them to modern Ghana. Wilks (1751) found out that the Gonjas migrated from the ancient Songhai Empire when the empire was at the heights of its power many years before

the Hijra 1000. Juwula (2010) indicates that the Gonjas, formerly referred to as the Mandingos, entered modern Ghana in 1546. Wilks (1751) points out that when the Mandingos exuded the Songhai Empire, they headed northwards into modern day Ghana under the leadership of Askia Mohammed who ruled them for over three decades and later handed the throne to his direct son, Musa Askia, in 1528 due to ill health. The genesis of Mussa Askia's rule was met with some resistance from another Askia Mohammed's son, Ismail Askia.

The struggle for power between these two created civil unrests in the Kingdom, which were the first of many to come (Braumah 1976). Askia Mohammed, though was still alive, could not do much to settle the unrest caused by his two sons due to declining health. Braimah (1976) indicates that the instability continued up to the reign of Landa in 1546-1594. After Landa, Wam reigned for nineteen years from 1595 to 1615 then followed by Amoah from 1615 to 1634 and Lanta Limu, the father of Ndewura Jakpa, who reigned between 1634 and 1675 and later abdicated for his son, Ndewura Jakpa, who reigned from 1675 to 1697 (Braumah 1972). Juwula (2010) notes that Ndewura Jakpa led the troops and expeditionary forces into various battles against Safalba, Brifor and Vagla in the present-day territories of Northern Ghana where they fought and conquered the people, took over their territories in where it is now called the Bole-Bamboi area. Goody (1967) found out that, after recording huge successes in the Bole area, the forces moved eastwards and conquered Dagombas in Daboya where they established a camp for their forces whence, they free the area of other inhabitants, such as the Konkonbas, Nawuris and Chumburus.

Japowura (2010) points out that Ndewura Jakpa, the founder of the modern day Gonja Kingdom, continued his

conquest spree to nearby territories and installed his sons in the areas he conquered as sub-chiefs. These territories are now known as divisions in the Gonja Kingdom. These divisions which have survived ethnic conflicts, European rule and even modern governance are Wasipe, Kpembe, Bole, Tulwe, Kong, Kandia and Kusawgu. To this day, the paramount chiefs who head these divisions refer to the YagbonWura as their father and overlord of the Gonja Kingdom.

Burukum (2006) found out that the Gonja kingship system started with seven ruling divisions but was later reduced to five after Kong and Kandia were expelled from the kingship. Goody (1967) notes that the expulsion was due to the fact that Yagbonwura Nyantakyi, who ascended the throne from Kong in collaboration with his brother, Kandiawura, employed the services of Samori, a slave raider, to fight the people of Bole and its surrounding villages with his forces when he (Yagbonwura Nyantakyi) had a misunderstanding with the chief of Bole. Braimah (1967) notes that the Gonja kingdom is federated since the various divisions are semi-autonomous. Thus, matters are handled in the various divisions and where people are dissatisfied, they are free to seek the jurisdiction of the Paramourty. According to Jon (2007), this arrangement works perfectly in the beginning until late 1878 when the Yagbong seat became unpopular because the Yagbonwura lost authority over the federating divisions. Therefore, the Yagbonwura could only depend on the help of his house hold for his farm works as the divisional chiefs from the five divisions became rather non cooperative and neither supply food to the king nor supply him with labor. Alhassan (2011) corroborates this when he indicates that even taxes collected were not sent to the Yagbonwura as it used to be.

One would wonder why the Yagbonwura suddenly lost the support of

his sub-chiefs from the five divisions. Tonah (2012) says it was simply because the Yagbonwura at that time was not the rightful person to be there. He became the Yagbonwura because of the refusal of chiefs from Kpembe, Kusawgu, Wasipe and Tulwe to ascend to the Yagbon skin when it was their turn to do so. They never wanted to leave the comfort of their homes and areas of jurisdiction to settle in Nyange near Sawla in the present day Sawla-Tuna-Kalba District, which was the seat of the Yagbon Kingdom as at that time and happened to be a very small village. The Yagbon throne remained unpopular until Yagbonwura Mahama Dangbonga took over the throne in 1912 (Braimah et al, 1969). On ascending throne in 1912, Yagbonwura Mahama moved to Zugu near Kusawgu which is virtually centrally placed within the Gonja Kingdom and worked hard on uniting the Gonja Kingdom once more. Braimah (1966) notes that Yagbonwura Mahama Dagbonga organised two conferences in Yapei in 1923 and 1930 under the watch of the British colonial administration. These meetings gathered momentum and came up with a Constitution entitled “enquiry into the constitution and organisations of the Gbanye kingdom” (Jawula and Lewpowura, 2010). The Constitution drafting committee constituted of Mr. A.C. Duncan Johnson, British Commissioner for Southern Province, Mr. A.W. Cardinal, District Commissioner for Western Gonja and 24 principal chiefs of the Gonja Kingdom.

This document, for the Gonjas, has been the alpha and omega of chieftaincy succession in modern times (Jawula 2010). The “constitution” was kept in the memory of drummers who recited it on state occasions, such as the enskinment of a kings or important chiefs or important festivals like Damba. It spells out who qualifies to be king or chief, which gate the nominee to the skin should come from, who the king makers are, who qualifies to

participate in what ceremony, who qualifies to enskin a chief and lastly, the processes the chief to be must go through (Brukum 1997).

Dankwa (2004), however, singles out the document as the source of the troubles currently being experienced in Gonjaland. He cites the disruption of customs and traditional modes of chieftaincy successions by the constitution which he saw as being the artifact of the British Colonial Authorities at that time. Ali (2009), however, disagrees with Dankwa (2004), stating that the constitution gave chieftaincy succession in Gonjaland form and structure. It is difficult to side any of these arguments, but looking at the instability that characterised the Gonja Kingdom right from the days of Musa Askia and Daoud Askia to the present day, one is likely to conclude that the problem predates the emergence of the constitution which is a later product. The constitution rather paved way for stability as it provided some specifications for persons who must rule the Gonja Kingdom and procedures of selection.

There are some physical tests a person must pass before they are considered eligible for the chieftaincy titles. According to Brukum (2006), for instance, the candidate to be installed must be double sighted or must have both eyes in their natural position. They must be married and must be a person of sound health. Furthermore, an agreement on the list of chiefs qualified to mount the paramountcy was reached and the chiefs pledged allegiance to the Yagbonwura. The constitution also determined the hierarchical sitting positions of various chiefs in the Gonja Kingdom. Thus, the constitution helped to establish a strict system of rotation that brought about some peaceful succession histories in Gonjaland both at the centre and at the periphery (Jawula, 2010). Furthermore, embossed in the 1930 constitution were the nine (9) kingmakers who are Sonyowura,

Damongowura, Choriwura, Debrewura, Mankpanwura, Kulawwura, Kpansheguwura, Busunuwura and Nsuawura. They assist the Yagbonwura to adjudicate cases and settle disputes within the Kingdom. Odotei (2006) admits that the constitution of the Gonja Kingdom has indeed withstood the test of time. Since it was adopted, peace and unity at least at the Yagbon level were achieved.

It is disheartening that the arrangement which hitherto has worked perfectly to ensure peaceful succession in the Gonja Kingdom, has taken a dramatic twist of installing two chiefs for the same community, such as Buipe, Mandari, Tinga, Kafaba, Sonyo, Kibilma, Kalidu, etc. Rosumen (2001) insists that the phenomenon of having more than one chief in a community or division, which is not the norm, emanates from varied sources. One of the reasons for this anomaly is because of the division among kingmakers over who has the right to install chiefs in the divisions and subdivisions. This has created a situation where the Yagbonwura installs his chiefs and the divisional chiefs also install theirs in the same community, creating a duality of authority where some subjects pay loyalty to one chief but not the other. Kaye and Beland (2001) admit that this and many other reasons have brewed so many unsettled chieftaincy disputes in Gonjaland as some of the cases are filed in the court instead of using the traditional or customary lay down mechanisms in adjudicating chieftaincy succession matters and disputes in the Kingdom to settle them out.

In the Bole traditional area, chieftaincy succession disputes are becoming quite dramatic, characteristically taking the form of duality of authority to the royal skins (Tonah, 2012). A typical example is the division among kingmakers over the selection of the Mandariwura. The Mandari skin is a gateway to the Bole Paramountcy. Any royal who intends to

ascend the throne of the Bolewura must first of all be a Mandariwura. When the skin of Madari became vacant in 2010, the then incumbent Bolewura, Mahama Awuladese Pontonprong I, enskined one Mr. Abdulai Issahaku Kant as Mandariwura. However, a section of the Safope gate whose turn it was to ascend to the throne disagreed with the Bolewura and petitioned the Yagbonwura for redress. The Yagbonwura did so in favour of one Alhaji Abukari Abudu who was also enskined as Mandariwura (Kombat, 2010, June 31). This created tension between the supporters of the two chiefs accompanied by pockets of violence in Bole. The Bole District and the Northern Regional Security Councils intervened to maintain peace and order by imposing dusk to dawn curfew on the Bole Township. Mr. Abdulai Issahaku then filed the case at the Northern Regional House of Chiefs for determination.

One wonders why the Bolewura refused to submit to the decision of the Yagbonwura in that regard. This is a signal that the traditional systems might not have been working as it ought to have been. This made the examination of the factors undermining the traditional chieftaincy succession procedures and indigenous mechanisms for settling such disputes in the Gonja Kingdom with specific focus on the Bole Traditional Area crucial. This study, therefore, investigated the sources of chieftaincy succession disputes in Gonja Kingdom and their manifestations in the Bole Traditional Area in terms of how the disputes undermined the social and cultural coherence of the people in the Bole Traditional Area and how its effects on development. The study also examined the perpetrators and victims of the disputes, and its impact on different occupational groups and sectors of the economy of the area. The central task of the study, therefore, was to provide a historical narrative of the chieftaincy succession disputes in the Gonja

Kingdom, their emergence over time and how they generated a stalemate in the nomination and installation of a new chief for Bole. The study, therefore, aimed to address the following questions; what were the sources of chieftaincy succession disputes in the Gonja Kingdom? What were the manifestations of these succession disputes in the Bole Traditional Area? In what way did the succession disputes in the Bole Traditional Area undermine the social and cultural coherence of the people in that area? What traditional mechanisms could be employed to address the dispute? Answers to these questions were to provide the foundation for an effective review of existing public policy or create a new one for addressing the problem, and prescribe measures to counter chieftaincy succession conflicts in the Gonja Kingdom as a whole and beyond.

The research is situated in the context of conspiracy theory as expounded by Yong (2010) and Game theory as expounded by Von Neumann (2006). Conspiracy theory is explanatory prepositions that accuses two or more persons or an organisation of having caused or cover up through secrete planning and deliberate action, an illegal or harmful events or situation (Charles, 2007). The Game theory addresses zero-sum power dynamics in which one person's gains result in losses for the other participants. Myerson (1991) explains that conflict theory seeks to scientifically explain the general contours of conflict in society: how conflict starts and varies, and the effects it brings. The central concerns of conflict theory are the unequal distribution of scarce resources and power.

METHODOLOGY

The research philosophy that was adopted for this study is the pragmatist philosophy as against either positivism alone or interpretivism alone. Pragmatists

admit the fact that there are many different ways of interpreting the world and undertaking research, that no single point of view can ever give the entire picture and that there may be multiple realities (Sounders, 2010). This gives room for the usage of multiple research strategies and methods. The researchers, therefore, settled on this research philosophy which allowed them to use methods that enable credible, well-founded, reliable and relevant data to be collected that advanced the research (Kelemen and Rumens 2008).

In line with the pragmatic philosophy, both deductive and inductive theory development approaches were used to arrive at conclusions which were derived from the reviewed literature and the primary data collected during the survey. The choice of a pragmatic philosophical approach also informed the choice of the research methodology; a mixed method design was adopted for the study where both qualitative and quantitative data were collected and triangulated for validity and reliability purposes. Wilson (2014) thinks the mixed method is most appropriate for a pragmatic research philosophy so that both qualitative and quantitative data will be used to answer the research questions since pragmatism combines both the positivists and interpretivists philosophies.

The researchers interpreted the qualitative data without subjecting it to any rationalization or logic processes. The researchers made meanings out of the illogical statements of respondents about the sources of the chieftaincy succession dispute in Gonjaland and the manifestations of such disputes in the Bole Traditional Area. At the same time, the researchers also collected measurable and quantifiable data and compared the responses of respondents with what other researchers have established as the sources of conflict in general. The adoption of a mixed method design required that, at some point, the researchers became a part of the research as it is done in the

interpretivists tradition and it also required that, at some other point, the researchers got detached from the research as it is done in the positivistic tradition. Survey and narrative inquiry strategies were adopted for the study where quantitative data was collected with the use of a questionnaire and focus group discussions while interview guides were used to gather qualitative data.

Data for the study was obtained from both primary and secondary sources. Primary data was collected largely from residents of the Bole traditional Area who were eighteen (18) years and above and institutions that are conversant with issues of chieftaincy succession in Gonjaland while Secondary data was collected from sources, such as books, journals, magazines, periodicals, dissertations, newspapers, government reports, discs and the internet. Using Cochran's formula, a sample size of one hundred and twenty-five persons (125) was selected from a total adult population of eight thousand (8000) at 95% confidence level. A voters' register was solicited from the Bole District Electoral Office for that purpose. This was used as a sampling frame. The names of respondents were grouped into twenty-five different clusters according to their polling units. Simple random sampling was used to select four (4) persons from each cluster. Additionally, ten (10) key informants from the Northern Regional House of Chiefs, Bole District Security Council, Bole Traditional Council and the Gonja National Youth Association were selected due to their in-depth knowledge of the subject matter. The table below summarizes the demographic characteristics of respondents who were selected for the study.

Table 1.1: Distribution of Respondents according to Age, Chieftaincy Gate, Religion and Occupation

Background	Variable	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18-25	41	31.4
	26-35	41	33.3
	36-45	20	16
	46+	21	16.3
	Total	125	100
Chieftaincy Gates	Safope	23	19.2
	Jagape	22	18.33
	Denkeripe	26	21.0
	Kotobiri	26	21.0
	Others	29	24.16
	Total	125	100
Educational Status	Formal	111	92.5
	Non-Formal	14	15.8
	Total	125	100
Occupation	Housewife	28	23.3
	Trader	40	33.3
	Farmer	28	23.3
	Civil/Public Servant	16	13.3
	Student	8	6.7
	Total	125	100.0

Source: Field Survey

As indicated in table 1.1 above, majority of the respondents were still in their middle ages (33.3%). The respondents were fairly distributed across the four chieftaincy gates in Bole Traditional area; Safope (16.7%), Jagape (18.3%), Denkirepe (20%) and Kotobiri (16%). Those respondents who never belonged to any of the gates constituted 20.8% of the total respondents. Most of the respondents (92.5%) have had some form of formal education, only 15.8% never had any formal education. The respondents derived their livelihood from various activities, such as farming (33.3%), trading (23.3%), and being house wives (23.3%). A few were employed in the public sector.

Data generated from the respondents was complemented by extensive desk or literature review on key issues of the topic, including conflicts, chieftaincy successions, and the history of the Gonja Kingdom. The review provided an understanding of the global and national dynamics of the problem based on existing research knowledge, and from policy-driven conferences and workshops. Media tracking and records of chieftaincy succession disputes in Northern Ghana provided further sources of information. Qualitative data obtained from the survey was analysed using Moritz (2010) 'Processual' content analysis where events, actors and processes were interpreted taking into consideration the backgrounds and institutional factors that might have influenced events or actions. The Statistical Package for Social Solution (SPSS) analyses the quantitative data where raw data was coded, tables and relevant graphs drawn to aid understanding. A Pearson correlation was run to determine the relationship between the chieftaincy gate of respondents and the commodification of thrones as a source of conflict so as to determine if there was a relationship between the dispute and social and economic development of Bole.

Cross tabulation was also run to see if the age, chieftaincy gate and occupation of respondents had any bearing to the answers they gave as the sources and consequences of chieftaincy disputes in Gonjaland. Findings were tied up to the reviewed literature and the theoretical frameworks that were employed to guide the study.

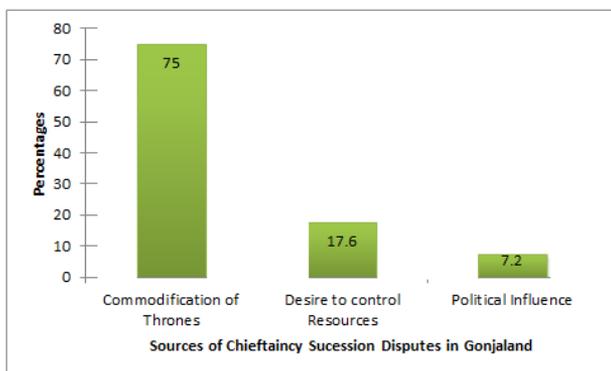
Sources of Chieftaincy Succession Disputes in Gonjaland

Chieftaincy in Ghana is normally an ascribed status from particular families or ethnic groups. Among the Akans in Southern Ghana, ascension to the stool is through maternal lineage whilst tribes in Northern Ghana do so from paternal lineage, though in the case of Gonja, some skins are specifically reserved for maternal descendants of the royal family. In the past, the roles of chiefs were exclusively to lead their people to war and defend, protect and extend their territories (Odotei, 2000). The nature of warfare for the chiefs in contemporary times has changed. The enemy is now poverty, hunger, disease, squalor, illiteracy, crime, injustice, environmental degradation, depletion of natural resources, greed, ignorance, etc.

The problem is, rather than mobilising the people against these new 'enemies', some chiefs are engrossed in material acquisition. Chieftaincy in some jurisdictions constitutes one of the fastest means of making money or acquiring wealth (Ali, 2009). Apart from the powers that chiefs wield, they control resources, such as land, forest and mineral deposits. These generate wealth for them through royalties and rent (Coleman, 2007). This explains why acephalous societies which were not organised under the domain of any chiefs, have been galvanised and condensed under chiefs for easy control and are gradually beginning to appreciate and revere the institution of chieftaincy (Dokurgu, 2011).

When the respondents were asked to indicate what they thought were the sources of the chieftaincy succession conflicts in Gonjaland, their responses were varied as shown in figure 1.1 below:

Sources of Conflicts in Gonjaland



Source: Field Survey

As indicated in figure 1.1 above, 75% of the respondents, representing 94 of the total respondents, mentioned the commodification of thrones as the main source of the various chieftaincy succession disputes in Gonjaland. They said that chieftaincy was a highly respected institution, however, it has become a money-making venture for kingmakers. According to them, whenever there is a vacant skin, people who are deemed qualified within the succeeding gate lobby. The lobbying, in recent time, they claimed, has taken a different trend. Those interested lobby with money and in most cases, the highest bidder wins, thus creating dissatisfaction among other people who are qualified but may not be well resourced to bid effectively. A key informant corroborated this when he said as follows:

“... chieftaincy institution was the preserved of honest and upright people who were role models in the society.... our skins are now being ‘auctioned’ to the highest bidder because of monetary gains”

Sulemana (2008) also found that the chieftaincy conflicts in Dagbon were

partly fuelled by the arbitrary installation of sub-chiefs by the Dagbon skin. Suaka, Tseer and Kombiok (2018) also found that the Bimoba-Konkomba conflicts in Bunkpurugu Yunyoo got escalated because of the arbitrary installation of chiefs in the Bimoba and Konkomba communities in Bubkpurugu Yunyoo District by the Nayiri, the overlord of Mamprugu.

Intertwined with the commercialisation of thrones is the desire to control resources within the various divisions of the Gonja Kingdom. Tonah (2012) observes that one of the reasons why the North is noted for a mirage of chieftaincy conflicts is because the chiefs have, over the years, rather than concern themselves with serious issues that affect their subjects, are busy selling lands and taking bribes from subjects, self-interested persons and also engaging in partisan politics at the expense of their dignity and loyalty from their subjects. These have made them lose the respect of their subjects to the extent that their pronouncements are no longer respected, thus a state of anarchy. Thus, 17.5% of the total respondents opined that the conflicts arose from the fact that Gonjaland is endowed with a lot of natural resources like Gold, coal, fish and vast cultivable and grazing lands. Once one is made a chief, he has control over these resources. This situation is best explained by the game theory; the source and intensity of the conflict emanates conforms to the zero-sum power dynamics of Games Theory. The enskinment of any of the parties in the succession conflict is conferment of power and authority on the beholder that will not be accessible to those denied the chance. It thus becomes a zero-sum power game in which where one chief is enskinned, the powers and the values that are conferred and transferred to that chief cannot be exercised by another person contemporaneously. This finding corroborates the finding of Coleman (2007) when he discovered that conflicts

surrounding who gets what are often difficult to resolve because if there is no plenty of a given resource or what is being competed for and no more can be found or created, it becomes a win-lose situation. Once the other gets, the other loses. The researcher also observed that most of the areas where the succession conflicts occur in Gonjaland were areas where there was either gold or timber. Collier (2003) also spoke about the desire to control natural resources by groups as a major cause of conflict. He estimates that close to fifty armed conflicts that were active in 2001 had a strong link to natural resource exploitation, in which the desire to control helped to trigger, intensify, or sustain violence. Myerson (2009) found out that in the Middle East, disputes over oil fields in Kuwait, among other issues, led to the first Gulf War. It is therefore not surprising that the desire to get access or control resources could bring about chieftaincy succession conflict in Gonja.

Another factor that came up strongly as one of the sources of the chieftaincy succession conflict in the Bole Traditional Area was political influence. 52 persons, representing 40% of the total respondents, mentioned that the appointment of the Mandariwura, Chief Abdulai Issahaku, was politically motivated. Many of the key informants mentioned political influence as the source of the succession disputes in Bole.

B-Awuriba (2016) found that there is a very strong link between the New Patriotic Party and the immediate past Bolewura. He points out that he was a former Progress Party (PP) MP for West Gonja (now Bole/Bamboi and Sawla/Tuna/Kalba, Damongo and Daboya/Mankarigu) in 1969. Similarly, the Mandariwura elect, Mr. Issahaku Abdulai Kant, was a staunch Popular Front Party (PFP) member and for that matter, an NPP member. He is married to Madam Ajara Yakubu, the daughter of Tolon-Naa Yakubu Alhassan Tali (the 1979 running

mate to Victor Owusu of the PFP) and a direct sister of the current Tolon Chief, Tolon Naa Major Abubakari Sulemana, a former security expert in President John Agyekum Kufuor's government. Besides, the attendance of the coronation of the former Bolewura by the late NPP National Chairman, Jake Otanka Obetsebi Lamptey, and Dr. Mahmud Bawumia, the then Running-mate of Nana Addo Danquah Akuffo-Addo, the then NPP Flag-bearer, speaks volume of the former Bolewura's NPP affiliation and the perceived political manipulations. Mahama (2015) also establishes a positive correlation between chieftaincy disputes in the North of Ghana and Ghanaian politics. Similarly, Awedoba (2016) observes that politicians in Ghana take advantage of the disputes between chieftaincy gates to galvanize the support of one gate over the other, thereby worsening the disputes.

Manifestations of the Gonjaland Chieftaincy Succession disputes in the Bole Traditional Area

Jawula (2010) found that disagreements over chieftaincy successions are common in most of the divisions constituting the Gonja Kingdom, despite the existence of the 1930 constitution. He cited the 1992 Kafaba chieftaincy succession conflict between the Attape gate and the Kankanpe gate, the 2001 Yapei conflict between the Jakpape and Solaepe gates and the 2011 Buipe conflict between the Jinapor and the Lebu gates as examples. Therefore, the case of Bole was not an exception. According to Braimah and Iliasu (1965), the type of Chieftaincy Administrative system mostly practiced in the Bole Traditional Area is the Ambassadorial or High Commissioner system whereby a royal is appointed a chief and posted to head a community. It is Ambassadorial when the natives leaving in that community are non-Gonjas by origin and High Commissioner when they are Gonjas. Bi-Awuriba (2016) observes that

the chieftaincy system in that Traditional Area allows the superior chief (Bolewura) to appoint, move or shuffle chiefs around communities in the area. Mahama (2015) points out that the stakes of succession are high in that Traditional Area because, unlike other Traditional Areas, such as Kpembi, where every gate knows who is next to a vacant skin, Bole has a system in which all sub-chiefs within a gate are usually qualified to occupy a vacant skin. This kind of situation has heightened tensions over the Mandari stool since the days of Yagbonwura Mahama Dagbonga and Bolewura Nathoma Jobodi in the early 1990s. Braimah (1965) made us understand that the Mandari skin, according to the tradition of Gonja and the Bole Traditional Area, is the entry skin to the Bole Paramountcy and, therefore, any person or royal who is enskinned as Mandariwura is a potential Bolewura. There have, therefore, been many controversies in the past over the entry to the Mandari skin. The recent one, however, has taken a dramatic twist because the Bolewura, rather than allowing the succeeding gate, Safope, to select who amongst them was best qualified to ascend the throne, decided to make the choice for the gate. He based the bridge of protocol on the inability of the Safo gate to provide a consensus candidate.

B-Awuriba (2016) points out that the situation pushed some members of the Safope gate to appeal the decision of the Bolewura in Yagbon. A latent power struggle between the Yagbonwura and the Bolewura stacked its neck out creating a constitutional crisis in the Kingdom. According to the 1930 constitution, the appointment of a Mandariwura is the sole mandate of the Bolewura because Mandari is under the jurisdiction of the Bole Traditional Area. The Yagbonwura could, however, intervene in case of any controversy (Jawula, 2010). As events unfolded, Chief Issahaku Abdulai Kant

and Chief Abubakari Abudu were installed as chiefs of Mandari by the Bolewura and the Yagbonwura respectively. This intensified the already existing tension and the case was later referred to the Judicial Committee of the Northern Regional House of Chiefs. On the 23rd of December, 2018, the Judicial Committee released its judgment which upheld the decision of the Bolewura because the appointment of the Mandariwura was within his jurisdiction. This, however, was not the end of the controversy. On the 31st of May 2017, Bolewura Pontonprong, who installed Chief Isshaku Abdulai Kant as Mandariwura, passed on. According to the chieftaincy rotation arrangement in the Bole Traditional Area as indicated earlier, the Mandariwura was supposed to succeed the Bolewura after the funeral has been performed. The succeeding chief was supposed to perform the final funeral rites of the Bolewura and then ascend the throne. There were two chiefs who had claims to the Bole skin. The Mandariwura appointed by the deceased Bolewura and the one appointed by the Yagbonwura. The final funeral was postponed by the Regional Security Council because it was likely to degenerate into violent conflict (Ghana web, 2010).

The Yagbonwura, on 6th June, 2018, allowed his appointed Mandariwura, Abubakari Abutu, to perform the final funeral rites of the late Bolewura and installed him as the new Bolewura the same day. This was followed by a swift response from the other Mandariwura, Abdulai Issahaku Kant, who also installed himself as the new Bolewura (Borisa, 2018). On the day of his installation, the conflict nearly escalated into full confrontation as gunshots were fired from both sides killing one person and injuring others. A dusk to dawn curfew was imposed on the Bole Township.

The problem, however, is far from over. According to the 1930 Yapei agreement, the Yagbonwura has the jurisdiction to appoint the traditional head of each divisions of the Gonja Kingdom. The Bole Traditional Area also has a system of chieftaincy rotation which permits only persons who have occupied the Mandari skin to ascend the throne of Bole as Bolewura. Chief Abdullai Issahaku Kant was installed by the Bolewura which is constitutional. This was contested and appealed to the Yagbonwura who appointed Chief Abubakari Abudu as Mandariwura instead. This decision was annulled by the Judicial Committee of the Northern Regional House of Chiefs, making Chief Issahaku Abdulai Kant the rightful successor to the Bole throne. However, the 1930 constitution also provides that only the Yagbonwura has the right to appoint and install a divisional chief. He has appointed his then Mandariwura, Chief Abubakari Abudu as Bolewura. How this is resolved determines whether Bole will be in hellholes or heaven's gate.

This background shows one thing; the Yagbonwura had lost control over his subject, the then Bolewura. Fifty-six per cent (56%) of the respondents mentioned that the Yagbonwura is losing control over the divisional chiefs because of mistrust. A key informant corroborated this as follows:

“It appears Yagbonwura himself takes money and installs chiefs, so there is a certain degree of mistrust between him and some of the divisional chiefs”.

Some other respondents (42%) opined that there is also mistrust between some of the subjects and some divisional chiefs. This lack of trust often results in insubordination where the divisional chiefs install their own chief and the Yagbonwura also installs his. This situation has always created tension between the supporters of Yagbonwura installed sub-chiefs and the supporters of

the sub-chiefs installed by the divisional chiefs.

Explaining the reasons why the Bolewura had to appoint his nephew as the Mandariwura, seventy-five (75) persons, representing 47% of the total respondents, mentioned that the inability of the Safope gate members, whose turn it was to occupy the Mandari skin, to present a consensus candidate pushed the Bolewura into making that decision. A key informant corroborated this as follows:

He asked them several times if he could install anyone of his choice since they were unable to reach an agreement on who should be installed and they answer in the affirmative. I was there, he repeated the question over three times and had the same answers from the elders of the Safo gate

The researchers observed that almost all the respondents who were from the Jagape gate and 18 and 13 from the Dankeripe gate and the Kototobiri gate respectively also shared a similar view. However, only one person from the Safope gate held this view. Most of those from the Safope gate felt it was the manipulations of the Bolewura and some influence from the central government which made it impossible for their elders to arrive at a consensus candidate. The 1930 Gonja chieftaincy rotation constitution also states categorically that the eldest from the succeeding gate should be allowed to occupy the skin. One is left to wonder why the Bolewura could not appoint the eldest of the Safope gate members as the Mandariwura but rather settled on Chief Abdulai Issahaku Kant who was much younger. It is also surprising that the Safope eldders could not come up with a consensus candidate for the throne. Was it a case of conspiracy?

Yong (2010) writes that “every real conspiracy has at least four characteristic features: groups not isolated individuals. In this case, the group consists of the Bolewura and the elders and kingmakers of Mandari. The second element of Yong's

conspiracy theory is illegal or sinister aims. In this case the illegal aim is for the Bolewura to appoint his nephew as the Mandariwura so that he will support him rather the hunt to replace him as the Bolewura. A third element in Yong's theory is orchestrated acts, not a series of spontaneous and haphazard ones; in this case, the elders tactically diffused any discussions that would have led to the people of Safope gate to arrive at a consensus candidate. The final element of Young's conspiracy theory is secret planning, not public discussion. The plan to prevent the emergence of a consensus candidate from the Safope gate by the then Bolewura and the elders and kingmakers of Safope gate was done in secret and still remains a top secret.

Effects of the Chieftaincy Succession Conflicts in the Bole Traditional Area

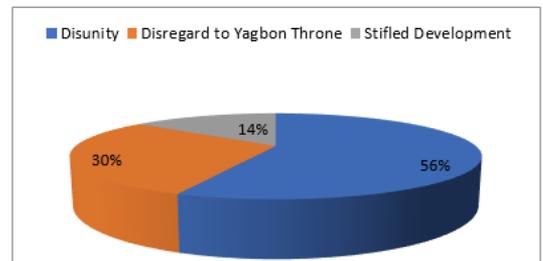
Mortz (2010) analysed the various stages of conflict escalation where he noted that conflicts escalate from small to large scale. Prutt and Kim (2004) also outline the stages of conflict escalation where they said escalations start when parties begin to invest in the conflict, such as the purchase of arms and ammunitions. From there, it shifts to persuasions to violence where parties become more interested in attacking the opponent rather than the argument, then it gets to a stage where there is an increase in the number of people involved in the violence, for instance, from disagreement of the choice of a Mandariwura between the then Bolewura and the Safope elders to disagreement between Jagape gate and Safope gate members as a whole. The conflict is said to be fully escalated when there is a shift from the pursuance of the goal to the desire to hurt the other party; from solving the problem to massacre.

The magnitude of the damage caused by any conflict depends largely on the stage of escalation. At the moment, the chieftaincy succession conflict in Bole has not gotten to the final stage of escalation

yet but the effects it has had on the people cannot be underestimated. Suaka and Tseer (2019) found that whenever there is a conflict that has fully escalated, lives and properties are lost, people are displaced and trust is broken. Tonah (2012) discovers that, apart from the physical damages caused by conflicts, such as destruction of lives and properties, conflicts create long lasting psychological effects on victims which cannot be easily erased.

Even though the conflict in Bole has not got to the full stage of escalation, inhabitants have had to live with its social and economic effects. When the researchers asked the respondents to mention some of the effects of the chieftaincy succession conflicts in area, their responses were as varied as shown in the graph below.

Figure 1.2 Effects of Chieftaincy Succession Conflicts in the Bole Traditional Area



As indicated in figure 1.2 above, many of the respondents (56%) opined that the conflicts have greatly undermined the social cohesion that characterised the Bole Traditional Area prior to the emergence and escalation of the conflict. This was corroborated by the response of a key informant during an interview;

... We are all from the same family so we related as brothers and sisters.... the division is stronger between the Safope gate members and the Jagape gate

members, even though one could see some elements of a cross gate support

When the researchers asked if the dispute had affected social functions in the community, 78% of the respondents mentioned that they still attended social ceremonies like marriages, funerals and cultural dances together but not with the same passion that used to characterise such occasions. Most of those who were more concerned about the disintegration of the social cohesion were persons aged between 18 and 36. This is indicative of the fact that people at those ages are mostly youthful and energetic and love to socialise with their pairs. Those who were older were more worried about the effects of the conflicts on the image of the Yagbonwura. Forty-seven (47) persons representing 30% of the total respondents mentioned that the authority of the Yagbonwura over the Bolewura is at its lowest ebb because of the disputes. They said that on many occasions, the Yagbonwura invited the then Bolewura but he never went and that the Bolewura was no longer sending the annual tributes or royalties that each divisional chief is supposed to present to the Yagbonwura as custom demands. To them, these are indicators that point to the fact that the then Bolewura had little or no respect for the Paramountcy. 80% of those who held this view were from forty years and above. This is indicative of the fact the aged are more worried about preserving the customs and traditions of Gonjaland.

Interestingly, the researchers observed that farmers and traders were more worried about the effects of the conflict on the development of the Bole Traditional Area. When the researchers asked how the existence of the chieftaincy disputes has affected development in the area, 20 persons, representing 30% of the respondents, who were either farmers or traders mentioned that, since the dispute started, Bole township and its surrounding villages had not witnessed any

development because there was no chief who could steer the affairs of the area or lobby for development projects from the central government. Besides, investors are scared to come and invest in the area since it appeared Bole township was sitting on a timed bomb. 60% and 80% of the key informant agreed that development was hampered by the disputes since people feared to do any long-term investment because the dispute could go violent at any moment. The researchers further observed that most of the people from Mandari had relocated to other parts of the Bole Traditional Area for fear that Mandari could be in flames any moment. Collier, (2004) found that there is a strong diabolic correlation between conflicts and failures in development: conflicts powerfully retards development; and equally, failures in development substantially increase proneness to conflicts. She further indicates that the poorest communities or countries are likely to be stuck in a 'conflict trap; a cycle of war and economic decline.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Gonja Kingdom has been one the most admired Kingdoms in the Northern territories of Ghana due to its peaceful chieftaincy succession system. From its founding by Sumaila Ndewura Jakpa in 1675 to the sitting Yagbonwura, Sulemana Jakpa Tuntumba Borea I, the Kingdom has been ruled by over twenty-eight Yagbonwuras. The cohesiveness of the Kingdom, however, has been undermined by the various chieftaincy conflicts that seem to have engulfed the Kingdom and characteristically taken the form of dual installation of chiefs by the Yagbonwura and Divisional chiefs. According to this study, the situation is traceable to internal corruption of customs and traditions by both the overlord and divisional chiefs

who rather than adhering to the provisions of the 1930 constitution for chieftaincy successions, resort to hand-picking individuals for various reasons. This has reduced the institution of chieftaincy in the Kingdom to a self-serving contraption.

The direct result of this is that the institution of chieftaincy has lost its leverage of controlling the people and maintaining social cohesion. It is obvious that chiefs are no longer there to serve the interest of the people but for the pursuit of their parochial interest, such as personal enrichment, control of resources and acquisition of political power. This situation is gradually reducing the once cohesive and centralised Kingdom of Gonja to a state of anarchy. The Yagbonwura is unable to exercise authority over divisional chiefs, so are the divisional chiefs to sub-chiefs up to the subjects. Thus, the Yagbonwura installs chiefs who are not recognised by divisional chiefs. In defiance, divisional chiefs also install their own chiefs in the same communities.

This situation is compounded by a constitutional crisis where the Yagbonwura is given unlimited power over the divisions that federate the Kingdom while at the same time pronouncing the divisions semi-autonomous. In the Bole Traditional Area, for instance, the people have their own domestic chieftaincy rotation plan in place which has been in operation even before the reign of Bolewura Nathoma Jobodi in 1912. The 1930 constitution, however, has empowered the Yagbonwura to appoint divisional chiefs, which means that the Yagbonwura could disregard with any pre-arranged chieftaincy rotation plan that is in place and appoint any one he chooses among the royal family. This is what has brought the stalemate in the Bole Traditional Area.

While the Yagbonwura and the Bolewura were neck-stacked in power struggle, their supporters or beneficiaries picked up arms against each other. The

central government has been apt in nipping the escalation of the conflict at the bud but there have been pockets of violent attacks within the Bole Township, resulting in loss of lives and property, breaking down of trust among families and between chieftaincy gates and displacement of people. Development has also been stifled as investors have fled and new ones are scared to come. Resources that would have been used for development were channeled into de-escalation and prevention of violent outbreaks of the conflict.

RECOMMENDATIONS

In the long run, there must be concerted efforts by the central government and all stake holders to address the conflict and find a long-lasting solution to the chieftaincy succession disputes that has engulfed the Bole Traditional Area and the entire Gonja Kingdom. The Ministry for Chieftaincy and Culture, as well as Local Government and Rural Development, should liaise with the National and Regional Houses of Chiefs in order to ensure that chiefs are well resourced so that they can take initiatives that will diversify their income bases. This could curb the alleged incidences where chiefs are said to be taking bribes as conditions for performing their duties or allow monetary benefits to cloud their sense of judgment in the execution of their duties.

The Gonja Traditional Council, its elites, ordinary sons and daughters should reiterate the need to follow the guidelines for appointing chiefs as provided for in the 1930 constitution. The constitution may be reviewed if there is the need. This would make it impossible for any chief to act outside the powers conferred on him by the constitution. This could resolve the phenomenon of duality of authorities and their adverse repercussions in the Bole Traditional Area and Gonjaland at large.

Again, there is the need for government, political parties, the Bole District Assembly and all stakeholders to demonstrate a high sense of morality by refraining from the exploitation of ethnic sentiments for electoral gains, empower the Regional House of Chiefs or the National House of Chiefs to lead mediations on resolving the conflict and reduce the role and power of the chief, so that calculated risk of perpetuating chieftaincy violence will become greater than their "ay-off".

The Ministries of Local Government and Rural Development, as well as the Ministry of Chieftaincy and Culture should liaise with the Commission for Civic Education to educate all chiefs and their subjects on the Constitutional provision on the separation of the institution of chieftaincy from partisan politics. They should be reminded of the critical role that the chieftaincy institution plays in the Ghanaian society thus, the need for chiefs to remain neutral and non-partisan.

A win-win approach of dispute resolution should be applied in the resolution of chieftaincy disputes such that the loser in a chieftaincy dispute is given well recognised chieftaincy title that would keep him in a respected position in the winner's administration since they are all from the same royal gate. This would not just bring peace, but unite the supporters of the two so that there would be no such divisions which currently exist in Bole and affecting the social coherence of the people Bole Traditional Area and the Gonja Kingdom as a whole.

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THE ROLE OF EMOTIONS IN INTRACTABLE CONFLICTS AND RESOLUTIONS: A DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVE TO TRANSFORM CONFLICTS AND ESTABLISH LASTING PEACE

Chiara Polverini

Graduate School of International Peace Studies, Soka University of Japan

e19m3502@soka-u.jp

ABSTRACT

This research wants to demonstrate the relevance of emotions in in-group dynamics, intergroup conflicts and the resolution process. In the last decades, social scientists have recognized the power of emotions, and how these influences beliefs, ideas, attitudes and reactions to aggressiveness in society. The main assumption is that collective emotions have a crucial role in shaping the social context, which can be responsible to maintain a conflictual situation. My research focuses on intractable conflicts, which has the characteristic to expand from its origins, to be based on the identity of the enemy and in the rejection to find a resolution. It is important to deal with collective traumatic emotions which are a result of intractable conflicts; the inability to do so has resulted in the reoccurrence of violence. The target of the current academic debate is to develop methods and strategies to reduce the magnitude of destructive emotions and increase feelings like hope and empathy which lead the parties to seek for resolution. This research is based on pre-existing emotions regulation approaches and proposes a new theoretical framework thereby giving direction for future research. My theory is built on the model of transitional justice, which proposes the active participation of civil society in the conflict-resolution process. By exploring (1) the current

debate on theoretical methods to re-elaborate emotions and (2) grassroots movements to deal with traumatic experiences in the post-armed conflict situation, I propose a strategy to deal with negative emotions to transform intractable conflicts.

Keywords: emotions, intractable conflicts, transitional justice, grassroots movements

INTRODUCTION

In this article I'm going to refine the definition of peace education and how it does contribute to the transformation of intractable conflicts for the establishment of lasting peace. First, I will use literature review as a research method. I report the already existing debate on what is meant by emotions in the context of group dynamics and intractable conflicts. I argue that a series of emotions and moods regarding external events and situations in the group / society, from the individual level, shape an emotional tendency that becomes proper to that group. These moods include particularly negative emotions when the external stimulus results in a conflict that cannot be resolved. Anthropologist Clifford Geertz affirmed that man is an animal suspended in the networks of meaning that he himself woven (Geertz 1987). In this perspective,

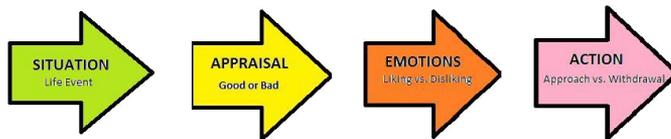
it can be said that man and culture shape each other and this work of continuous negotiation does not leave out the emotions, proper to each society and the result of historical and social dynamics. The emotions experienced on a social level are the product of culture and context. Culture characterizes the individuals who belong to it and the individuals who belong to it characterize the culture. In accordance with the appraisal theory of emotions, I will demonstrate how emotional tendency conveys the reaction to a specific event. According to Arnold (1960), the action that results from an emotion given by an external stimulus is called emotional goal. By adopting this psychological theory to the context of intractable conflicts, depending on the mood elicited by the out-group action, the emotional goal can be constructive or destructive. I will explain how some scholars have developed strategies consisting of emotion regulation, which consists in reducing the impact of destructive emotions and increasing the level of positive and constructive emotions. By affirming in theory the relevance of emotions in the context of intractable conflicts, I will move forward to possible concrete applications on the transformation of negative emotions that are responsible for keeping the conflict alive, even if the armed conflict has ceased. In my research I argue that we cannot talk about ending and resolving a conflict since a series of injuries in society have not been treated. By exploring possible strategies to transform conflicts and establish lasting peace, I give a wide definition of peace education and how grassroots movements can lead to the transformation of a conflict: from intractable to tractable. As a case study I present the international organization 'Peace Jam', and how its activism and the projects that proposes can progressively turn the outcomes of intractable conflicts.

Lately, social scientists have recognized the emotional component as a relevant element in intergroup dynamics and conflicts. Its influence has been progressively considered an object of research in political science and conflict studies; there is a common support to the fact that emotions influence beliefs, attitudes and reactions of society (Halperin, Bar-Tal, De Rivera 2007). The main assumption is that collective emotions have a crucial role in the group's reactions to conflicts, and matters in shaping the social context, which is responsible to maintain a conflictual situation. I sustain a non-scientific approach for the process of conflict resolution, which includes the affirmation of the noblest side of the human. Is not based on rationality, but on the use of creativity and innate compassion. Therefore, it is important to explore and deal with collective emotions not only because that influence the social context (Halperin, Russell, Dweck, Gross 2011), but mostly because the winning card to transform a conflictual situation is to canalize negative emotions toward a creative process which I identify it as peace education. Among many theories of emotions, social scientists bring in the debate the appraisal theory: for each stimulus or emotion aroused, corresponds a reaction and consequent behavior in political choices.

This theory has been systematized in the '60ies by Arnold, pioneer of the study of emotions as a scientific element that determine humans thought and actions. Her studies collect a more philosophical tradition: this has been reviewed in the end of the 1800 by Charles Darwin, where he approaches emotions with scientific mind and to support his theory that the human species comes from the animal realm: the question he wants to answer is if the activity of man's facial muscles (the 'mimicry'), which makes the emotions visible, is acquired by learning or,

regardless of the cultural sphere of the individuals, is uniform and therefore presumably innate. In the same period, William James delves into the same topic from a philosophical perspective, where he explored how emotions interact with perception, reappraisal and action. In short, he affirms that we don't feel emotions as a consequence of external/internal stimuli, but that pass through the perception of the stimuli and the bodily reaction that those provoke. The revival of those ideas gave birth to a theory which includes multiple levels which can

be seen as components: emotions shouldn't be seen as an 'emotional episode', but rather a process that includes the evaluation of the environment according to individual/collective experience, the physiological response, the individual or in-group motivational objects and the action tendencies. All those elements are subjects of mutual influence, indeed the appraisal "determines the intensity and quality of action tendencies, physiological responses, behavior, and feelings (Moors et al. 2013, p. 120).



(Source: Google Images, "Appraisal Theory of Emotions – Arnold")

This theory permits to embrace different reactions in the same situation, and by taking into account different culture, social context and individual/collective goals, allow to understand the variety of variables when an event occurs. For instance, Japanese and American people are different in the agency of emotional process when something negative happens: the first are more likely to blame themselves and to experience shame, while the second more probably would blame others and experience anger. The appraisal theory wants to prove that in a situation the reaction to the emotion depends on the appraisal (Moors, Ellsworth, Scherer, Frijda 2013).

Now the thing is: how do we configure a psychological theory with a concrete problem, such as intractable conflicts? The

existing knowledge in psychological field can't simply be implanted 'raw' as it is, but the research in conflict resolutions has recently recognized that emotions in human beings are powerful, because determine the behaviors and actions, and changeable, which means that the source where the important decisions come from, is not static either rigid. Scholars propose this theory to understand better where actions - in this case, reactions that follows a negative event comes from. Later I will explain in what consists this specific category of conflict, but for now let's focus on how social scientists want to find a way to understand and solve conflicts starting from emotions and using the appraisal theory. I would say that this is an alternative approach because it is focused on the causes of the conflict: As the image above shows in the sequence of darts, rational decisions are influenced by certain predominant emotions, and for each of these correspond an emotional goal, and the action taken is an answer to the stimulus or emotion, elicited by life events.

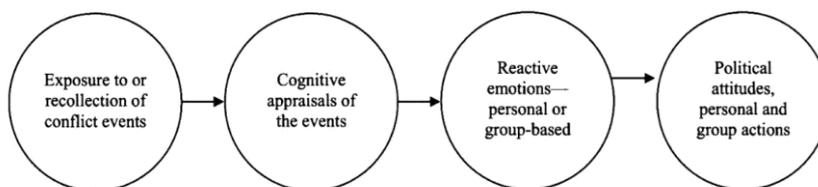


Figure 1. The process model of reactive emotions and their influence in the context of intractable conflict.

(Source: Halperin and Pliskin 2015, p. 122)

There are several elements that can cause reactions to individual stimuli, and those reactions overall form a pattern of social behavior (Halperin, Pliskin 2015). The appraisal theories of emotions in large scale, means not solely considering the individual, and going beyond the psychological field. It is possible to observe how emotions interact with decisions and reactions of groups dynamics during a conflictual situation, considering the group-based political attitudes.

→ **ANGER:** the external stimuli can elicit a feeling that lead to an aggressive behavior. The action becomes aggression in order to correct the perceived wrongdoing of the out-group members (Halperin, Russell, Dweck, Gross 2011). The action elicited by anger will be permeated by the rejection to find a resolution is a barrier to peace because of the belief that the other is in the wrong side. In the process of this emotion lead to the support for aggressive policies.

→ **FEAR:** the external stimuli comport a sense of threat for the own security. The perceived danger lead to a defensive behavior characterized by the lack of trust, which is generally canalized in a scapegoat. Especially in the state of fear, the action elicited is the idealization of an enemy, which is continuously blamed, and all the possible problems experienced in a group are conducted to the behavior of the construction of the other. If we look closer, fear is a 'healthy' respond which consents to adjust in a

situation of danger and seek for stability but can also be considered the root of nationalism and ethnocentrism. The action connected to this emotion is more likely to seek protection from the danger and enforce the securities policies, but paradoxically is a barrier to peace exactly because generates insecurity.

→ **HATRED:** among all the emotions, hatred is the most serious impediment to find a resolution in conflicts. It comports the lack of belief that the enemy, or the situation, can change. The behavior as a response to this emotion is the desire to eradicate the out-group members because are too evil. As long as the other exists, there is no chance to achieve peace (Halperin, Pliskin 2015). The action elicited will likely consists in the choice of radical policies and behavior toward the enemy. What impede the reconciliation, rather than a specific event or something that one of the parties committed, is the existence of the other, its identity and the fundamental lack of hope in a future in which there can be pacific coexistence. It is the principal responsible for every form of discrimination, the action that satisfies its emotional goal might include extreme political means and decisions. Some researches focus on the possibility to manipulate emotions in order to intervene on the deep of the issue and facilitate the resolution to achieve lasting peace (Halperin, Gutentag, Porat, Bigman, Tamir 2016). The emotion regulation supports the transformation of

conflict by decreasing negative emotions and work to increase the positive ones.

→ **EMPATHY:** lead to discover new motivation to find solutions. Empathy, although doesn't constitute a monolithic feeling, is based on the idea that it is necessary to step in others' shoes, therefore, drop the presumption to be on the right side and understand others' needs and point of view. This can bring to offer humanitarian help because there is understanding of the others' sufferance, and the desire to put an end.

→ **HOPE:** the emotional goal is to strive for positive changes, because the core belief consists in the desire to forgive the enemy and find something in common to cooperate toward constructive objectives. The positive vision of the future and the collective aspiration of peace stimulates creativity and the willingness to make constructive actions.

In some difficult situations in society, the hostilities are that harsh, and the emotions involved that dark, that seems impossible to overcome with a peaceful resolution. This category of conflict is called intractable, which for definition, the parties involved refuse to consider the possibility to change the situation. When the two or more parties radically refuse to reach an agreement to end the hostilities, according to the appraisal theory of emotions, there is a high level of hatred. Those conflicts are mainly characterized by a considerable length; indeed, it can last for generations. It has the tendency to expand from its original causes is not always due to vicissitudes, but because of more fundamental incompatibilities (Fiol, Pratt, O'Connor 2009). Especially when it is based on identity, the conflict is not anymore about external events such as humiliations and economic deprivations, but on the lack of recognition to a certain social or ethnic group (Halperin, Bar-Tal 2011). It is not only about recognition but also for the creation of enemy's features.

As we have seen, negative emotions in conflicts can become the impediment to find a resolution, the cost to get out appears higher to the costs to stay in. Some scholars propose that emotion regulation can increase or decrease the length and density of the emotions elicited in the conflict. This statement is based on the assumption that, if emotions are responsible to maintain a conflictual situation, by working on the transformation, it is possible to influence the outcomes and facilitate the process of resolution. Among all negative emotions, it is relevant to consider the characteristics of anger, because it is very current in every conflict and it's extremely powerful. Individuals that feel angry for the out-group's behavior, will appraise the situation as unjust, and develop the emotional goal to correct their wrongdoing. Therefore, the state of anger doesn't necessarily denote a set of negative characteristics for who feels it, the target is to change what is seen as wrong but anger itself doesn't determine the means for the change. The action that follows the reappraisal can be constructive or destructive. It becomes destructive when there is a scarce believe that the enemy can change and, therefore, the action becomes aggression. There is an escalation of violence when the group that received the offence reacts with equal aggression and grown this feeling too. The action, or emotional goal, can become constructive and potentially contribute to peace when there is a belief that out-group members are capable to change (Halperin, Russell, Dweck, Gross 2011). Researchers affirm that anger can be supportive to find compromises, negotiation and other pacific solutions such as education.

It varies according to the level of hatred in it. This emotion can be expressed according to the magnitude of the long-term hatred elicited by the enemy. If there is a high-level hatred, this anger will be directed towards destruction, because the

basic idea is that the enemy is unable to change and ‘behave better’. If there is less hatred, this anger could be directed to a non-violent action and in favour of change, because it is believed that the enemy can change, and finally that the situation can be transformed (Halperin, Weimann-Saks, Koriat 2019). All these emotions can be a barrier to the conflict resolution process or the catalyst to change (Halperin, Russell, Dweck, Gross 2011). In absence of hatred, or the belief that the enemy is wrong as a whole, it is possible that anger can lead to act with the goal to reach positive changes in the society. For this reason, some scholars debate on the possibility of transformation and emotional regulation. The focus of this strategy lies on increasing the hope through the belief to control the own emotions in the context of conflicts (Halperin, Weimann-Saks, Koriat 2019). The entity theory supports the assumption that the humankind has a fundamental immutable nature, the beliefs on a deeper level can’t be transformed and emotions can’t be controlled. On the contrary, the incremental theory supports the idea that human nature is flexible, and some beliefs are malleable and modifiable, just as emotions can be evaluated and then transformed. The belief in the malleability of human nature has an important effect in the very transformation of emotions, it increases hope and decreases hatred. Different beliefs about people’s ability to change can lead to different reactions to negative social behavior (Halperin, Gutentag, Porat, Bigman, Tamir 2016). The cognitive reappraisal can have a long-term effect in minimize the destructive emotions.

Individuals’ emotions shape the society’s emotions and vice versa, there is a mutual influence: the single members of a society are more sensitive and prone to feel some emotions as a reaction to external stimuli, as a result, the whole society develop and adopt an implicit code

of understanding and express emotions. But at the same time, the single members are more prone to feel some emotions as a result of the membership of that particular group. Bar-Tal talks about emotional orientation, De Rivera makes a distinction between emotional atmosphere, emotional culture and emotional climate, which are categories to describe the formation of collective group-based emotions (Halperin, Bar-Tal, De Rivera 2007). They notice that there is a “characterizing tendency of a society to express a particular emotion. [...] The emotion and the beliefs that evoke a particular emotion are widely shared by society members and appear frequently in the society’s public discourse, cultural products, and educational materials” (Halperin, Bar-Tal, De Rivera 2007, p. 443).

There is evidence that emotions matter for political aspects, but also for generic social issues. De Rivera explains that collective emotions depends on the cultural context, which is constructed and shaped by people. He makes a distinction between transitional and lasting contexts: the first one is determined by conditions of a social, political, economic nature and due to the creation of institutions, an important channel of transmission by those who control the group or the society, it has a temporal nature and the impact lasts for not more than one generation. It can be better understood by three elements – perception, procession and regulatory modes – which constitute the social identity. A society is made by rules, and the (1) appraisal of individuals, which is the personal evaluations, change according to the social context. Those evaluations are influenced and at the same time influence the group and the (2) collective experience of facts and events. The context also matters because it determines (3) how to react to individual events, for example, if they are supposed to be expressed or repressed. Then, there is the lasting context, which is given by

culture and therefore by the very entity of society. People in a society acquire ways to express and which emotions are expressed. There is a culturally approved emotional orientation transmitted through the history, the definition of social boundaries and elements like descent, ethnicity and immutable symbols in the verbal and physical communication (Halperin, Bar-Tal, De Rivera 2007). This discourse proves that emotions are not separated from the culture of a population and its context, therefore are malleable rather than established and immutable. Those play an important role in fields where one would expect that emotions are not involved because are considered an obstacle for understanding the truth. Cognitive reappraisal refers to modifying how one thinks about an emotion-eliciting event, as a result it will be possible to alter its emotional impact. Therefore, the technique is this reevaluation that takes place at the cognitive level: the more one believes in the possibility to control emotions, the more changing the behavior is possible. The cognitive appraisal is an effective method to support the emotional regulation, indeed the outcome depends on its belief (Halperin et al. 2016).

Sometimes the sole belief of a single individual in the possibility to control the own emotions is not enough and it doesn't last in time when a society has been strongly weakened from heavy conflicts. Some scholars sustain for more long-term strategies, which are all sub-categories of the development of a culture of peace. Make the community involved in the reconstruction of the society and actively participate in the transformation of collective grief through the creation of justice rituals/trials. The creation of a culture of peace depends very much in the establishment of a 'positive-emotion context', which can flourish from the effort to extinguish the negative context. A positive climate wants elements in the public sphere such as policies of

integration, commissions that promote the reconciliation through grassroots movements, fair and sincere public trials with the aim to assure restorative justice and future cooperation. The encouragement of collective self-healing can become the foundation of a new catalyst for social participation to solve a conflict defined as intractable. One can think that intractable conflicts are called as such because there is nothing to do if not wait that politicians or whoever has interests behind change their mind. But here I sustain that a culture of peace doesn't depend on who has the power is solely in the hands of people who in the hardest time can bring out and develop the capacity of resilience. Overall, the resolution of intractable conflicts is not determined by the end of armed conflict: even if the resolution is achieved through negotiation, the conflict goes in a state of latency, which means that it can break out in every moment. The state of latency which I talk about, refers to negative emotions that haven't been subject of any kind of negotiation, therefore those kind of inner and invisible conflicts in people that have experienced war are both the consequence and the cause of keeping the conflict intractable. Deal with emotions is a process that requires to listen to the victims of severe violence and abuses. From those studies about the role of emotions in conflict, I move to how works in the resolution process and if through dealing with emotions we can build a better and just society. Some researches affirm that to listen can heal the pain of victims. This model is known as transitional justice, which deals with people's traumatic events and emotions elicited by those stimuli, bringing into the public and legal sphere the personal experience, "countervailable" only by listening and provide this support from the institutions. Transitional justice looks at reconciliation, and this kind of justice is not retributive but reparative – healing

wants to be 'therapeutic', insisting on forgiveness in exchange of truth from the perpetrators. This discourse supports reconciliation starting to care with the single individual, 'simply' by healing (Castillejo-Cuellar 2013). An interesting case can be found in the creation of a liminal space between the state's institutions in South African post-apartheid regime, where a court guaranteed a certain freedom on sharing the numerous episodes of violence during the years of segregation. The mix of law, politics and religion in listening and healing became a powerful channel to throw negative emotions and forgive for the sake of reconciliation. The Truth and Reconciliation Commission, headed by the archbishop Desmond Tutu, proposed to create "a new culture of human rights", by promoting national reconciliation through the forgiveness. There were already about fifteen Commissions in the world, but the one in South Africa worked more than anywhere else. The structure of the Commission divided the work in three committees: The Human Rights Violations Committee, the Reparations and Rehabilitation Committee, and finally the Amnesty Committee. A hypothesis is that it worked because the court was willing to give amnesty to the perpetrators, which should fit in some specific qualities, one of those was to share as much as possible about the crime (Wilson, 2000).

The strategies that Tutu has been using to deal with emotions are (1) equalizing and collectivizing sufferance, by saying that whatever happen to one person, the same happened to someone else. Everyone suffered and went through traumatic events such as loss and violence. The recognition that people suffered was coming from a commission and a big audience, and the creation of this group in which victims can identify themselves was with the intent to facilitate the closure. This collectivization of pain leads to the repetitive use of (2) the allegory of

liberation: this sufferance of each person is extremely valuable and noble, since it is for the sake of a bigger and common cause such as the national liberation from the oppression. During the process of hearing and healing, it was repeated many times that people that died didn't in vain. Part of the liberation regards also the individual level, which can be achieved through (3) forsaking of revenge, from which was possible to attain the redemption. What the commission was doing was to heal the wounds by leading the people to desire to forgive and to not keep resentments. According to the researches, the act to forgive was highly applauded and considered a virtue, while the expressions of anger toward the perpetrators would seem 'out of place' (Wilson, 2000).

Some scholars propose methods based on dialogues: an interesting example is the 'collaborative change approach' proposed by Clarke (2009), which wants to analyze the effects of polarization of emotions and see how to 'depolarize' those in the reconciliation process. As the Truth and Reconciliation Commission, this method proposes to bring together people by sharing their experiences, which can concern frustration, anxiety, a past which is difficult to deal, and by guiding all the process, let people articulate their respective identities, needs and values. The dialogue should start with questions meant to seek the root of conflict and 'let it come out'. The narrative of a conflict is powerful and can be led through a transformation of feelings by open dialogue and the effort to find solutions with the support of a community. Bandes (2009) talks about 'emotional closure' of a case of violence through the emotional regulation. She supports the idea that emotions need to be comprehended in the legal realm. This closure can happen from the moment that victims and survivors have the chance to give space in the public setting to their sufferance and injustices that one has lived. Formally, a juridical

process can never end, the culprits are not found, the victim doesn't get the fair retribution, many questions can remain open (Castillejo-Cuellar 2013). But if someone takes the responsibility to bring the collective pain in the public sphere, one can move forward by finding a sense of peace and relief thanks to restorative justice. The research of the role of emotions is not confined to the field of psychology and neuroscience, it has been also explored in anthropology, sociology and juridical studies (Bandes 2009). That is how we can see that emotions are processed, interpreted and communicated in whatever social context, it influences behaviors, actions and the perception of the world, that is why it is a powerful method to control and support the transformation of a conflict. But at the same time, as we have seen, the context in which it is expected to feel a determined set of emotions is specified by cultural norms (Halperin, Bar-Tal, De Rivera 2007).

If the resolution doesn't depend only on the government's decisions, how can people participate to the construction of a peaceful society when they are the first to have experienced the worse consequences of intractable conflicts? The sociopsychological barriers in a conflictual situation can be particularly rigid. Indeed, there is a repertoire of beliefs that create a set of negative emotions to which the society unconditionally adheres and maintains the conflict intractable, although there's no fire. Moreover, this can be enforced through cultural, educational and governmental channels. I have given a theoretical framework of the existing literature on the possibilities to apply the emotional regulation, which the goal is to decrease the level of negative emotions and increase the intensity of positive ones. A possible solution that now I propose to 'unfreeze' the rigidity due to the negative emotional climate, relies on the promotion of peace education as a long-term strategy

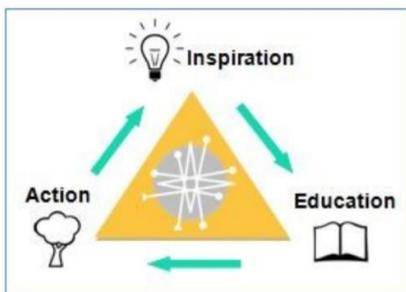
to disclose the creative potential to deal with intractable conflicts. This doesn't want to be a universal solution to every problem in a society, rather I propose peace education to make a shift at the emotional level: from intractable to tractable.

Bar-Tal and Rosen (2009) affirm that the negative climate is a consequence of a part or current conflict and the young people that grow and live in this kind of context are likely to reproduce the same schemes because of the acculturation and transmission of violence. This spiral can end if, as we have seen before, negative and powerful emotions such as anger are canalized in constructive behaviors and a new acculturation based on peace. This innovative perspective will make it easier to overcome sociopsychological barriers because it wants to reform patterns of behavior, values, beliefs, social skills and emotions. The scholars propose two approaches to peace education. The first is oriented in the spread of 'socialization for peace' in schools. This method includes the encouragement to diversity for example in the same class, international exchange to break stereotypes and promote the appreciation for different cultures and more stimuli to study and get informed by global issues. Schools are the cradles of acculturation: until the age of eighteen is the major channel to learn and that contributes to the formation of the character. There young people don't learn only through traditional study and accumulation of knowledge but create friendship and learn how to behave in the society. Socialization for peace as the foundation of the learning process should aspire to diminish the pressure for competition with each other and put the emphasis on mutual respect and unity to achieve common goals. In this perspective, to learn means to challenge the own limits and discover the own potential, rather than do better than the others. It is also necessary training the new

generations to the beautiful potential of diverse culture, traditions, ideas and ethnicity. This first approach has several limits: first and foremost, institutions as well are imbued with culture, therefore are not easy to change, the greatest challenge would be the natural resistance to keep the status quo. Then, in many cases public education doesn't receive enough funds; the lack of valorization of the structures, the possibilities to offer, the training and adequate salary for the professor, inevitably impact the curricula and the transmission of new values. The second approach includes a broader concept of education and goes beyond the academic form. Is the promotion of socialization in the whole society and which aspire to involve all categories and ages which support the peace process. Here education means persuasion through information, expositions, exhibitions, sensibilization and activities to achieve a new awareness. The main assumption is that the effort to build a society founded in friendly relations have unprecedented benefits, because without peace is impossible to feel safe and develop material prosperity. This kind of socialization is based on the empowerment of ordinary people who become active agents for the transformation of a negative context. In their research, Bar-Tal and Rosen suggest that the absence of specific conditions in

which peace education can flourish is a sign of lack of ripeness of the society. A significant limit of this model is that some features of peace education can find very unfavorable conditions where democracy and basic human rights, as the freedom of expression, are not guaranteed. Overall, the scholars affirm that "peace education (whether direct or indirect) can flourish under any condition – including violence – because its themes fundamentally support humanism and democracy, core values shared by many societies" (Bar-Tal and Rosen 2009, p. 569).

Based on my research, I affirm that sustainable and lasting peace is not something to achieve as we are talking about an arrival, but is patiently created thank to the capacity in society to develop resilience and motivation for collective participation. If the concept of peace education, other than the formal learning process, also embraces a form of socialization based on tolerance and the appreciation for diversity, its application can be found in grassroots movements. I believe that the promotion of peace starts on the international scale and ends with small communities. I have found the emblem of peace education in action in the international organization called 'Peace Jam'.



(Source: Peace Jam Official Website)

The main objective is to foster new leaders for the future which are committed to bring positive change in their lives and community, inspired the life and struggles by fourteen Nobel Peace Prize winners: (the 14th) Dalai Lama, Desmond Tutu, Rigoberta Menchù Tum, Oscar Arias, Adolfo Pérez Esquivel, Mairead Corrigan Maguire, Betty Williams, José Ramos-Horta, Tawakkol Karman, Joseph Rotblat, Jody Williams, Shirin Ebadi, Kailash Satyarthi and Leymah Gbowee. The initiative has been launched in 1996 by the social activists Dawn Engle and Ivan Suvanjiedd in the United States. Nowadays the association is present in thirteen states and it interacts with organizations, institutions and communities all around the world. More than 1.2 million young people worldwide have participated in Peace Jam programs, their curriculum has been implemented in over 20.000 schools in 39 countries and hundreds of conferences focused on youth leadership have been held, connecting activists with Nobel Peace Laureates.

Peace Jam is well present and rooted in the reality of the society in which it lives and promotes initiatives according to the context in which it operates. This association has created thousands of new leaders and volunteer opportunities for young and adults in their local community. The core principles are the same all over the world: to create a peaceful society, free from race and gender discrimination, in which collaboration between people allows the elimination of poverty and promotes a culture based on human rights. The involvement of young people in building an ideal society would enrich the community in order to be able to solve the challenges of the 21st century in a creative way. Furthermore, it would reduce many of the problems that young people face in a global but increasingly chaotic and competitive society. The first of these is the lack of purpose in life. The lack of ideals according to which to live and

dreams to chase cause annihilation and contributes to maintaining a negative emotional climate. A stimulated youth with an active role in society will become the driving force to transform intractable conflicts into a possibility of dialogue and encounter with the different who can interrupt the spiral of violence. I should divide the action-making of peace education in three macro categories: scholastic curriculum design, publications and multimedia, and finally networking initiatives.

The launch of school programs is simply made by the design of ideal learning material divided for themes and ages. It is possible to make stand-alone the programs as a curricular unit or as a complement to existing one. The Peace Jam Juniors curriculum is taught for the age from 5 to 11 years old. "Is a literacy-based curriculum that explores the childhood stories of fourteen Nobel Peace Prize winners and the strategies they used to overcome problems in their communities [...]. Students gain academic skills in the areas of history, civics, geography, reading and writing. They also gain personal and social skills including problem-solving, civic responsibility and leadership." (Quoted from Peace Jam Official website – curriculum sample). Then, there is a curriculum for young from the age of 11 to 14, named Peace Jam Leaders. The purpose is to create an "interactive [environment], hands-on format that fosters 21st century and leadership skills, identity development, conflict resolution, service-learning, citizenship and celebration of diversity". (Ibidem). The curriculums 'Compassion in Action' and 'Peace Jam Ambassadors' are designed for youth from the age of 12/14 to the age of 18. Here again the program aspires to sensitize teenagers to global issues and gives practical and analytical skills to be active citizens in reshape the culture of violence in culture of peace. The last two scholastic programs

'Peace Jam Juvenile Justice' and 'Peace Jam Scholars', addressed mostly to university students, like the others teaches how to develop a positive identity and aspire to create international and academic connections. Those curricula also have the characteristic to have more practice and want to stimulate youth to bring their skills to the service of the community.

Publications and multimedia from the association want to be informative and a source of inspiration for an audience from 5 to 99 years old. Peace Jam collaborates with directors that have been produced movies on the life of the Dalai Lama ("Scientist"), Betty Williams ("Contagious Courage"), Desmond Tutu ("Children of the Light") and others. Moreover, the collaboration with the writer Arthur Zajonc has produced the biographical work "We Speak as One: Twelve Nobel Laureates Share Their Vision for Peace". This is a collection of the Peace Nobel Laureates' lives and struggles, my university (Soka University of Japan, Tokyo), adopts it as academic textbooks. The intent of Peace Jam in promoting the life experience of those personalities is to inspire the audience to take position in global issues and strive for the creation of a better society. The networking initiatives are an important element for the socialization for peace. Peace Jam organizes conferences with the Peace Nobel Laureates, international meetings and exchanges, annual summits, public lectures and events to create friendship and get new inspiration. Other initiatives include online networking, one of the most remarkable is "Billion Act", a campaign defined as "a global call for action". Is a web platform in which everyone can register and upload pictures and the story on how he or she made an action in favor of peace in the own community. For example, an interreligious dialogue, or a morning in the beach with friends to collect garbage. This is a powerful tool in which everyone can be

shared the concrete proof of peace education and unite with a global movement oriented to peace. Grassroots movements again is the protagonist for a positive social change, because the aspiration is to start the transformation of negative emotions from the local community.

CONCLUSION

Overall, negative emotions are one of the causes of maintaining the conflict intractable, but those can be as well the fuel for grassroots movements and creative solutions. Peace education doesn't have the pretension to heal every issue in the society. Rather, it proposes a new wave of empowered and aware people who base the socialization in mutual respect and the radical rejection of violence. Although this is an idealistic solution which in practice find several limits, I have shown how the adherence and the support of organizations such as Peace Jam (is one among many) contribute to build a society based on values that care and respect the dignity of life. Peace education transforms the conflict from intractable to tractable, this kind of model deal with people's negative emotions by giving to them the power of agencies in reshape culture.

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A RESEARCH ON THE EFFECT OF IN-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMS ON INDIVIDUAL CAREER MANAGEMENT: THE CASE OF KONYA ORGANIZED INDUSTRIAL ZONE

Adnan Celik, Namik Ata

ABSTRACT

In-service training is a concept that increases the productivity, motivation, employee quality and decreases labor turnover in the organizations. It is an important part of the vocational education of our country. The career plan is the professional life of an individual who wants to realize it. Education and careers are two issues that complement each other. This study was conducted to determine the effect of in-service training programs on individual career management in the organizations. The research was applied in the 3rd Organized Industrial Zone in Konya. It is hoped that it will fill the lack of the studies applied in the organizations in the literature, the universe of the study, which was conducted by simple random sampling method, consists of 610 people working in seven different enterprises. The number of the questionnaires were 298 which were returned and 289 of them were accepted as valid. The questionnaire has been consisted of 30 questions related to the perception of in-service training and 19 questions related to personal career plan scale. Cronbach's Alpha value for reliability analysis for in-service training was 0,953 and personal career plan scale was found as 0.863. As a result of the analysis, it has been determined that in-service training programs have been a significant and positive effect on individual career management and sub-dimensions of it.

Key Words: In – Service Training, Individual Career Management, Organizations, and Enterprises

INTRODUCTION

Education is a concept which we encounter in every phase of our lives. It first starts in the family, then continues with our school life. Today, the most important investment is the investment that is made on human beings. The best investment that would be made on human beings is to educate them. Human resource, which is the most valuable asset of organizations, can lead them to success thereby preventing bankruptcy. Organization owners, who are aware of this, have to consider the education phenomenon in every stage of production.

Many elements can be stated as the indicators of success in human relationships and business life such as “technical skills, knowledge, mental skills, emotional intelligence, interest in a certain line of business, public health etc.”. However, career and career goals have undeniable importance in that period (Baltaş, 2008: 1; Şimşek et al., 2008: 340). Career is a phenomenon which is shaped with the decisions people take. While giving these decisions, education becomes an important component of these decision-making processes. Individuals may experience continuous unhappiness if they don't take decisions according to their

personalities, structures, skills, features and desires while choosing their career. Individual career planning begins in childhood. Humans take the most prestigious occupations as a goal, albeit unconsciously. But, when they grow up and make a decision for the university, they make up their minds better and keep their feet on the ground to decide how to build their career while considering today's conditions.

This study which is titled as "A Research on the Effect of In-Service Training Programs on the Individual Career Management" consists of three main parts. In conceptual framework which is mostly based on literature information; studies about the in-service training, individual career management, relationship between the in-service training and individual career with in-service training and individual career management are included. The research models and hypotheses are included in conceptual model and hypotheses section. In the research methodology column, the

subject of the research, its aim and importance, the population-sample-limitations of the research, data collection tools and scales, the analysis of the data and findings are included. The research is concluded with results and suggestions.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In-Service Training

Education is the planned teaching process which is conducted in order to create permanent changes in the knowledge, attitude and behaviors of individuals (Noe, 1986: 736). The success of education is measured with the changes in the behaviors. Education starts with the birth of humans and lasts throughout their lives. For this reason, human education can be performed with various ways which are different from each other and can be planned and unplanned (Duran, 2017: 7). In table1 below, Turkish Education System is explained schematically.

Table 1. Education Types and Levels of Turkish Education System

<i>FORMAL EDUCATION</i>	<i>NON-FORMAL EDUCATION</i>
-Pre-School -Primary School -Secondary School -Higher Education	-Public Education -Apprenticeship Education -In-Service Training -Distance Education

Source: Sağlam (2013: 9).

In-service training which stands for the education an individual receives during their service and is included in the non-formal education system, is a continuous process which is included in life-long education. From this aspect, in-service training is one of the leading subjects which is overstressed in the field of education. Employees who are appointed to a certain assignment or work in a business should get through in-service training in order to maximize their new study skills (Essien et al., 2016: 31), not to

fall behind the developments related to their profession and to make progress in their career (Eren et al., 2007: 29) from the first day the employees start to work and until they leave their job. There are several definitions of in-service training, but according to Taymaz (1981: 4), who stated one of the most accepted definitions, "In-service training; is the training which is conducted in order to provide the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes about profession to the individuals who are hired and working in workplaces of

natural and legal persons for a certain salary or fee.”. According to T. Aytac (2000: 66), “In-service training courses are the planned training activities which aim to increase the effectiveness, efficiency and quality in production and service, decrease the costs, provide the qualitative and quantitative development of selling and service delivery, increase the profits, increase the knowledge, skill and attitude and the level of efficiency throughout the service life of personnel as well as the basic profession and skill training which is given to the labor force in order to increase the tax incomes and savings”. In short, in-service training is a training which includes adaptation to the occupation, progress and all kinds of developmental activities (Şahin and Güçlü, 2010: 222).

In-service training types can be classified under four main sub-headings. The first one is the training that would be given to the novices. These are the training courses which are given in order to adjust the novices to the occupation and to introduce the workplaces and also called as orientation training. The second one is the in-service training which is given in order to provide the employees with an occupation, such as preparatory, internship and basic vocational education. The third one is the training which is given to the employees in order to adapt them to the technological developments and to teach them how to use new equipment and machines. The last one is the training which is given to the managers on areas such as stress management, crisis management and conflict management (Aytac, 2000: 66-67).

The reasons which necessitate the in-service training for the organizations can be stated as follows according to (Şahin and Güçlü, 2010: 223-224):

-Although the previous training courses are related to the workplace, the lack or insufficiency of the knowledge.

-To adopt the social, cultural and economic structure only through education in the ever-growing and ever-changing society.

-The desire of self-development by the employees and associating this with the idea of individual career development and orientation.

-The insufficiency of theoretical knowledge and to acquire the knowledge and skills of the profession during the service and only through practice.

-The changing technology at an unprecedented pace and the constant changes and innovations of various machines and equipment which are used in the organizations of science world.

-The necessity of adaptation of novices to the workplace.

-The obligation of taking systematic and programmed steps in today’s business world to prevent the waste of time and labor in brutal competition environment.

-The necessity of giving occupational health and safety training courses to the employees as required by article 4(a) of Occupational Health and Safety law (İş Sağlığı ve Güvenliği Kanunu, 2012).

The expectation of the employees from the in-service training is related to what do they desire to acquire from the training process. The in-service training perception is a personal evaluation of the employee towards the performance of the training (Clemenz, 2001: 9). At the end of the in-service training, the employees can notice the benefits, knowledge and skills they acquired from the training (Yılmaz et al., 2018: 734).

Individual Career Management

Although the concept of career emerged with the civil service concept beginning from the sixteenth century when the public service started to develop, it’s started to be used in its current meaning in business world as from 1970’s (Şimşek et al., 2016:

128). The word career, which is translated from the French word “carriere” to Turkish, is used as the phases that should be experienced in the occupation and the path that is chosen in the life in French (Çelikmasat, 2018: 3). In today’s work life, it is used to define the occupations which are suitable for developing and advancing in inter-organizational hierarchy (Şimşek et al., 2016: 133).

Since the concept of career is regarded as using the work-related positions of individuals throughout their lives, the career phenomenon has two main dimensions as organization and individual. The organizational dimension is about the aims of an individual in the organization and the path that would be determined on how to reach these aims. The organization should take responsibilities about this subject through intra-communication and consultancy. The other dimension is about the individuals who have to plan their career. Career management which is defined as the self-realization phenomenon, is the planning, developing and advancing in the career of an individual (Öge, 2016: 280).

The career management is shaped according to the skills, knowledge and aims of an individual. There are internal and external factors that lead the individual in career choice. Personality is the most important internal factor. Emotions, thoughts, successes, socio-psychological factors and elements that are related to this are effective in individual career choice. Interests that would emerge during the personality formation and the self-development phenomenon which would emerge with the increasing age shape the individual career management (Öge, 2016: 284).

Education system is effective in the career planning of an individual. It gives the confidence and courage which would present the knowledge that would help individuals to plan their future and realize the career planning activities (Laker and

Laker, 2007: 137-138). The individuals are responsible for the career developments and plans of themselves (Soysal and Söylemez, 2014: 24). Because according to the studies in the literature, the career development and choice are changing from organization-based career management to individual career management and career development is performed individually (Kidd and Green, 2006: 229-230). One of the most important choices of an individual is to make the career choice. Researching a career should be conducted through systematic analysis. However, lots of people choose their careers through a non-systematic way (Ata, 2006: 28).

Career development is the activities individuals perform in order to develop themselves for actualizing their career plans (Russell vd., 2016: 125). In other words, career development is the planning of career by individuals and to transform their career goals to distinctive skills through job seeking and work experience by receiving training. It is important to consider the personal and social features which help the personal and professional identity while examining the career development (Naktiyok and Ersarı, 2017: 13; Hancock and Hums, 2016: 199).

The Relationship of In-Service Training and Individual Career Management

Our time is a period which changes rapidly. In order to keep up with this rapid change, individuals should develop themselves and increase their potentials through training. Increasing the individual performance and potential is important for the concept of career (Soysal and Söylemez, 2014: 24-25). Reaching a high potential and performance in terms of both organizational and individual career would be insufficient without training.

In addition to this, it can be stated that in-service training has many effects on individual career. In-service training enables organizations to provide the required senior managers within the organization. It increases the commitment of employees to the organization and the occupation by supporting their career plans. While the opportunity of promotion of the employee increases due to training, it also changes the perception and attitude of the employee towards the organization positively (Duran, 2017: 18-23). Thus, it contributes to the increase of organizational commitment. In-service training increases the job satisfaction of an individual, increases one's motivation and the possibility of promotion in the organization. It provides individuals to look into the future with confidence, to protect from occupational accidents and to develop the relationships with their colleagues and managers (Pehlivan, 1992: 153). It eases the staffing in the organization (Balçı, 2007: 37). In-service training courses can be efficient and effective when they are performed in a way which would support the functions of the organization and in parallel with the vocational development and advancement. As a result of the career in-service training, there is a potential of providing support for actualizing the projects of an individual towards the future (Eren et al., 2007: 42). Developmental needs which are examined by Maslow (2001) in self-realization phase, are closely related to the career process. When the developmental needs are determined as the difference between the aimed level and current level, the main purpose of in-service training process can be stated as decreasing this difference (Eren et al., 2007: 36).

Studies on In-Service Training and Individual Career Management

Cheng and Ho (2001: 26) found that career commitment was significantly

effective in learning motivation and the transferring of learning. It was concluded that the employees are motivated to learn and more willing to transfer what they learn to their work when they are concerned about issues such as personal development and employment. Eren et al. (2007: 29) examined the in-service teacher training of topics such as needs, career, learning and motivation with a constructivist perspective. Topics such as in-service teacher training, career, learning and motivation were discussed on the basis of a constructivist perspective. As a result, it was determined that constructively, topics such as needs, career, learning and motivation differed from the traditional perspective and that these differences could have the potential to make in-service training programs more effective and efficient.

The following can be included among the contemporary studies evaluating the relationship between in-service training and other variables:

-Doğançay (2018: 89) conducted a research among 160 personnel working at the branch banks in the Eastern Anatolia region. The presence of a positively significant relationship between in-service training and job satisfaction was determined according to the regression analysis results.

- Yılmaz et al. (2018: 737) conducted a study among the firemen in six districts in Konya. As a result of this research, it was determined that the perception of in-service training had a statistical effect on learning motivation in a positively significant way.

-Mahmutoğulları (2015: 107-108) conducted examinations in 25 five-star hotels in Bodrum with tourism operation licenses. According to the research, the employees' learning motivation levels increase as their perception of in-service training increases.

-Konya (2013: 90) conducted a study among the bank employees in Istanbul on

the motivation levels of in-service training recipients. In the study, motivation levels of bank employees were examined in two dimensions as motivation that is related to the job itself and motivation established outside the job. The average of the employees' levels of motivation resulting from factors related to the job itself was found as 3.336, and the average of the levels of motivation resulting from factors outside the job was found as 3.439. According to this, it was concluded that higher levels of motivation were established from factors outside the job.

-Duran (2017: 90) conducted a study on the subject among the flight personnel of a civil airline passenger transportation business operating in the private sector. In the study, he examined the effect of in-service training on motivation. It was concluded that there was a concrete relationship between in-service training and motivation in terms of many variables.

The following can be summarized among the contemporary studies evaluating the relationship between career and other variables:

- One of the recent studies conducted on career is the research conducted by Çelikmasat (2018: 76) in which he used the semi-structured face-to-face interview technique. The population of the study consisted of the human resources managers and general managers of 48 hotels operating in the Konya province. As a result of the interviews conducted with 85 people in the population, it was concluded that the employees of the businesses that successfully implement the process of career management reached a more qualified point and that this affected the success of the business.

Çetiner (2014: 110) conducted a research among the people studying as undergraduate students in the Institute of Social Sciences at Süleyman Demirel University while also working. A statistically significant relationship

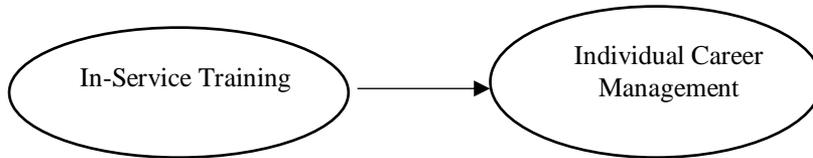
between career planning and internal, external and general job satisfaction. According to this, job satisfaction increases as career planning increases.

-Pinar (2016: 83) conducted a study with a population that consisted of public and private sector employees living in Istanbul. In the end, when the hypotheses were evaluated, it was acknowledged that there was a positive linear relationship between motivation and individual career management. This conclusion was reached based on the results of the correlation analysis.

THE CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

In-service training and individual career management are two concepts that are important both for businesses and for employees. Although in-service training has the characteristics of an expense for businesses, it develops the knowledge, skills and capabilities of employees in accordance with the requirements of the job. In-service training, which appears as an expense for businesses in the beginning, enables workers to be trained in accordance with the organizational needs, pays for itself in the long term, and increases job efficiency, the self-confidence, sense of importance and motivation of employees. Individual career planning, on the other hand, serves as a catalyst for employees to work eagerly and excitedly. Human beings have always pursued hope and expectation. In today's business life, the biggest expectation is towards career. Therefore, this research was conducted in order to examine whether there is a relationship between career and in-service training, which helps employees improve themselves and plan for their careers, and whether in-service training affects individual career management, the research model was designed as follows;

The Research Model



Research Hypotheses:

H1: In-service training programs have a positive significant effect on individual career management.

Sub-Hypotheses:

H1a: In-service training programs have a positive significant effect on career planning, which is one of the sub-dimensions of individual career management.

H1b: In-service training programs have a positive significant effect on vocational development, which is one of the sub-dimensions of individual career management.

H1c: In-service training programs have a positively significant effect on personal features, which is one of the sub-dimensions of individual career management.

METHOD OF RESEARCH

The Subject, Aim, and Importance of the Research

The aim of the study was to determine the effect of in-service training programs on individual career management. The research was conducted in the businesses at the Konya Organized Industrial Site. In-service training and individual career management are two subjects that were frequently researched on with different variables in recent years. However, the lack of research conducted in the literature on these two subjects and their sub-dimensions is notable. At the same time, most of the studies were conducted in the public sector and especially among

teachers. This study, on the other hand, was carried out directly on the businesses in an organized industrial site. In this context, it is considered that this study is important in terms of both being conducted at the level of non-public businesses and filling the gap in the literature.

The Population, Sample and Limitations of the Research

The study was conducted with the Simple Random Sampling Method. Seven (7) businesses located in the 3rd Organized Industrial Site in Konya were contacted and 610 people working there were determined as the study population. The filling of the questionnaire was done on a voluntary basis. The questionnaire could not be administered to all employees due to reasons related to time and cost criteria such as some of the employees being on leave at the time of distributing the questionnaires, some of them being unwilling to fill it, and some not being allowed to participate by their superiors while working. The number of questionnaires administered and collected from the businesses was two hundred and ninety-eight (298). Nine (9) of these were considered as invalid and the study was conducted with a total of 289 people as participants of the study. According to this, the rate of responding to the questionnaire was 47% ($289/610=0.47\times 100$) and this rate was considered to be sufficient.

Data Collection Tool and Scales

A quantitative research approach was adopted in order to test the established hypotheses in accordance with the aim of the research. In the research, a questionnaire form, which is one of the quantitative data collection methods, was used, and a descriptive research was conducted. The questionnaire form consists of three sections and a total of 57 questions. In the first part, there are eight (8) questions relating to gender, marital status, age, educational status, title, total working year, term of employment in the workplace and number of in-service training received.

In the in-service training perception scale, the 30-item scale developed by (Clemenz vd., 2005: 55; Clemenz, 2001: 230) was used. The in-service training perception scale was evaluated with the 5-point Likert scale. The translated Turkish version by Mahmutoğulları (2015: 94-95,127) was used in his study was adapted and used in this study too in order not to fall into error while using the scale.

In the study, the personal career planning scale developed by F. Şahin (2007: 120) was used. Şahin referred to Serpil Aytaç's book "Career in Work Life" (Aytaç, 1997) while forming the scale expressions. The 5-item Likert type scale was used with each item given in the form of completely agree, agree, undecided, disagree and completely disagree depending on the intensity of the emotion stated. The Career Planning scale is divided into 3 sub-dimensions, namely; career planning, vocational development and personal features. There are 19 questions in these three sections (Çetiner, 2014: 119). Questions 1-6 in the Career Planning Subscale, questions 7-13 are Vocational Development subscale and questions 14-19 are related to the Personal Features sub-dimensions.

The Analysis of Data

The compatibility of the data towards normal distribution was tested with the Shapiro-wilk test, the Student t test was used in comparing the features with normal distribution in 2 independent groups, and the Mann Whitney u test was used in comparing the features with abnormal distribution in 2 independent groups. Also, the one-way variance analysis (ANOVA) and LSD multiple comparison tests were used for comparing the numerical data in more than 2 independent groups, and the Kruskal Wallis test and All pairwise multiple comparison test were used for the features with abnormal distribution. The relationships between the numerical variables were tested with the Pearson correlation coefficient. In the scales used, the Performance scale was predicted with the help of other scales using the Multivariate linear regression method. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were calculated with the aim of testing validity and reliability. The Exploratory Factor analysis was performed on the scales used. The factorability dimension of the scale used was analyzed with the Principal Component Analysis. Whether the data showed a homogeneous distribution was evaluated with the values of the "KMO (Keiser Meyer Olkin) Scale Compatibility", which is the first step in evaluating the factor analyses of scales while the Barlett's Test of Sphericity was used to evaluate whether the correlations that the factor analysis is based on are statistically significant. For the descriptive statistic, mean and standard deviation values were given for the numerical variables while number and % values were given for categorical variables. The SPSS Windows package program version 24.0 was used for statistical analyses and $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

Findings

The initial analyses are the analyses about the reliability of the research. According to the analyses, the Cronbach's Alpha value of the Perception of In-Service Training Scale was determined as 0.953. The value of Personal Career Plan

Scale was found as 0.863. Cronbach's Alpha values of the scales are high. This shows that the questionnaire is reliable.

Table 2. Results of Reliability Analysis

	N	Min.	Max	Average	Stand ard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
PIST	289	30.00	158.00	114.66	24.07	0.953
PCP	289	19.00	105.00	73.05	13.13	0.863

Eight questions were posed to the participants of the research concerning their demographic features. These are gender, marital status, age, education level, title, total working year, service

duration in this organization and the number of participations in in-service training courses. The results were given in the table below.

Table 3. Demographic Features of the Participants (N=289).

Variable	Number	%	
Gender	Male	254	87.9
	Female	35	12.1
Marital Status	Married	201	70.0
	Single	76	26.5
	Divorced	10	3.5
Age	Under 20.	13	4.5
	20- 29	97	33.6
	30- 39	105	36.3
	40- 49	56	19.4
	50 +	18	6.2
Education Level	Primary School	54	18.7
	Secondary School	64	22.1
	High School	65	22.5
	Vocational School	18	6.2
	Associate Degree	17	5.9
	Bachelor's Degree	62	21.5
	Post Graduate	9	3.1
Title	Chief	28	9.7
	Departmental Manager	31	10.7
	Employee	215	74.4

	Other	14	4.8
Total Service Year	1-3	41	14.2
	3-6	31	10.7
	6-10	68	23.5
	10-15	82	28.4
	15-20	34	11.8
	21 +	33	11.4
Service duration in this organization	1-3	132	45.7
	3-6	60	20.8
	6-10	62	21.5
	10-15	28	9.7
	16 +	7	2.4
Number of participated in-service training courses	None	35	12.1
	1	66	22.8
	2	45	15.6
	3	32	11.1
	4 +	111	38.4

It was revealed that 18.7% of the participants were primary school graduates, 22.1% of them were secondary school graduates, 22.5% of them were vocational school graduates, 6.2% of them were associate degree graduates; 21.5% of them were bachelor's degree graduates and 3.1% of them graduated from post-graduate level. While 70% of the participants were married, 26.5% of them were single and 3.5% of them were divorced. 12.1% of the participants were female and 87.9% of them were male. The title of 74.4% of the participants were employee, 10.7% of them were departmental manager, 9.7% of them were chief and the rest of the 4.8% of them were occupying other positions and most of these titles are engineer. The service duration of 14.2% of the participants were between 1-3 years, 10.7% of them were between 3-6 years, 23.5% of them were between 6-10 years, 11.8% of them were between 10-15 years and 11.4% of them were over 20 years. Other demographic features are presented in the table.

Scale analyses were conducted in accordance with the demographic

information. Different matters are as follows: A significant difference was determined in the Personal Career Plan Scale scores of males and females ($p=0.003$). It was determined that the personal career plan scores of males (72.21 ± 13.28) were higher than females (79.24 ± 10.24). It can be concluded that males give more importance to their career than females. A statistically significant difference was determined in the Perception of In-Service Training scale between the married and single participants ($P=0.004$). It was determined that the averages of these scores were higher in married participants. Thus, it can be concluded that the perception of married participants is higher towards in-service training.

Table 4. Descriptive Features of the Questions in In-Service Training Scale

	Avg.	Sd.
The training was directly related to my job.	4.0	1.3
I was informed about “why” the training was important.	4.1	1.0
The training was reflecting my job realistically.	4.0	1.1
The training was based on our needs.	3.9	1.2
The trainer was competent to the content of the training.	4.1	1.1
The content of the training was created by the people who had the same job as me.	3.8	1.2
The trainer was confident of himself/herself.	4.0	1.0
The trainer associated the training with his/her job experience.	3.9	1.1
The training was conducted in a humorous environment.	3.8	1.2
The training was fun.	3.8	1.1
The trainer performed his/her job gladly.	3.9	1.0
Active learning methods were used in the training.	3.9	1.0
I learned some things from the other participants.	3.8	1.1
There was group work in the training.	3.8	1.1
Catering was provided throughout the training.	3.4	1.4
Training environment was of high quality.	3.8	2.1
The classroom was arranged by considering the comfort of the participants.	3.7	1.2
I knew how much time would be spent on a subject during the training.	3.5	1.3
Short breaks were given throughout the training.	3.9	1.2
I knew the order of the training content.	3.5	1.4
I felt comfortable during the training.	3.9	1.1
The training environment was unofficial.	3.4	2.2
The training atmosphere was supportive.	3.8	1.0
I was not criticized or condemned throughout the training. I felt safe.	4.0	1.0
The trainer called me by my name.	3.4	1.4
The trainer behaved friendly to me and my colleagues.	3.9	1.0
The trainer respected my previous work experience.	4.0	1.0
I expected the training results to be followed after I went back to my job from the training.	3.9	1.1
I was informed about how I would be rewarded when I use the knowledge I acquired from the training in the workplace.	3.6	1.3
I was tested with an exam (verbal, written or practice) which measures the things I learned.	3.9	1.2

The arithmetic average of the Perception of In-Service Training is 3.81. The scale average is quite high. This means that the participants’ perception of the in-service training is high. In other words, it is possible to state that there was

a successful in-service training practice and employee interest in the organizations. When the answers were examined, the most agreed statements were “I was informed about “why” the training was important” and “The trainer was

competent to the content of the training”. The least agreed statements were “The training environment was unofficial” and

“Catering was provided throughout the training”.

Table 5. Descriptive Features about the Questions in the Individual Career Plan Scale

	Avg.	Sd.
I made a career plan while choosing my occupation.	3.9	1.2
I evaluated the opinions of my surroundings (family, friends etc.) while planning my career.	4.0	2.2
Although I planned my career, luck and coincident were the major things that shape my choice of profession	3.7	1.3
I know the positions that I can promote to in my organization.	3.9	1.2
I believe that Career Planning is necessary in terms of following the new developments about my occupation.	4.1	1.1
I find it necessary to organize my vocational development in accordance with a certain career plan.	4.0	1.0
I am proud of my occupation.	4.1.	1.0
My occupation contributes to my personal development.	4.1	1.1
There are sufficient possibilities for the vocational and personal development of employees in our organization.	3.9	1.1
The in-service training courses I have participated have significant contributions to my vocational development.	4.0	1.1
The assurance of my future is effective while I am choosing my occupation.	4.1	1.6
A good salary and the assurance of the future are the important things, not career.	2.9	1.4
I enjoy doing new and different things in my occupation.	4.2	1.5
My personal features do not comply with the occupation I have chosen.	2.7	1.4
I know myself well and my needs.	4.2	0.9
I do not have sufficient features to be promoted in my occupation.	2.8	1.7
Planning and developing my career increase my efficiency and effectiveness.	4.0	1.0
Since Career Planning provides an opportunity to use the abilities and skills to an individual, it motivates the individual.	4.1	1.0
I am making an effort to advance in my career.	4.3	0.9

The arithmetic average of the Individual Career Plan is 3.84. The average of the scale is high. Therefore, there is a high expectancy of career in personnel of the organizations and they give importance to career management. When the answers are examined the most agreed statement is “I am making an effort to advance in my career”. The least agreed statement is “My personal features do not comply with the

occupation I have chosen”. Questions ranging from 1-6 cover Career Planning sub-scale, questions from 7-13 relate to the Vocational Development sub-scale and questions ranging from 14-19 in the Career Planning Scale were about the sub-dimensions of Personal Features. According to this, the arithmetic average of Career Planning sub-scale was determined as 3.93, Vocational

Development sub-scale as 3.9 and Personal Features as 3.68. It can be

observed that the highest average is in career planning sub-scale.

Table 6. The Results of Spearman Correlation Analysis between the Perception of In-Service Training Scale and Career Planning Scale

		Perception of In-Service Training Scale
Individual Career Plan Scale	R	0.660**
	P	0.001
	N	280
Career Planning Sub-Scale	R	0.554**
	P	0.001
	N	284
Vocational Development Sub-Scale	R	0.612**
	P	0.001
	N	280
Personal Features Sub-Scale	R	0.519**
	P	0.001
	N	284

r: Spearman correlation coefficient, n: number of participants

** Correlation coefficient is significant on the level of 0.01

* Correlation coefficient is significant on the level of 0.05

According to Salkind (2016), correlation coefficient (r) interpretations are as follows: 0.0-0.2: Too weak or no relationship, 0.2-0.4: Weak relationship, 0.4-0.6: Medium relationship, 0.6-0.8: Strong relationship, 0.8-1.0: Very strong relationship. The correlation coefficient between the Perception of In-Service Training was found as $r=0.660$ and this shows that there is a positive, strong and significant ($P=0.001$) relationship between them. The correlation between the In-Service Training and Career Planning sub-scale is $r=0.554$. A medium positive relationship was revealed between the two variables. The relationship between the two variables are also significant ($p<0.05$). According to this, there is a positive and significant relationship between the perception of In-Service Training and career planning.

The correlation between the In-Service Training and Vocational Development is $r=0.612$. A strong positive relationship was shown between the two variables. The relationship between the two variables are also significant ($p<0.05$). According to this, there is a positive and significant relationship between the perception of In-Service training and vocational development. The correlation between the In-Service Training and Personal Features sub-scales is $r=0.519$. A medium positive relationship was depicted between the two variables. The relationship between the two variables are also significant ($p<0.05$). According to this, there is a positive and significant relationship between the perception of in-service training and personal features.

Table 7. The Regression Analysis Results between the Perception of In-Service Training and Individual Career Plan

Coefficients						
Model		Non-standardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficient	T	P
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	31.56	2.894		10.905	0.001
	PIST	0.362	0.025	0.660	14.642	0.001

Dependent Variable: ICP Scale

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Average of Squares	F	P
1	Regression	21096.56	1	21096.56	214.37	0.001 ^b
	Error	27358.01	278	98.41		
	Total	48454.57	279			

a. Dependent variable: ICP Scale
b. Estimators: (Constant), PIST scale

Independent Variable X1: Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)

Dependent variable Yi: Individual Career Plan Scale (ICP)

Model: $(PIST) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 (ICP)$

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	,660 ^a	,435	,433	9,92019	

a. Predictors: (Constant), Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)

The correlation between the independent variable (PIST) and dependent variable (ICP) was $r=0.660$ and there was a strong positive and significant relationship between the two variables ($p<0.05$). Regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the two variables. The analysis results were presented in the table above. A model was created between the two variables and whether or not there is a significant relationship between them was tested with ANOVA test. In ANOVA table which shows the model significance, it was observed that the created model was significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of the

model it was found that $R^2=0.435$. That is, the 43.5% of the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. Therefore, our main hypothesis H1 is accepted. In other words, in-service training courses have significant and positive effects on individual career management.

Table 8. Regression Analysis Results between the Perception of In-Service Training Scale and Career Planning Sub-Scales

Coefficients					
	Non-standardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficient	T	P
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	26.881	1.806		14.888	0.001
PIST	1.959	0.074	0.843	26.295	0.001
Dependent variable: CPS Scale					

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Average of Squares	F	P
1	Regression	02772.34	1	2772.34	124.60	0.001
	Error	6274.27	283	22.25		
	Total	9046.62	283			
a. Dependent variable: CPS Scale						
b. Estimators: (Constant), PIST Scale						

Independent variable Xi: Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)

Dependent variable Yi: Career Planning Sub-Scale (CPS)

Model: $(PIST) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(CPS)$

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	,554 ^a	,306	,304	4,71691	
a. Predictors: (Constant), Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)					

The correlation between the independent variable (PIST) and dependent variable (CPS) was $r=0.554$. Therefore, there exists a medium positive and significant relationship between the two variables ($p<0.05$). Regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the two variables. The results of the analysis were presented in the table above. A model was created between the two variables and whether or not there is a significant relationship between them was tested with ANOVA test. In the ANOVA table which shows the model significance, it was observed that the created model was significant

($p<0.05$). As a result of the model it was found that $R^2=0.306$. That is, the 30.6% of the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. An increase of one unit in PIST scale causes an increase of 1.959 units in CP sub-scale. Therefore, **our sub-hypothesis H1a is accepted**. Hence, in-service training courses have significant and positive effect on the career planning which is one of the sub-dimensions of individual career management.

Table 9. Regression Analysis Results between the Perception of In-Service Training and Vocational Development Sub-Scale

Coefficients					
	Non-standardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficient	T	P
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	11.740	1.233		9.519	0.001
PIST	0.136	0.011	0.612	12.907	0.001
Dependent Variable: VDS Scale					

ANOVA^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Average of Squares	F	P
1	Regression	2977.107	1	2977.107	166.595	0.001
	Error	4967.964	278	17.870		
	Total	7945.071	279			
a. Dependent variable: VDS Scale						
b. Estimators: (Constant), PIST scale						

Independent variable Xi: Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)

Dependent variable Yi: Vocational Development Sub-Scale (VDS)

Model: $(PIST) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(VDS)$

Model Summary					
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	
1	,612 ^a	,375	,372	4,22734	
a. Predictors: (Constant), Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)					

The correlation between the independent variable and dependent variable is $r=0.612$ and a strong positive relationship was determined between the two variables ($p<0.05$). According to this, the relationship between the independent variable and dependent variable is significant and in the ANOVA table which shows the significance of the model, it was observed that the model was significant. It was observed that the model is $R^2=0,375$. 37.5% of the dependent variable can be explained with the independent variable.

The correlation between the independent variable (PIST) and the dependent variable (VDS) is $r=0.612$, Therefore, there exists a medium positive

and significant relationship between the two variables ($p<0.05$). Regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the two variables. The results of the analysis were presented in the table above. A model was created between the two variables and whether or not there is a significant relationship between them was tested with ANOVA test. In ANOVA table which shows the model significance, it was observed that the created model was significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of the model it was found that $R^2=0.375$. That is, the 37.5% of the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. Therefore, our sub - hypothesis H1b is accepted.

Consequently, in-service training courses have a significant and positive effect on the vocational development which is one

of the sub-scales of individual career management.

Table 10. Regression Analysis Results between the Perception of In-Service Training Scale and Personal Features Sub-Scale

Coefficients					
	Non-standardized Coefficients		Standard Coefficient	t	P
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	11.205	1.099		10.198	0.001
PIST	0.096	0.009	0.519	10.190	0.001
Dependent Variable: PFS Scale					

ANOVA ^a						
Model		Sum of Squares	df	Average of Squares	F	P
1	Regression	1497.505	1	1497.505	103.834	0.001
	Error	4067.045	282	14.422		
	Total	5564.549	283			
a. Dependent variable: PDS scale						
b. Estimators: (Constant), PIST scale						

Independent variable X_i : Perception of in-service training (PIST)

Dependent variable Y_i : Personal Development Sub-Scale (PDS)

Model: $(PIST) = \beta_0 + \beta_1(PDS)$

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,519 ^a	,269	,267	3,79765
a. Predictors: (Constant), Perception of In-Service Training (PIST)				

The correlation between the independent variable (PIST) and the dependent variable (CPS) was $r=0.519$ and a medium positive and significant relationship was determined between the two variables ($p<0.05$). Regression analysis was conducted in order to determine whether or not there is a relationship between the two variables. The results of the analysis were presented in the table above. A model was created between the two variables and whether or not there is a significant relationship between them was tested with ANOVA

test. In ANOVA table which shows the model significance, it was observed that the created model was significant ($p<0.05$). As a result of the model it was found that $R^2=0.269$. That is, the 26.9% of the dependent variable can be explained by the independent variable. Therefore, our sub-hypothesis H1c is accepted. Therefore, in-service training courses have a significant and positive effect on the personal features which is one of the sub-scales of individual career management.

CONCLUSION SUGGESTIONS

AND

Lately, our country is one of the fastest developing countries and it ranks in the 20 biggest economies of the world. The permanent and continuous growth can be provided through a Turkey which attempts to switch to production economy and succeeds in this. It is undeniable that the biggest need of growing Turkey by producing, is qualified education in every field. Each phase of education is important and it is a process of which the results are obtained in time. The basic education which is given in childhood and youth, transforms into an occupation-oriented high education later. Education does not end when the work life has begun. We encounter in-service training during this phase. It is a kind of training which has many types such as orientation training, training courses that are given when a new machine and equipment is bought, occupational safety training courses and the training courses that are taken for the higher positions. Individuals make a career plan from their childhood. They try to find and work in the most suitable profession for them. They receive the necessary training courses in order to reach their career plans. Although sometimes they could not work in a profession that they desire, they work in a job in which they earn their living. They continue to receive training courses while doing their jobs. In other words, individuals receive training in every phase of their lives and make career management plans individually. They perform this in order to be promoted in the organization they work, to find a better job opportunity in another organization and to complete their personal or vocational development.

This research was conducted in order to explore the effect of in-service training on individual career management. The sample consists of businesses in the

Organized Industrial Site in Konya. It was concluded based on the findings of the research that in-service training courses have significant and positive effect on individual career management. It was discovered that in-service training has a significant and positive effect on the sub-dimensions of individual career management. It was also established that the employees' perception of in-service training and individual career management results were high. In many similar studies about this topic, it was discovered that in-service training positively affected other variables. From this dimension, our research supports the results of previous studies.

According to the results of the research, employees are aware of the fact that in-service training would lead the career plan. The employees know that they can continue their job at the end of the training, get promoted or the knowledge they acquire from these training courses would contribute to their career in future work life. When the subject is analyzed in terms of organization's structure, the career expectancy of the employee increases productivity, motivation and quality. Businesses usually struggle to find qualified employee or suitable personnel to their work fields. In-service training can provide quite beneficial results in filling the deficiency in this area. This situation means new career opportunities for the individual. This phenomenon which can be considered as the mutual win-win policy, includes significant results in terms of our country's economy. Another aspect is that subjects that are not included in formal education system or curriculum can be given through in-service training and this gap of education can be filled. It functions as an important multiplier of our education system. The owners or senior managers of the businesses in the research drew the attention of the researcher to the costs involved in in-service training. Furthermore, it was emphasized that there

are various government supports for these training courses and these can be used beneficially. Using only the Organized Industrial Site of Konya as a population is the most important limitation of the research. Although there are results that support the results of previous studies, generally accepted results would be acquired through new studies which would be conducted in more provinces and industrial sites.

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ADOPTING A GENERALIZABLE INDEX FOR P/CVE IMPACT EVALUATIONS

Scofield Yoni Awiti Muliru

Scofield Associates & PhD Student, University of Nairobi, Kenya

director@scofieldassociates.co.ke

ABSTRACT

With the increasing role of preventing/countering violent extremism (P/CVE) interventions in development and security initiatives, practitioners seek rigorous methods for evaluating the effectiveness of such interventions. However, such techniques remain limited because of the nascent and diverse nature of the field. Significant analytic challenges in proving causality include contextual variations in indicator development and barriers to data collection. Evaluations of interventions also grapple with the concept of “enough-time-for-change”; yet, no consensus has emerged on how much time is needed before interventions can produce its desired impact. While many studies use variables on attitudes, perceptions, behaviours, or inter-personal relationships in isolation, compiling these variables into an index better illuminates causal linkages between them and violent extremism. It also emphasises communities’ resilience capacities as a robust metric for assessing P/CVE impact in different contexts. Moreover, having a minimum accepted timeline to track influence from radicalisation, or change in resilience abilities, clarifies a roadmap for project evaluation. This paper borrows from the formulae developed for the Isiolo PVE index, making the case that violent extremism in communities is dependent on three indicators: Radicalisation, Resilience Capacities and the Cost of Action. To justify the use of contextual and shared variables as indicators for measuring P/CVE impact, the paper includes; 1) a literature review of sampled

measurement tools for VE, 2) successful P/CVE programs, and 3) the role of religious ideology in the Horn of Africa. This paper thus provides generalizable indicators and a minimum time for change, as standards for P/CVE impact evaluations.

Keywords: Variables (Attitudes, Behaviours, Relationships), Scales (Resilience, Radicalisation, Cost of Action) & Minimum Time for Impact

INTRODUCTION

The state of violent extremism in the Horn of Africa is uncertain. The broader Horn of Africa countries are learning and have developed a myriad of plans and strategies of responding to violent extremism. Though the hard approach that includes counter-terrorism remain applicable in various occasions, a system-wide approach that incorporates the whole society is undergoing full adoption. This preventative approach has resulted in strategies that provide thematic areas for engagement and theories of change that respond to the ever-changing phenomena.

Countries like Somalia and Kenya (Counter Extremism Project, 2020) have developed national strategies for preventing violent extremism, and other countries in the region are following the process. The Horn of Africa is also home to the Djibouti Centre housed by the Intergovernmental Authority on Development (IGAD); who have developed a regional strategy to prevent

violent extremism (Maalim & Nyambura, 2018). The strategy harmonises all the activities to prevent violent extremism at the regional level; with more concentration on migration and movement.

Even with the myriad of interventions and the growing policy directives, there is no clarity on a harmonised status of engagement on "prevent" or "progress" processes on P/CVE. Most of the research work lack statistical data to provide inferential analysis that is generalizable beyond the given micro-context. To date, numerous successes cannot be accounted for cumulatively. The successes are program-specific and are void of a longitudinal advantage beyond the project. The situation is complicated further with the assumptions from a limited series of attack at a timeframe on an annual comparison; as a means of mentioning success or failure over a period. P/CVE investment options are, therefore made based on what works at the program level, without closely attending to the impact from program activities on the broader communities and the capacities for sustainability (Gielen, 2017). To put it bluntly, the Horn of Africa governments and practitioners cannot answer the question of "Where are we" in P/CVE. Though suggestions have moved from "What works?" to "What works where and how?" (Gielen, 2017), expanding this knowledge to apply to a broader context would be beneficial for future P/CVE interventions.

This paper borrows from the formulae developed for the Isiolo P/CVE index in Kenya. In this research, the author argues that violent extremism in communities is dependent on three indicators: Radicalisation, Resilience Capacities and the Cost of Action. This paper confirms that the same can be applied to a broader section of the Horn of Africa. It will briefly explore the current state of P/CVE programming and the state of violent

extremism in the Horn of Africa. It will review the tools available for terrorism risk assessment to highlight some of the lessons and challenges of utilising the tools. It will evidence the presence of strategies developed to account for a systems approach without a substantive process of measuring progress over time. The paper proposes the utilisation of an index to account for the fluidity of the subject matter.

Available tools for Assessment and Measurement

The development of an evidence-based and empirically valid risk assessment tool not only aids resource prioritisation but supports attempts to manage a variety of hazards (Roberts and Horgan, 2008). The violent extremist profile is improbable for discovery but there are general indicators and behavioural patterns that act as markers for individuals planning to commit an act of violence (Cook et al., 2014). The same can also be applied to identify indicators of success from P/CVE programming.

There are a series of measures globally to track the progress and effectiveness of violent extremism (VE) and preventing and countering violent extremism (P/CVE) activities. Most of the techniques created to measure the impact of VE tracking efforts are not easily generalizable (Pressman & Flockton, 2012), as they represent specific contexts and regions around the world. In March 2017, the Department of Homeland Security conducted a study to understand the assessment tools for radicalisation into violent extremism. (RTI, 2017). As documented by the authors, a risk factor identifies a characteristic affecting the probability, while an indicator is a marker of affliction (Smith, 2016). The report also supported the thesis that not every individual who exhibits one or more potential risks associated with an outcome is necessarily engaging in or experiencing radicalisation to violent extremism. While

these tools do not measure the progress and impact of P/CVE programs, they provide recommendations for interventions based on the results. Specific analysis of individual tools provides some insights for risk to indicator transition that is crucial for a P/CVE index.

To start, the Violent Extremism Risk Assessment (VERA) is one of the tools developed to measure risk assessment for violent extremism. This tool seeks to determine valid risk factors for violent extremism. The tool consists of 28 items categorised into five sections including; Attitudes, Context, History, Demographics and Protective Items (Roberts and Horgan, 2008). Over time, the study of radicalisation emphasised the role played by the environment, which was lacking for this tool. This resulted in the revision to VERA 2 released in 2010. This version include in twenty-five risk factors and six protective factors (Pressman & Flockton, 2010). The second iteration of the tool remains an individualised assessment approach that avoids the membership, behaviour, and other factors in groups; likely to play a deciding role for individual's into violent extremism (Cook et al., 2013; Pyncheon & Borum, 1999).

Another tool is the Extremism Risk Guidelines (ERG) that is focused on the individual, social support and the influence of groups over the individual. In totality, twenty-one factors are included in the tool, but its development sample is only represented by convicted extremists initially studied. The factors are distributed to cover the beliefs, motivations, intent, and capability, as risk factors (Ajzen and Fishbein's, 2005).

Radar is another tool that is consistently use to provide observable steps in the process of radicalisation and recruitment. It consists of a screening assessment and an in-depth assessment. The screening assessment contains fifteen indicators categorised under ideology, social relations, and action orientation. The tool

focuses on high-risk individuals to be included in deradicalisation programs rather than the prediction of low level violent actions (Guikema, 2012).

Terrorism radicalisation assessment protocol (TRAP), is another tool that assesses the warning behaviours and distal characteristics, preceding targeted and non-random violence. The tool argues that identifying behavioural patterns as they relate to the timeframe of an attack, the law enforcement and mental health professionals can determine the appropriate level of monitoring and risk awareness required (Meloy, & Gill, 2016). From the review of available tools, the field of violent extremism research has not yet adequately identified and validated an empirical list of protective factors that can prevent the engagement in extremist violence (Davies, 2013, Garrick, 2002). Additionally, existing tools include errors from human judgement, the validity issues, suboptimal weighting of risk factors, and the inability to correctly factor the low occurrence of violent behaviours into the assessment (Scurich 2016; Gill, 2016). For instance, The VERA, protocol assess risks related to terrorism and violent extremism, but remains rigid to multidimensional nature of the problem (Netherlands Institute for Forensic Psychiatry and Psychology, 2019; Pressman & Flockton, 2012).

While the tools developed a focus on assessing the risks associated with violent extremism, there are recommendations for measurement processes to account for inferential data (Udéhén, 2002). Some of these include experimental and quasi-experiments to serve well during the analysis of material and evaluation of programs that respond to violent extremism (Gielen, 2017). However, experimental models do not include empirical evidence linking to the intended effects resulting from the complexity of human behaviour and variable induced actions to their environments (Braddock,

2020). It is not to say that they have not been used before, as there are studies that document quasi-experimental utilisation (Feddes et al., 2015). The Switching-Replication Design as suggested in the quasi-experimental processed, serve as the better option in extant counter-radicalisation practices and deradicalisation programs, given the demand for empirical data supporting (or refuting) the effectiveness of programs' practices (Braddock, 2020).

Similar to the risk factors identified in the tools mentioned above, indicators of measurement are used to explain overall outcomes in communities. The thesis for the Global Terrorism Index (GTI) revolves around the attacks and the impact on GDP. Based on these variables, GTI argues the rise or reduction of terrorism based on the scale. However, though the Global Terrorism Index (Institute for Economic Peace, 2018), serves as a critical tool to provide a comprehensive summary of the key global trends and patterns, it has been criticised for using variables that cannot be empirically measured or linked to interventions. Scholars agree that protective factors or otherwise termed resilience capacities play a critical role in the pathway to violent extremism (Horgan, 2009; Jacobsen, 2010 and Hoffman, 2006). Yet and as an example, resilience capacities in communities is also lacking in the analysis. The dynamic nature of every region in the world calls for the creation of a unique measurement tool to be able to measure change effectively. There are lessons learnt from existing tools. The indicators from the tools provide risk factors; as a starting point for the transition to measuring P/CVE by highlighting a common and shared understanding of the signs to look out for before and after. These tools act as a depiction of problems to be solved rather than a rendering of prediction (Borum, 2015). For instance, the tools highlight the individual

characteristics of would-be terrorist; by analysing certain risks, while including protective factors to deter individuals from engaging in violent extremism (Aldrich, 2014). It is also worth noting that the resilience capacities are dynamic and evolve depending on individual belief or the influence from interventions.

The formulation of P/CVE interventions has protective factors in mind, but their effectiveness depend on their interpretation. As an example, if specific groups and communities negatively and disproportionately feel targeted by any P/CVE strategy, the influence to the community may be negative. Globally, governments have followed mechanisms that allow for the reduction of vulnerabilities into violent extremism through concentrating on protective factors; otherwise categorised as "prevent." These factors are applied to the community; indicating their critical role, as they acts as an early warning system (Briggs, 2010), and form part of the protective factors or resilience capacities that can safeguard young people from violent extremism. Communities are also spaces where the real and perceived grievances of young people can be addressed.

The evaluation of P/CVE programs becomes challenging due to the multiplicity of definitions and frameworks used to inform the policies and programs at all the levels. This challenge is exacerbated by the void coming from limited inferential data of individual behaviour to the broader population. Additionally, though the target population for P/CVE interventions as at-risk individuals, the assumptions allocated to the outcomes is placed on attitudes and behaviour changes that influence the community or the environment. It is for this reason that most of the P/CVE interventions allow for the target population to receive guidance from "role models" in their environments. However,

lack of simple pathways to violent extremism indicates not only complexity in the selection of the attributes but also in the relationship between the attributed. Violent extremism view from the path of radicalisation is categorised to include an ideology, behavioural conditioning and an environment that facilitates the uptake.

The challenges associated with 'context specificity' in CVE evaluation can be addressed by an measurement tool that incorporates a systems approach to cover the greater context. An index provides a scale that allows for the inclusion of the core factors that affect an issue while remaining aware of the contextual. The argument made by the such a tool can provide a relational engagement that responds to radicalisation, resilience and the cost of action. A measurement tool of this kind should also be dynamic to allow for the changing nature of variable importance in the environment. An index is therefore best suited to account for the diverse attributes, as it uses a realist view with the premise that each evaluation study can be valuable in terms of analysing of relevant contexts, mechanisms, and outcomes (Pawson, & Tilley, 1997). By using a realist view, the P/CVE- Index creates a middle-range theory to measure progress over time. It incorporates three components that do not act linearly and are highly dependent on the context in which they take place.

The P/CVE-Index can review a broad range of programming that collectively contributes to P/CVE activities through a multidimensional evaluation. The development of an index outlines the variable ratios that provide inferential statistical data for CVE impact in communities. This data can be utilised at the first level of the switching-replication design; a quasi-experimental design preferred for CVE evaluations. The P/CVE index can provide indicators for longitudinal baseline data to compare changes from interventions based on

specific indicators and activities implemented over time.

The index can also provide an opportunity for illuminating a pathway towards the predictive validity, concurrent validity, and discriminant validity based on the dimensions proposed (Davies, 2013). As evidenced in the pilot research in Isiolo-Kenya, it anchors and supports the radicalisation vs resilience thesis while making a case on the impact of investment when countering violent extremism. The P/CVE-Index categorises the indicators into three dimensions to anchor the change measurement over some time.

Radicalisation Dimension

The study of terrorism distinguishes a three-way analysis of radicalisation that include individuals motives and beliefs, group-level decision making and strategy, and the broader political and social context (Crenshaw, 1981). In understanding radicalisation, the work of Macauley and Maselenko is crucial as they document eleven research works that talk about pathways and indicators of radicalisation into violent extremism. These include; The staircase to terrorism, (Moghaddam, 2005) three ideas in the progression to terrorist action, (Horgan, 2005) a four-stage model of radicalisation, (Wiktorowicz, 2005) New York Police Department four-stage process, (Silber and Bhatt, 2007) and radicalisation as terror management (Pyszczynski, Motyl, & Abdollahi, 2009) among others. Additionally, social movement analysis has indicators explaining radicalisation and the pathways to violent extremism (della Porta, 2013). From all the scholarly work, it is clear that becoming a terrorist is not a natural or linear progression from being a radical (Kundnani, 2012). Those who turned to violence follow a path of radicalisation that is characterised by a culture of violence, in-group peer

pressure, and an internal code of honour where violence can be a route to accruing status. Additionally, radicalisation is separated as that of opinion and that of action (Schuurman, & Taylor, 2018). What is shared from the studies is the fact that religious ideology as the anchoring factor is usually rare, and political radicalisation is visibly evident (Gartenstein -Ross and Grossman, 2009).

Radicalisation to violence is an emergent property of escalating conflict, especially when nonviolent activism is suppressed or failing. Though there is little to no overlap in risk factors for collective violence, and terrorism, these indicators can be used to evaluate radicalisation into violent extremism in communities. The variables include identities, ideology, affiliations, grievances, and moral emotions (Monahan, 2012; 2015). This is also supported by the significance quest pathway that highlights the fundamental desire to matter, to be someone, to have respect, need for esteem, achievement, meaning, competence (Kruglanski et al., 2014). From scholarly work, radicalisation indicators can be categorised under the vulnerabilities, the relational activities and ramifications. The vulnerability indicators look at weaknesses that communities may experience that could make them susceptible to radicalisation and recruitment into violent extremism. These vulnerabilities may include; the level of inclusion and integration of a community to the greater society (Klausen, et al., 2015); the levels of development of the community when compared to others in the region; the question of victimisation and personal grievances of a community.

Frustration-Aggression/Pain-

Aggression has also been used to illustrate the individual grievance into a group or shared grievance (Dennen & Van der, 2005). In explaining the process of radicalisation from a personal grievance perspective, the journey that involves the movement from personal to political

through a shared problem determines the trajectory of radicalisation (McCauley & Moskalkenko, 2011). This journey also helps formulate the different classes and categories that can be used to share the grievance as a vulnerability and a conduit for action. Additionally, questions on the perception of safety, security and the level of criminal activities in a community, will be considered.

Relational activity indicators are interested in looking at the influence of political trends and factors in a specific in a community, region or context, and how it could lead to the radicalisation of a people. Participation in political action and other related activities can formulate pathways to radicalisation (Aningo, 2014). The influence of political action on the radicalisation of a people such as the participation of youths in political activity requires a microscopic review. Scholarly opinion on the matter has proven that political dissonance is best suited to explain the radicalisation process (Maikovich, 2005; Borum, 2012; Moghaddam, 2009). The lack of a platform to voice opinions, especially by youth, is noted to be a crucial factor in the process of radicalisation.

The ramification indicators provide insight into the perceived impacts of radicalisation and recruitment in the community. For instances the disappearances of youth in a community, extrajudicial killing, concepts of marginalisation, profiling and targeting. Additionally, recruiters always recruit from the connections they have as this process serves to strengthen the bond of trust within the organisation (Scofield Associates, 2018). Various research works have also mentioned, "block recruitment" (McCauley, & Moskalkenko, 2011) which is synonymous with peer recruitment process. Ramification indicators will also cover question on ideology precisely 'negative ideology' in the recruitment into violent extremist groups.

Resilience Dimension

Though P/CVE policy should address the grievances that lead individuals to radicalisation, there are three forms of strategies, based on a public health model (Harris-Hogan et al., 2015). Primarily prevention initiatives are designed to educate individuals about violent extremism and raise awareness that prevent the emergence of a breeding ground for the radicalisation of individuals. The secondary level classification consists of interventions to individuals with indicators of radicalisation as they engage in an extremist social network (Williams et al., 2016). Tertiary-level programmes work with those already considered as extremist to disengage from a violent extremist network and to desist from violent behaviour. Most of the prevention programs have an assumption anchoring on improving the protective factors or the resilience capacities in the communities or specific context. Most PCVE models, therefore, recognise vulnerable audiences as individuals, sub-groups, that form part of the communities (Liht and Savage, 2013).

Individuals can be resilient to some risks but not to others, and the capacities are formed at an individual and social level, with the families being the most robust buffer for risk factors for violent extremism (Spalek, & Davies, 2012). The term resilience refers to common strategies that communities adapt to mitigate activities that make them vulnerable to violent extremism (Van Metre, 2016). It is the actualisation of existing collective capacities, such as a shared belief in the collective power to achieve desired results, to address a disruptive shock such as electoral conflict, clan conflict, or violent extremism (Isiolo County Action Plan, 2018). The processes of becoming a resilient community involve inherently reducing the potential

vulnerabilities or risk factors (Dina, 2013). It involves building true partnerships through social networks that lead to the creation of a healthy community identity that is needed to counter and prevent violent extremism (Van Metre, 2016). The creation of a resilience scale has put into consideration three essential thematic categorisation including; social capital, social bridging and the social linking.

Social capital indicators of resilience look at the nature of resources embedded in social networks, how they are accessed and their usage by communities (Nan, 2002). The different forms of social capital include family ties, relationships with neighbours and friends. It also includes shared experience or cultural norms. Social capital can have a group base, a network base or an institutional base. The higher the social capital in a community, the less likely persons from the community will be involved in terrorism and violent extremism activities. Social bonding/bridging indicators, on the other hand, are interested in understanding how attached individuals are to their conventional society. Studies show that individuals with strong and abiding attachments to a conventional society are less likely to deviate to criminal activity (Kempf, 1993). By understanding the level of social cohesion in a community, one can be able to judge their resilience capabilities. Social bonding allows for diverse groups to share and exchange innovations, information and ideas, thus build consensus among the groups representing diverse interests.

Accordingly, these bonds come in four interrelated forms, including; attachment which refers to the level of psychological affection one has for prosocial others and institutions. The commitment that provides importance to the social relationships that people value; involvement, which relates to the opportunity costs associated with how people spend their time; and finally, belief

that refers to the degree to which one adheres to the values associated with behaviours that conform to the law. These interrelated forms allow for diverse groups to share and exchange information, ideas and innovations, to build consensus with diverse interests. It widens social capital by increasing the “radius of trust” (Chriss, 2007). Unlike bonding, that includes a narrow “radius of trust,” bridging creates a democratic institutional structure with a broader political and economic development.

Finally, the resilience of a community can also be gauged based on its social links, which involves understanding the link between groups and positions of power & authority. This indicator is particularly crucial for socio-culturally disadvantaged or economically resource-poor communities. The more communities are linked to power and wealth, the greater the resource access and the likelihood of coping with adverse challenges such as terrorism and violent extremism (Wouter, 2012). Community-level adaptation or resilience is also dependent on social linking, or what Mignone and O’Neil refer to as “vertical capital” (Mignone, & O’Neil, 2005).

This is also referred to as “state-society relations” (He, & Tianguang, 2005), linking capital encompasses the vertical relationships that individuals and groups establish with those in positions of power and authority (Grossman, & Ungar, 2017). As Magis observes, the more communities link with sources of power, wealth and access to resources, the better situated they will be to take advantage of opportunities (Magis, 2010). They will also develop stronger networks and resources for coping with challenge and adversity (Wouter, 2011).

Cost of Action Dimension

The cost of action involves the efforts and inputs to preventing and countering violent extremism. The cost of action dimension involves evaluating the use of

hard power strategies implemented in communities to deal with the spread of radicalisation and violent extremism. It includes the deployment of security officers and the use of force to deal with suspected criminal activity. On the other hand, it also involves the use of soft power techniques by both state and non-state actors to build the capacity of the community to challenge radicalisation and recruitment into terrorism effectively. This dimension investigates material and non-material resources to prevent and counter violent extremism.

The time for change is also included in this dimension. Various studies show the time taken to influence behaviour, but there is no standardised timeline for change to affect communities (Middleton et al., 2016; Grohol, 2018). The index borrows from the journey to extremism study that showed the tipping point analogy to be between three to six months (UNDP, 2017). Change in communities also takes a similar timeline to evidence impact. This dimension, therefore, argues a timeline of up to one year for adequate representative data. The significant components of cost of action include Government responsibility, Government response and external response; reviewed over one-year period.

Isiolo CVE Index

Returning to the pilot work that applied the Index, Isiolo County in Kenya has in recently a recruitment hotspot by Violent Extremist groups. Forms of conflict and violence include intercommunal resource-based conflict; inter-county border conflicts; Ethno-political conflict and violent extremism. Drivers of conflict include weak legal frameworks to protect indigenous land rights; drought which leads to pastoral mobility; cultural factors in pastoral conflict; the proliferation of small arms; conservation; large infrastructure projects and lack of consultation and most recently political competition, since devolution.

Devolution in recent times has contributed to inter-ethnic competition and rivalry. The county is privileged to be a central node in the LAPASSET mega infrastructural projects, which brings more complexity to the existing conflict system. As from late 2016, Isiolo County has featured in police press briefings and the media as a sleeper cell county for extremist activities associated with Al-Shabaab. The indicators selected considered structural conflict issues and have aligned these realities to other contextual needs of individuals in the community. It also accounted for the fluidity of the indicators and thus emphasised understanding the needs of a whole system rather than focusing on the traditional narrow view of CVE action from the radicalisation perspective. The frame assumed that increased reliance on resilience factors would bare positive responses to reduce recruitment, increase rehabilitation and reintegration in Kenyan society. The Index, therefore, follows a mid-range analysis that contextualises violent extremism within the context of Isiolo by looking at three key dimensions- the radicalisation dimension, the resilience dimension and the cost of action dimension. A conceptualised formula accounted for the level of countering violent extremism in a region. The formula is;

$$\text{P/CVE Index} = (\text{Radicalisation scale} * \text{Resilience scale}) / (\text{Cost of action scale})$$

The overall Index is determined by calculating a median from a Multi-Correspondence Analysis, emanating from the baseline data. The Index is based on a scale of one to ten. Median was used because it is not affected by the extreme value of the Index. The formula above is premised on the strong theoretical underpinnings and mathematical axioms.

From the study, Isiolo radicalisation scale was measured based on crucial

sentinel indicators. The study concluded that the radicalisation index in Isiolo county is at 7.46 out of the maximum 10 points. A high index of this nature would mean there is a higher threat to violent extremism and terrorism in a region. 81% of the citizens of the county noted recruitment to violent extremist organisations. The resilience index of Isiolo county is at 4.85 out of a 10-point scale. It is an average performance for Isiolo county, which means that it needs to enhance the resilience of its people against VE further. The presence of an active identity formation and association in the county has contributed the highest to the Index while the relationship with existing structures in the national government was the lowest contributor to the resilience index.

The cost of action scale is at 5.0 out of 10 for Isiolo County. It is a relatively average position on the scale. There is a need for further resources to be channelled to the county to prevent and counter violent extremism effectively. The study proposed areas of investments that resonate with the community and can be applied as interventions either as CVE Specific or P/CVE relevant.

RECOMMENDATIONS

P/CVE programs ideally respond to the needs in communities. Though scholarly work questions the individualised thinking around radicalisation and recruitment into terrorism activities, there are lessons to be learnt from this assessment. On the other hand, contextualisation of the environment that germinates the process from the individual to the group relation and association is crucial. When responding to the vulnerabilities and the risks associated with terrorism, individual programs and activities are not only expensive but also not very useful as they lack the generalisation processes for more

substantial impact, hence the placement of P/CVE in community contexts.

Community-led indicators can provide a clear understanding and a measure of progress from P/CVE activities. The argument made is that violent extremism and terrorism is dependent on the intersection between the ideologies (cognitive radicalisation) and the environment that allows for the movement (behavioural radicalisation), into terrorism. Its success, on the other hand, is dependent on the community's capacities to deter or allow for these environments to flourish (resilience capacities). Additionally, these environments require specific opportunities or inputs that contribute to vulnerabilities or capacities. (cost of action).

The inclusion of driver to violent extremism alludes to the fact that radicalisation is a risk that is quantifiable and measurable; from the place of action and impact out of the process. Therefore, it would be potentially less problematic to focus on cognitive structures and modes of thought in a 'content-neutral' way than starting from a point where certain ideological or religious beliefs made suspect. This model works within a given context to avoid possibilities of communities engaging in violent extremism. As an added area, most of the interventions desire to bolster the resilience capacities for most communities to ensure that interventions achieve long term impact.

Other methods have incorporated some level of scientific engagement to understand the impact of P/CVE. This paper does not critic the specific indicator-based analyses that often are transitioned into a hypothesis that is specific to the context and challenge. While these provide valuable insights to P/CVE evaluation and extended, view of the issues around VE would be beneficial for decision making rather than an indicator analysis.

When investigated in isolation, P/CVE attributes lack construct validity and the outcomes and often based on broad assumptions in the methodology to offered recommendation alluding activity-specific risk rather than a holistic and comprehensive view. Attribute formation focuses on an individual analysis of change rather than a society or communities attribute of change. The individual mapped out attributes fail to account for their placement in time and the context of operationalisation. The result is individuals who may be mapped out at a different stage with specific expectations, not committing an act of terrorism as anticipated.

CONCLUSION

Though the index provides lessons learnt from piloting the tool in Isiolo in Kenya, the dimensions and indicators require validation across the Horn of Africa for it to have authority. Unlike the challenges of validation associated with the risk assessment tools for violent extremism, the index provides a target population and a validation platform for use at regular intervals. Though the index does not belabour the definition of terms, it allows for the common terminology to support theory development anchored on dimensions that are the pivots of P/CVE programming in communities. This tool will contribute to not only evaluate the impact through analysis of the level of contribution from the intervention but also create relevant and applicable planning strategy for future intervention areas.

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LIVELIHOODS IN THE SLUMS OF KENYA; A CASE STUDY ON PERSPECTIVES OF DEVELOPMENT PROFESSIONALS

Angela R. Pashayan, Richard Seltzer

Department of Political Science, Howard University, USA

angela.pashayan@bison.howard.edu

ABSTRACT

The United Nations set Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) for the global community of professionals in development to reach by 2030. The top priority is poverty eradication. According to World Bank statistics, we are not on track to meet the SDGs, and some African states have fallen deeper into poverty. One of the reasons is that foreign development aid is targeted at the lower middle class, not the poorest of the poor. Some development professionals are more aware than others of this fact, and more attention is being drawn towards innovative programs that produce effective results helping people at this level make the leap out of poverty. This pilot study was conducted with the purpose of learning what development professionals know about successful poverty reduction at the slum level. My hypothesis about development in slum settlements is more of an inquiry to determine the most effective ways to reduce poverty. Many development programs are targeted at the lower middle class. The goal of this study is to broaden the lens of poverty reduction to include development at the slum level, and add knowledge to the canon toward developing effective programs for this demographic.

Keywords: poverty reduction, Nairobi slums, Mukuru, Sustainable Development Goals, development professionals, Kenya, Africa

INTRODUCTION

As African countries began to gain their independence in the 1960s, colonialists set an intention to provide assistance to Africa in part as reparation and part to enable African states to build economies and a vibrant society. This was to be provided in the form of assistance; diplomatic, democratic, economic, social, and political. Modernization² plans were implemented for economic and social growth. Influenced from the linear economic model of growth post WWII and the Marshall Plan, African states embarked on industrialization in agriculture per Rostow's³ model (now outdated) which includes these stages of growth; (1) traditional society,

(2) pre-conditions for take-off, (3) take-off, (4) maturity, and (5) mass consumption. One of the primary flaws with this model is the assumption that a nation-state need only to follow steps to reach the final stage and enjoy economic and social prosperity. Aside from other problems with this model regarding cultural factors and how prosperity is measured, other models equally flawed, have not provided Africa with success. For example:

(1) ⁴The Western Liberal Model of Development (Market Model) calls for political development as a condition for economic development, where goals must

be achieved through a free-market economy and competition; United States.

(2) The Welfare Model of Development advocates provisions for the socio-economic welfare of society in order for successful economic growth and industrialization. Europe followed this path, though they were near full developed as compared to Africa.

(3) The Socialist/Marxist Model of Development calls for a central system of politics and economics, rejecting capitalistic and liberal models of development. This model was tested in the USSR and Cuba (a Third World Country) and has proven less utopian than expected.

(4) The Democratic-Socialist Model of Development advocates for socialists goals through democratic means. It is a combination of the welfare state model and democratic socialism. Third world countries such as India, have followed this model and have developed but not rapidly.

None of these models work perfectly for the developing world without some modifications, as in the East Asian Model with state-sponsored capitalism. Human development models are also not without flaws. When African states adopted modernization, the introduction of agricultural machinery replaced hands-on work and created class divisions⁵. The unemployed left the rural agricultural areas in search of work urban cities.

Similar to other countries, Kenya was not prepared for the urban population increase. Modernization did not bring factories and industry to Nairobi, and jobs remained scarce. Unemployed people from rural areas relocated to Nairobi regardless of resources. They settled informally⁶ in areas adjacent to dumpsites where governments are less likely to object to their corrugated tin dwellings. Dumpsites offer discarded items such as food, building materials, and household items. What Kenyan's thought would be a temporary dwelling, became a permanent for generations to come. Jobs in alternative

sectors never realized, and the informal settlements grew as more Kenyans continued to relocate from rural areas. Areas became over-crowded, only narrow passageways were kept open. Displacement, class division and unemployment are the unfortunate offspring of modernization; part of a perpetual cycle as we evolve. Poverty reduction programs to help African states took shape in various forms; economic, human development, and for security (Gendzier, 1985)⁷. Development methods changed over the years including how best to distributed aid to Africa (Carbone, 2010 and Smith, 2013)⁸, and the use of place-based, human-centered development models. Sixty years later, the statistics on poverty reduction remain dismal. The number of poor in Africa has increased from 278 million in 1990 to 413 million in 2015 with an expected increase of 90% by 2030 (World Bank, 2019)⁹. With robust funds allocated through government, private finance, non-governmental organizations, and multi-lateral development groups, one might ask "What are we doing wrong?" This research is exploratory and looks at how development professionals perceive issues regarding programs to reduce poverty at the slum level. It serves as a first look at what we know, what we don't know, and what types of programs are effective. Poverty eradication is the top UN Sustainable Development Goal (SDG). The intention of this work is to add knowledge to a global issue that the United Nations is charging the canon to figure out.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Literature on Development is vast. The broad approaches to reduce poverty and improve the human condition have evolved over trial and error. Some of those approaches include structural transformation, micro-enterprises, quality infrastructure, regional aid,

entrepreneurship, education, gender empowerment, human rights advocacy, job training, STEM, a return to agriculture, encouraging regional trade and foreign direct investment, public-private partnerships, and place-based human-centered development. Of these, there is no single approach that works¹⁰. While some experts such as Steven Koltai advocate entrepreneurship¹¹, others advocate governance and security, education, or a multi-dimensional approach¹². The goal is to facilitate it all; “The long-term strategy is to facilitate rapid economic growth, improve governance and security, increase ability of the poor to raise their incomes, improve quality of life for the poor and improve equity and participation.¹³”

According to the World Poverty Clock¹⁴, Kenya’s poverty level as of February 21, 2020 is approximately 8.175 million people. Kenya is off-track to reach 2030 poverty reduction goals along with the majority of Sub-Saharan Africa. World Bank statistics show that 4.4 million Kenyans live in Nairobi¹⁵ where over 1 million live in the slums/informal settlements¹⁶. However, the figure for those living in the slums is not accurate. Since the World Bank and USAID target the lower middle class for programs¹⁷, these are the people that make up their statistics which leaves the lower class unaccounted for.

USAID has worked in Kenya for over 50 years and were instrumental in providing assistance during the 2017 drought related famine¹⁸. Their work in education, gender equality, food security, human rights, health, economic growth and power-grid access lay the groundwork for setting new targets to reach the very poor. This work has been targeted to the lower middle income households with annual income of \$1026-\$3995/yr¹⁹. The slum population live on \$360-\$1,000/yr (\$30-\$85/month)²⁰. Data about slum dwellers is scarce despite the World

Bank’s call for better data in their long-term strategy initiatives in the year 2000 where they elected to “strengthen socioeconomic statistics by providing adequate resources to the Central Bureau of Statistics to strengthen poverty analysis with more comprehensive diagnosis of causes of poverty.²¹”

Global poverty is measured by World Bank from household surveys²². That, in and of itself, is problematic for gathering accurate data from informal settlements. Slum dwellers have no “registered” home to speak of, their shanties are erected on non-tenured land²³. Retrieving data is logistically difficult without engaging help from within the community. The Kenyan Census uses this method to count the slum population, but the Kenya National Bureau of Statistics does not release this data on their website. Instead, pdf’s on economic indicators and GDP are posted²⁴, thus development professionals are less familiar with poverty in the informal settlements. The world poverty clock shows 1.1 million people in Nairobi living in poverty, though figures are likely closer to 2.5 million²⁵. Citizen capacity toward self-sustainability is low, particularly when there are no programs targeted for them.

And, what of those who earn \$1.91/day? There has been discussion about whether to raise the poverty index to \$3.20/day because \$1.90/day is not a satisfactory level of consumption²⁶. This leads to the debate about how poverty is measured²⁷ 28 29. Multidimensional factors equate to poverty beyond monetary measure. Factors such as education, access to infrastructure, health and nutrition, and household security all contribute to the need for broader measures of poverty. The UN, World Bank and USAID are aware of this, hence the 17 SDGs cover a wide range of poverty-related variables.

There is a repertoire of additional scholars, both African and Western, including Carol Lancaster, former Deputy

Minister of the US Agency for International Development (USAID), who highlights error in judgement about approaches to poverty³⁰. Other scholars include Walter Rodney, *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa* (1982)³¹, James C. Scott, *Weapons of the Weak*

(1975)³², Irene Gendzier, *Development Against Democracy* (1985)³³, Thomas Carothers, *Essays on Democracy Promotion* (2004)³⁴, and Duncan Green, *From Poverty to Power* (2008)³⁵.

All of these scholarly works were reviewed because they cover a wide range of opinions and facts about development. World Bank, USAID and other reports shared valued data, while each literary author writes ostensibly about the modernization period, foreign aid, and dependency on aid. These works have created considerable understandings within the development field.

Michael Cernea wrote *Putting People First* (1991)³⁶. Development scholars and professionals were inspired to advocate for the inclusion of locals in the process of planning poverty reduction and development projects. A UNESCO think-piece written by an unknown staff writer (2010)³⁷ was equally supportive and additive in terms of ethical development to reach the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The ideology was bolstered further by the UNDP Administrators Report (2010) titled, “People-centered Development; Empowered lives. Resilient nations.³⁸” The report begins by acknowledging research in the late 1980s which clarified that links between economic growth and human development demonstrates no automatic correlation. Therefore, income does not equate wellbeing. The report became the foundation for developing the SDGs to target poverty from a variety of directions other than income, directions that were multi-dimensional and human-centered. In the most recent data published by the USAID Center for Innovation and Impact

Brief (2018)³⁹, human-centered design supports the scale for impact. This approach became central to development programs⁴⁰.

Hypothesis

My hypothesis about development in slum settlements is more of an inquiry to determine the most effective ways to reduce poverty. The lens of poverty reduction will need to be broadened to include development at the slum level. This is an exploratory inquiry to learn what professionals know about developing effective programs for this demographic. The goal of this work is to provide additional knowledge and shed light on further work that must be done to achieve poverty reduction.

METHODOLOGY

Survey Instrument

A 17 question survey was conducted with two groups of development professionals from 2019 conferences on poverty reduction. Both conferences were held in Nairobi, Kenya. One conference (AIDF Africa Summit)⁴¹ is regularly attended by government development professionals, the other (SANKALP)⁴², attended by social impact innovators. The AIDF Summit is produced by a UK based firm with large sponsors such as Hemocue, Zurich, AirSYS and the Manitou Group. The SANKALP conference is sponsored by Intellectap, and Indian based firm run by a billionaire who was raised in the slums of India. SANKALP is sponsored by Johnson &

Johnson, Microsoft, USAID, and Siemens to name a few. Both conferences were specifically chosen to gain answers from two opposite poles in the development field, on how best to reduce poverty in the slums of Nairobi. The types of professionals at the conferences come

from organizations as large as UNDP with over 5000 staff, and development innovators with less than 25 in their team. Attendees received the survey via email links sent by the conference staff, therefore I do not have information regarding how many attendees received the link nor from which conference the completed surveys are from. The link was sent out 6-8 weeks after the conferences.

This is pilot study of twenty experienced professionals in the development field. A broader study is to take place in Fall 2020. The survey includes seventeen questions, some of which are open-ended questions. Questions 1-8 are independent variables; age, gender, country base, organization size, organization focus, years worked in development, years worked specifically in poverty reduction, and the amount of time split between the office and field work. Questions 9-17 are dependent variables; successful programs, familiarity with the slums, traditional programs that benefit slum dwellers, active programs in the slums, using place-based design for programs, ratings of programs, programs perceived as not effective for slum dwellers, programs perceived as effective for slum dwellers, and what elements make up the best programs for slum dwellers.

In addition to the survey, I conducted two focus groups in the Mukuru slum to learn what they think are the most effective development programs for their community. This portion of the data is currently being analyzed for a future paper, along with the full study planned for my dissertation.

Coding

Of the 8 independent variables, 3 were not used in cross-tabulations. They provided general information⁴³. The remaining 5 independent variables were cross-tabulated across the dependent variables, one of which is shown in Figure 1, separate from the others due to incompatibility with the coding system. Initial coding was simplified into two categories per question due to the small sample size. Responses were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The full survey can be found in Appendix 1. Cross-tabulations can be found in Appendix 2. See table 2.0 (p.13) for coding chart.

Table 1.0

<u>The 5 independent variables are:</u>	<u>The 8 dependent variables are:</u>
• organizational size	• successful program at their organization
• organizational focus	• familiarity with the informal settlements
• years worked for current organization	• traditional programs benefit to slums
• years worked in poverty reduction overall	• organization active in the slums
• time spend in the office vs field	• using placed-based design
	• programs not effective
	• programs that are effective
	• create a program, multi or single focus*

**Multi-dimensional programs offer, for example, finance, education and job training.*

For descriptive purposes,

The sample consists of 50% male and 50% female professionals over the age of 45 who work directly in Nairobi, Kenya.

- 30% of their organizations are based in Kenya with 50% based in the U.S., 15% global and the remaining 5% based in another African country.

- The focus of their organization ranges from emphasis on finance, trainings, education, health, agriculture, gender equality, legal advocacy and humanitarian efforts. 45% have been at their current jobs for 5 to 20+ years. 43 age, gender and organizations base country.

Table 2.0 Coding

Age	1=over 45	2=under 45		Omitted
Gender	1=male	2=female		Omitted
Country base	1=Kenya	2=Africa	3,4,5=EU, U.S., Global	Omitted
Staff size	1=over 250	2=under 250		
Organization Focus	1=finance	2=trainings, etc.		
Yrs in Development	1=20+years	2=10+years	3,4=5+years, or less	Omitted
Yrs in Poverty Reduction	1=under 5	2=over 5		
Office vs Fieldwork	1=most field	2=most office		
Successful programs	1=finance	2=other		
Familiarity with slums	1=yes	2=no		
Benefit to slum dwellers	1=yes	2=no		
Active in slums	1=yes	2=no		
Place-based design	1=yes	2=no		
Rate effective programs	Q14. Shown	alone in Fig.1		
Effective program	1=finance	2=trainings, etc.		
Program not effective	1=finance	2=trainings, etc.		
Develop a program	1=multi-dimensional	2=single-focus		

FINDINGS AN ANALYSIS

Findings:

- 60% have worked specifically in poverty reduction from 10 to 20+ years, and 25% have worked for 5+ years. 15% have worked for 5 years of less in poverty reduction.

- The mean for the staff size of the organizations is 250+.

- 40% spend more time in the field doing hands-on work than in the office, with 60% doing mostly office work.

- The majority of the group defines the most successful programs to be financial in nature (micro-loans, direct cash, savings programs, entrepreneurial ventures). However, in Q14-16 the group shifts to include education and job trainings as effective.

- 40% believe that traditional poverty reduction programs are very unlikely to benefit slum dwellers. None believe that traditional programs are very likely to benefit slum dwellers and 60% believe that traditional programs are somewhat a benefit to slum dwellers.

- 80% are familiar with poverty in the slums, and 75% are active with poverty reduction programs in the slums.

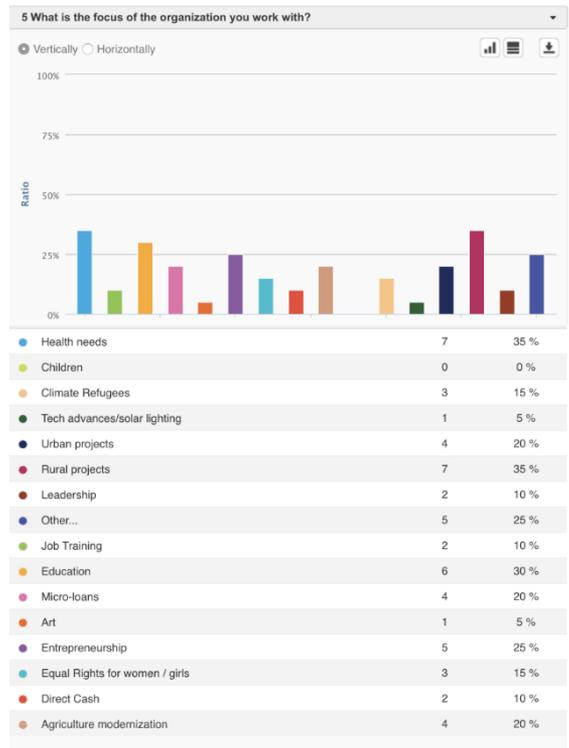
- 80% use a place-based design model in their poverty reduction programs.

- With an unlimited budget, 40% would develop multidimensional programs and 55% would develop single-focused programs. 95% agree to develop their programs using a place-based approach.

Analysis

The survey data shows that the development professionals work in organizations that offer a wide range of services for the poor. Rural, health and education programs have the highest frequencies as part of multi-dimensional programs. Years of work was analyzed for the purpose of determining the amount of accumulated experience. The data reveals the majority have been working at their current organization for less than 5 years, however 60% have 10 to 20+ years experience working in development all together. Those with less than 5 years experience remain familiar with poverty in the slums.

Table 3.0 Organizational Focus



In the cross-tabulations for success, 90% of the organizations think finance related programs are the most successful. This finding has a significance of 0.001. It includes 62% of organizations with labor related trainings, and 67% of organizations who spend the majority of their time working hands-on in the field. This was an unexpected finding because there is controversial debate regarding cash programs and micro-loans for poverty reduction. Some

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recipients are unable to pay interest rates on micro-loans and find themselves worse off financially. In juxtaposition, cash programs run the risk of leaving

organization worse off if recipients waste funds or do not use the cash wisely.

Regarding familiarity with poverty in the informal settlements, 46% of the smaller organizations are familiar, while 71% of those from larger organizations are not familiar with informal settlements. Both finance and labor related organizations are mainly not very familiar, and those with 5 to 20+ years of experience are mainly not familiar with informal settlements unless they work in the field more than in the office; 71% of those who work in the field are very familiar with poverty in the informal settlements (0.048 significance). Those organizations that do not send staff to the field regularly will not become knowledgeable about broader issues and alternative approaches to poverty reduction. While organizations believe they are doing all they can to meet the SDGs, if they are not taking time to purview the field they are restricting knowledge about the realities of poverty and hindering the advancement of poverty eradication.

When asked if they thought traditional programs were a benefit to slum dwellers, field and office workers as well as smaller organizations think traditional programs offer somewhat of a benefit to slum dwellers (50%-77%). However, those from larger organizations think that traditional programs offer no benefit to slum dwellers (71%). This indicates a need for poverty reduction programs to be developed for large organizations to reduce poverty specifically at the slum level. Regarding active programs running in the slums, 88% of large organizations are not active, while 31% of those from small organizations are active and mainly in labor training or finance related programs. Those from large organizations have historically targeted the lower-middle class, thus poverty at the slum level is neglected.

Those from both large and small organizations use place-based design, 71% and 85% respectively. Those from organizations focused on labor trainings and finance concur. This holds true no matter how many years of experience one has in poverty reduction, signaling that place-based or human-centered design is now an industry standard.

Surprisingly the cross-tabs show that 85% of those from smaller organizations believe that PPPs are not effective for reducing poverty at the slum level (0.052 significance). Of those from large organizations, 43% believe the same. This belief remains in majority across those who work for organizations in finance or labor, and irrespective of how many years one has worked in poverty reduction or how much time they spend in the field. The perception of what PPPs are capable of offering while making minimal profits, might a driving factor. Finance related programs were previously identified as most effective to reduce poverty at the slum level. The cross-tabs demonstrate the belief that education is not effective. Those that work at small or large organizations with a focus on finance or labor trainings (including those who work in the field), all believe that education is not effective to reduce poverty at the slum level (61.5%-78%). Of those who have up to 20+ years of experience, 50% believe that education is not effective. And, of those with 5 years or less in the industry, 87.5% believe education is not the way forward to reduce poverty at the slum level (0.085 significance). This suggests an overwhelming belief in the industry that other measures other than education need be developed to reduce poverty at the slum level.

The Q14 likert scale question revealed that most professionals believe three types of programs are most likely to reduce poverty in the slums: financial programs, gender equality and legal advocacy programs. However, the frequency

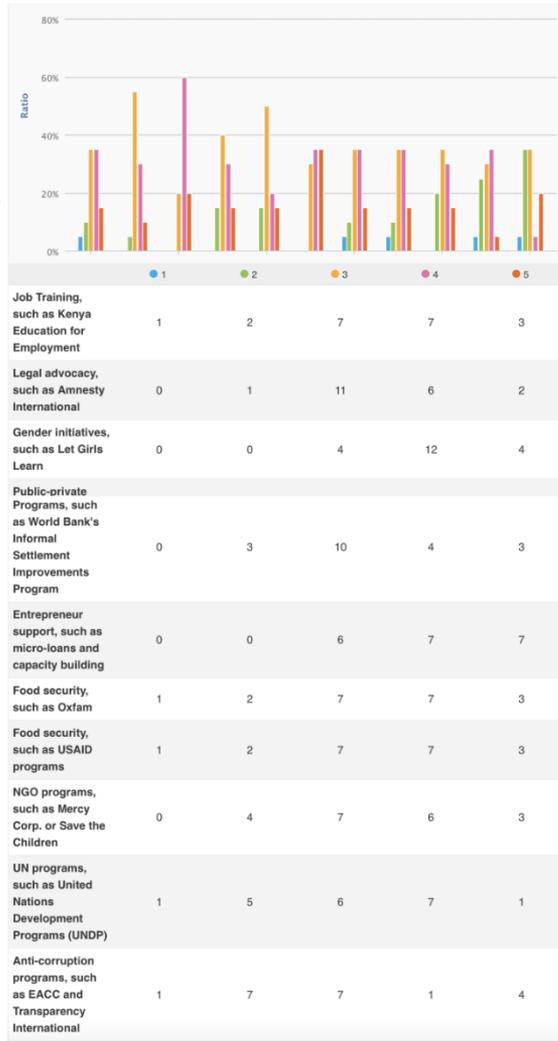
analysis shows a fairly equal distribution across all types of programs; finance 35%, trainings 30%, education 25%, humanitarian 30%, legal advocacy 35%, public-private partnerships 40%, and World Bank KISIP 50%. This information lends itself to the analysis of Q17 in which

multi-dimensional programs are perceived to be the most effective in reducing poverty for slum dwellers as equally as single-focus programs.

Table 4.0 Program Rating

1=least likely to help reduce poverty

5=most likely to help reduce poverty



The final cross-

tab reveals

a positive step for the development industry. Place-based, human-centered design is used in 80% of the organizations of those surveyed. Comparing multi-dimensional and single focus approaches, 54% of those from smaller organizations advocate for multi-dimensional programs for slum dwellers, while 83% of those from large organizations advocate for single-focus programs. Those who work for organizations in finance or labor trainings would employ single focus programs as would those with less than 5 years experience in poverty reduction. However, those from larger organizations with 5-20+ years experience in poverty reduction mostly believe that a multi-dimensional program would best. This is suggestive that there remains debate whether single-focus or multi-dimensional programs are best for slum dwellers. There are structural challenges in offering multi-services, yet there are equal challenges in dealing with multiple agencies offering different services to a client. Having multiple services under one roof may be structured by brining well-defined organizations together to serve the informal settlement client.

CONCLUSION

U.S. Foreign Aid organizations seek to solve or at least mitigate the issue of global poverty. Findings from this pilot study show that development professionals believe the lowest tier of poverty requires a multi-dimensional program, with emphasis not on education but instead on financial programs. Financial programs such as micro-loans may not be the answer. Direct cash might also not be the answer. However, alternatives might exist in the form of support for income generating activities that already exist in the informal settlements. This begins with knowledge from the field, something that is lacking.

It is illogical to think poverty can be reduced without addressing issues related to the lower tier such as those who live in slums. The development field has provided education, job trainings, health benefits, leadership & ethics training as well as legal guidance to millions of lower middle-class clients. There exist new ways to make the leap out of poverty.

The Cotonou Agreement made in the year 2000 on EU-Africa relations firmly called for multilateral engagement in foreign aid, development, and poverty reduction efforts (Carbone, 2010)⁴⁵. With that, is it time to focus on the poverty level we have not yet serviced? With all the expertise in development, is a deeper focus into the lower levels of poverty something we are not capable of? Poverty is not only an abomination to the human spirit, but a threat to democracy. For example, when desperation meets the opportunity to earn income from nefarious activities, justice is breached. When desperation meets the opportunity to ingest a form of psychological pain relief, good health is breached. And when desperation meets the opportunity to have compensation paid to family members, terrorism is born. Although Nairobi made the UN Top 4 list of investment cities in Africa, Kenya is ranked 8th on the extreme poverty list⁴⁶. We have the tools, methods, approaches, and expertise spread across large and small organizations to meet the UN Sustainable Development Goals. Goldsmith quotes Alexis de Tocqueville, “vibrant life is the source of political strength,” (Goldsmith, 2001)⁴⁷.

Appendix 1 – Questionnaire and Frequency Distribution

Q1. What is your age?

Under 45 56%

Over 45 44%

Q2. What is your gender

Male 50%

Female 50%

Q3. Which country is the organization your work for is based in?

Kenya 30%

Africa-other 5%

United States 50%

Global 15%

Q4. How would you categorize the size of the organization you work with?

Over 250 employees 45%

Under 250 employees 55%

Q5. What is the focus of the organization you work with? 55%

Finance

(micro-loans, entrepreneurship, direct cash)

Other (job training, education, health, tech, human rights) 45%

*75% also include education in the organization's focus

Q6. How many years have you worked with the organization?

Under 5 years 55%

5+ years 15%

10+years 25%

20+years 5%

*Categorized in findings as under 5 years 55% and over 5yrs 45%

Q7. How many years have you worked (specifically) in poverty reduction or development? Under 5 years 15%

5+ years 25%

10+years 30%

20+years 30%

*Categorized in findings as under 5 years 15% and over 5yrs 85%

Q8. Write the percentage of time you spend doing office work, and the percentage of time you spend doing fieldwork.

Over 50% 15%

50-50 20%

Under 50% 60%

*Categorized in findings as mostly field or mostly office

Q9. Tell me about a specific program at the organization you work with that you consider successful in reducing poverty? Why is it successful?

Finance 50%

Labor Training 5%

Education 15%

Other 20%

Not sure 5%

*Categorized in findings as finance or other

Q10. The next set of questions are related to poverty in the Slums of Kenya. Select your general familiarity of this area.

Very familiar 40%

Somewhat 40%

Not very 20%

*Categorized in findings as familiar or not familiar

Q11. How likely do you think traditional aid programs benefit Kenyans who live in the slums?

Very likely 0%

Somewhat likely 60%

Unlikely 35%

Very unlikely 5%

Q12. To what extent is the organization you work with active in the slums of Kenya?

Very active 25%
Somewhat active 50%
Not active 25%

*Categorized in the findings as active or not active

Q13. Do the programs at the organization you work with use place-based design?

Using place based design 80%
Not using place based 20%

Q14. How effective do you think the following types of programs are in reducing poverty in the slums of Kenya?

Finance related programs 35%
Job training programs 60%
Education programs 25%
Humanitarian programs 30%
Legal advocacy programs 35%
Public-private partnerships 40%
World Bank programs 50%

*The percentages represent a finite number per category out of 100%

Q15. Based on your answer to the previous question, give me an example of a program you think is NOT effective at reducing poverty in the slums of Kenya? Why?

Finance related programs 0%
Job training programs 5%
Education programs 10%
Humanitarian programs 5%
Legal advocacy programs 5%
Public-private partnerships 0%
World Bank programs 5%

*The percentages represent a finite number per category out of 100%

Q16. Based on your answer to the previous question, give me an example of a program you think IS effective at reducing poverty in the slums of Kenya? Why?

Finance related programs 15%
Job training programs 5%
Education programs 35%
Humanitarian programs 5%
Other 25%

*The percentages represent a finite number per category out of 100%

Q.17 If you were given \$200 million to create a poverty reduction program in the slums of Kenya, what type of program would you create?

Multi-dimensional place-based 40%
Single-focus place-based 55%
Other 5%

*Categorized in findings as multi-dimensional or single-focus

Appendix 2 – Cross-tabulations (5 independent variables x 8 dependent variables)

D1. Finance Programs are Successful		Trainings, etc. are successful	
Size of Organization			
Small orgs (staff under 250)	58%	Ns	42%
Large orgs (staff over 250)	50%		50%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	90%	0.001	10%
Not mentioned	12%		88%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	63%	Ns	37%
Not mentioned	50%		50%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	57%	Ns	43%
5+ years	55%		45%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	67%	Ns	33%
Field work – under 50%	46%		54%

D2. NOT familiar with poverty in the slums		Familiar with poverty in slums	
Size of Organization			
Small orgs (staff under 250)	54%	Ns	46%
Large orgs (staff over 250)	71%		29%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	64%	Ns	36%
Not mentioned	56%		44%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	56%	Ns	44%
Not mentioned			
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	50%	Ns	50%
5+ years	67%		33%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	29%	0.048	71%
Field work – under 50%	75%		25%

D3. Traditional programs benefit slum dwellers			No benefit
Size of Organization			
Under 250	77%	Ns	23%
Over 250	29%		71%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	73%	Ns	27%
Not mentioned	44%		56%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	78%	Ns	22%
Not mentioned	45.5%		54.5%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	62.5%	Ns	37.5%
5+ years	58%		42%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	71%	Ns	29%
Field work – under 50%	50%		50%

D.4 Active in the slums			Not active in the slums
Size of Organization			
Under 250	31%	Ns	69%
Over 250	14%		86%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	27%	Ns	73%
Not mentioned	22%		78%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	33%	Ns	67%
Not mentioned	18%		82%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	37%	Ns	63%
5+ years	17%		83%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	43%	Ns	57%
Field work – under 50%	17%		83%

D.5 Using place-based/human-centered model			Not
Size of Organization			
Under 250	85%	Ns	15%
Over 250	71%		29%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	82%	Ns	18%
Not mentioned	78%		22%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	89%	Ns	11%
Not mentioned	73%		27%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	87.5%	Ns	12.5%
5+ years	75%		25%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	86%	Ns	14%
Field work – under 50%	75%		25%

D.6 PPPs are NOT EFFECTIVE for slum dwellers		PPP's are EFFECTIVE	
Size of Organization			
Under 250	15%	0.052	85%
Over 250	57%		43%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	27%	Ns	73%
Not mentioned	33%		67%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	33%	Ns	67%
Not mentioned	27%		73%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	25%	Ns	75%
5+ years	33%		67%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	14%	Ns	86%
Field work – under 50%	33%		67%

D.7 Education is effective for slum dwellers		Education is not effective	
Size of Organization			
Under 250	38.5%	Ns	61.5%
Over 250	29%		71%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	36%	Ns	64%
Not mentioned	33%		67%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	22%	Ns	78%
Not mentioned	45.5%		54.5%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	12.5%	0.085	87.5%
5+ years	50%		50%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	57%	Ns	43%
Field work – under 50%	25%		75%

D.8 Multi-dimensional place-based program		Single-focus place-based program	
Size of Organization			
Under 250	54%	Ns	46%
Over 250	17%		83%
Organization Focus-Finance			
Yes	40%	Ns	60%
Not mentioned	44%		56%
Organization Focus-Labor			
Yes	37.5%	Ns	62.5%
Not mentioned	45.5%		54.5%
Yrs Work in Poverty Reduction			
Under 5 years	25%	Ns	75%
5+ years	54.5%		45.5%
Office vs Field Work			
Field work – over 50%	33%	Ns	67%
Field work – under 50%	42%		58%

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IMPACT OF TOURISM IN TERMS OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF TURKEY

¹Prof. Dr. Orhan Çoban, ²Ayşe Çoban

¹Department of Economics, ²Department of Logistic, Selcuk University, Turkey

¹ocoban@selcuk.edu.tr, ²acoban@selcuk.edu.tr

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study, considering the period of 2003-2018 data, the contribution of tourism to national income in Turkey in terms of economics is to demonstrate analytically. The analysis results, the number of tourists visiting Turkey has increased 180% increase from 16 million people to 46 million people. Similar figures on the number of tourists from Turkey and proportions are concerned. In spite of the increase in the number of tourists, tourism revenues increased by 110% and tourism revenues which were 13.9 billion dollars in 2003 were 29.5 billion dollars in 2018. Based on these data, the average expenditure per tourist decreased by 24% from \$ 850 to \$ 647. This situation also affected the share of tourism in the national income. In 2003, the share of tourism in national income was 4.4% and in 2018 it was 3.1%.

Keywords: Turkey, Tourism Sector, National Income

INTRODUCTION

In the national income calculations of countries, three sectors are taken into account, namely agriculture, industry and services. Depending on their level of development, there is a transition from agriculture to industry and then from industry to services in the share of these sectors in national income. In this context, the importance of tourism, which is considered as a sub-area of the services

sector, is increasing day by day in terms of the national income of the countries (Çoban, 2018, 423).

Tourism activities are defined in the form of all travel and accommodation activities that take place outside the environment in which individuals reside, for business or leisure purposes and not exceeding one year (Chuck, 1997: 138; Beyaz and Karabacak, 2018: 63). The tourism sector contributes to the economies of the country from different perspectives, from healthcare to transportation, insurance to accommodation, prevention of unemployment to foreign exchange-earning activities. In this context, the tourism sector has a protective, gripping and stimulating feature. Factors such as population growth, technological development, increased life expectancy, urbanization, social security, freedom of travel and paid holidays play a dynamic role in the development of the tourism industry. In addition, the tourism sector has a direct or indirect spreading effect with trade, transportation, accommodation, construction, food and beverage and other service sectors in many countries (Proença and Soukiazzi, 2008: 749; Çoban & Özcan, 2013). Especially for developing countries, it has many advantages such as the development of infrastructure and tourism-related subsidiary sectors, promotion of foreign capital investments, technology transfer

and so on (Yarcan, 1996: 31; Beyaz and Karabacak, 2018: 63).

In this study, considering the period of 2003-2018 data, the contribution of tourism to national income in terms of Turkey's economy was aimed to determine analytically.

METHODOLOGY

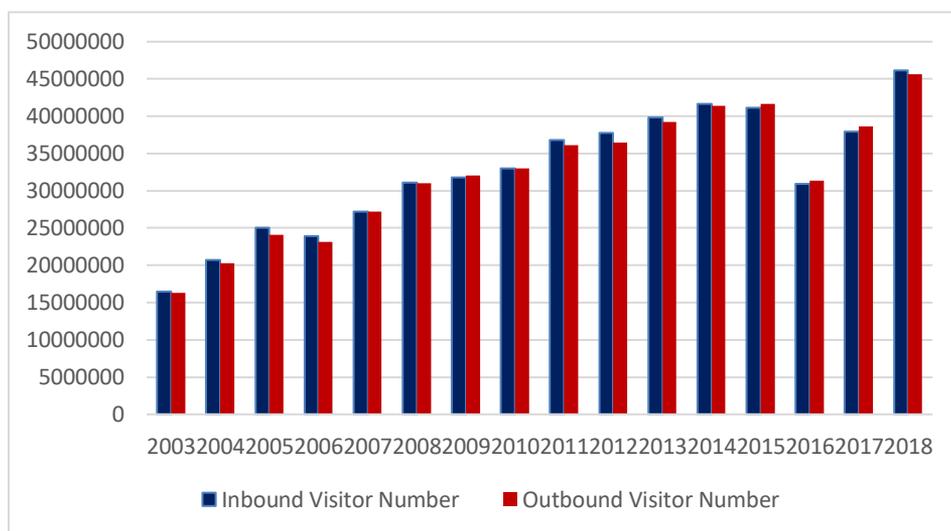
The data used in the analysis in this study were compiled from the Official Tourism Statistics of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism (Kültür, 2019). In this context, Turkey in tourism, national as well as the number-coming tourist arrivals to demonstrate the impact of revenue as well, the number of tourists-tourism revenue, its share in national income per

capita average spending and tourism receipts of tourists were discussed. The created data set was analyzed by analytical analysis.

RESULTS

Turkey tourism in the national as well as the number-coming tourist arrivals to demonstrate the impact of revenue as well, the number of tourists-tourism revenue, its share in national income of per capita average spending and tourism revenues tourists were discussed. 2003-2018-period information related to outbound tourists coming to Turkey are arranged in Figure 1.

Figure- 1: Inbound-Outbound Visitor Numbers to Turkey



According to Figure-1, the number of incoming tourists, which was 16.4 million in 2003, increased to 41.6 million in 2014, and decreased to 31 million as a result of the increasing / experienced terrorist incidents in 2016. The number of tourists, which started to increase again in 2017 and 2018, reached the highest figure in history

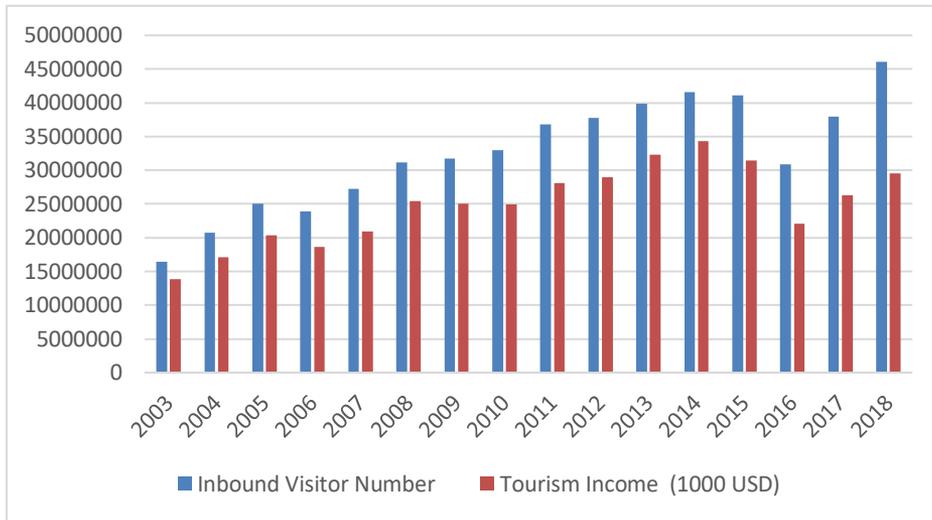
with 46 million people in 2018. A similar trend was observed in the number of tourists; The number of tourists, which was 16.3 million people in 2003, increased to 41.6 million in 2015, dropped to 31.3 million in 2016, and finally reached 45.6 million in 2018.

The number of tourists coming to see the effect of foreign exchange earning of Turkey's economy and tourism revenue figures obtained are summarized in Figure 2.

According to Figure-2, in the period handled, the number of incoming tourists increased by 180% while tourism

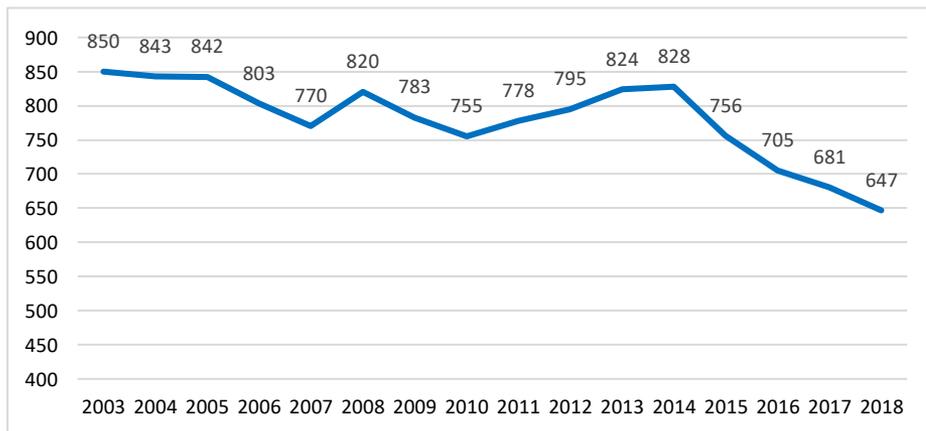
revenues increased by 110%. As the most important reasons for this situation, the depreciation of the Turkish lira against the dollar and the competition in the tourism sector may be attributed to pulling prices down. In this context, tourism revenues increased from \$ 13.9 billion in 2003 to \$ 29.5 billion in 2018.

Figure- 2: Number of Incoming Tourists and Tourism Income in Turkey, 1000\$



Another important indicator for the tourism sector is the average expenditure of each tourist. In the considered period the average expenditure of tourists visiting Turkey are summarized in Figure 3.

Figure- 3: Average Spending per Tourist, USD

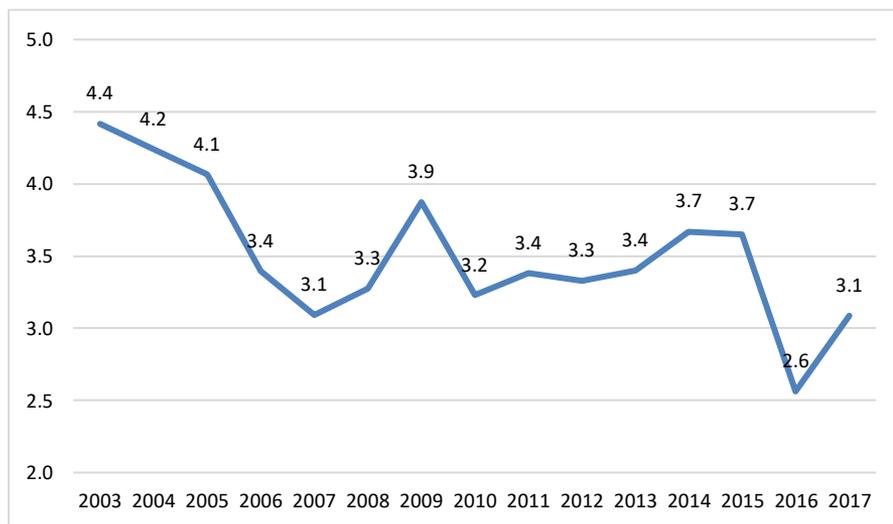


According to Figure-3, while the average expenditure made by each tourist in 2003 was at the level of 850 dollars, the average expenditures decreased after 2014, although this level was maintained until 2014. In this context, the average expenditure, which was 828 dollars in 2014, was finally 647 dollars in 2018. One of the most important reasons for this change is that prices cannot accompany

the increase in the dollar rate depending on the number of tourists coming. The dollar rate, which was around 2.2 TL in 2012, increased to 6.9 TL in 2018.

Another indicator of the tourism sector that can be taken into consideration in terms of economy is the contribution of the sector to the national income. Tourism contribution to national income in Turkey is shown by Figure 4.

Figure- 4: Share of Tourism Sector in National Income, %



According to Figure-4, while the contribution of tourism to the national income in 2003 was 4.4%, it decreased to 3.1 in 2007, to 3.9 in 2009, to 2.6 in 2016, and finally to 3.1 in 2017. Based on 2003, the proportional contribution of the tourism sector, which is generally national income, has decreased in the past period. As mentioned in our analysis above, this decrease is thought to be due to the fact that the prices in the tourism sector do not increase in parallel with the increase in the exchange rates and the average expenditures of the tourists decrease every year.

CONCLUSION

The tourism sector has an important role considering the national income of developing countries. Because of the importance Said was aimed to analyze the contribution to the national income of the tourism sector in Turkey in this study. In addition to the number of tourists coming and going, the indicators such as tourism revenues, average expenditure per tourist and the contribution of the tourism sector to the national income were taken into consideration in the analysis.

According to the results of the analysis, the number of incoming tourists, which was 16.4 million people in 2003, increased to 41.6 million in 2014, and decreased to 31 million as a result of the increasing / experienced terrorist incidents in 2016. The number of tourists, which started to increase again in 2017 and 2018, reached the highest figure in history with 46 million people in 2018. A similar trend was observed in the number of tourists. Tourism revenues increased from 13.9 billion dollars in 2003 to 29.5 billion dollars in 2018. In this context, while the number of tourists increased by 180%, tourism revenues increased by 110%. Considering the average expenditures made by each tourist, the average expenditure, which was around \$ 850 in 2003, was finally \$ 647 in 2018. Finally, when the contribution of the tourism sector to the national income is analyzed, the share, which was 4.4% in 2003, decreased to 3.1% in 2017. In this decrease, it is considered that the decrease in the number of tourists, especially due to the increasing / experienced terrorist events in 2015, as well as the prices in the tourism sector cannot adapt to the increases in the exchange rate.

When the results of the analysis are evaluated as a whole, the number of tourists coming due to the terrorist incidents in 2016 decreased by 27%. However, as a result of the policies implemented in 2017 and 2018, the number of tourists has increased significantly. The important issue here is how the contribution of the tourism industry to the national income has changed in the past period. The figures are not very positive in this regard. Compared to the increase in the number of tourists

coming from one side, tourism revenues and average spending levels per tourist decreased, while the contribution of the tourism sector to the national income decreased. In order to overcome these disadvantages, it is important to develop alternative tourism concepts, review the all-inclusive system and direct the tourists who are stuck in the hotel to touristic activities outside the hotel.

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