

# Civil Society in Turkey: AT A TURNING POINT

*Civil Society Index Project  
Analytical Country Report for Turkey II*

**TUSEV**

Türkiye Üçüncü Sektör Vakfı  
Third Sector Foundation of Turkey



**CIVICUS**  
World Alliance for Citizen Participation

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**CIVICUS**  
World Alliance for Citizen Participation

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**Civil Society in Turkey: At a Turning Point**  
*CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI) Project*  
*Country Report for Turkey II*

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## Foreword

Civil society in Turkey is going through a rapid transformation. Civil society's building blocks, civil society organisations, are emerging as important actors in Turkey's development and democratisation agendas, while increasing in their numbers and impact.

TÜSEV (Third Sector Foundation of Turkey) has played an important role in this process since its establishment in 1993. The foundation has made important contributions to reforming the legislation concerning civil society organisations and space, has played a leading role in generating knowledge and policy on the sector's future, and has promoted dialogue and cooperation between the public, private and third sectors. Today, TÜSEV's Board of Trustees, which is composed of the leading associations and foundations in Turkey, continues to cooperate under TÜSEV's umbrella for a more enabling legal, fiscal and operational civil society infrastructure.

In this context, generating a useful and comprehensive knowledge base has a crucial role to play in promoting the health of the third sector in Turkey. TÜSEV has strengthened the sector through its Publications and Research Programme, which has produced over 50 valuable publications on the third sector in Turkey.

The CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI) project holds a special place among these initiatives. Not only did the first CSI implementation result in the first comprehensive and internationally comparative study on civil society in Turkey, but now the second implementation expands its scope even further and offers readers an opportunity to make comparisons over a five year period.

The country report examines some key issues related to civil society in Turkey and gives a fresh perspective through the answers it offers. For instance, how are citizens participating in civil society in Turkey? What is civil society's impact on Turkey's leading social and political problems? How do the public and private sectors relate to civil society? What has been the effect of the European Union accession process on Turkey's civil society? Are there any regional differences concerning citizen participation and civil society organisations? What kinds of transitions have been taking place since 2005?

As we complete this project, we are hopeful that it will provide a fresh perspective on civil society in Turkey and inspire initiatives towards strengthening it further. In sharing this publication with you, I would like to thank our Trustees, supporters and donors, Board of Directors, staff and all that have contributed to this project for making this happen.

**Üstün ERGÜDER**

*Chairman*

*Third Sector Foundation of Turkey (TÜSEV)*

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The CSI Advisory Committee provided guidance on the local implementation of the CSI. We thank them, all experts in their fields and civil society, for their time, valuable contributions and guidance:

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Last but not least, we would like to thank the survey and consultation participants who patiently shared their perspectives and provided input for this study. Their tireless efforts and dedication were a factor essential to the success of the project.

We hope that this publication will be an informative guide towards better understanding and strengthening the third sector in Turkey and that the dialogue and synergies created during the project will stimulate new initiatives.

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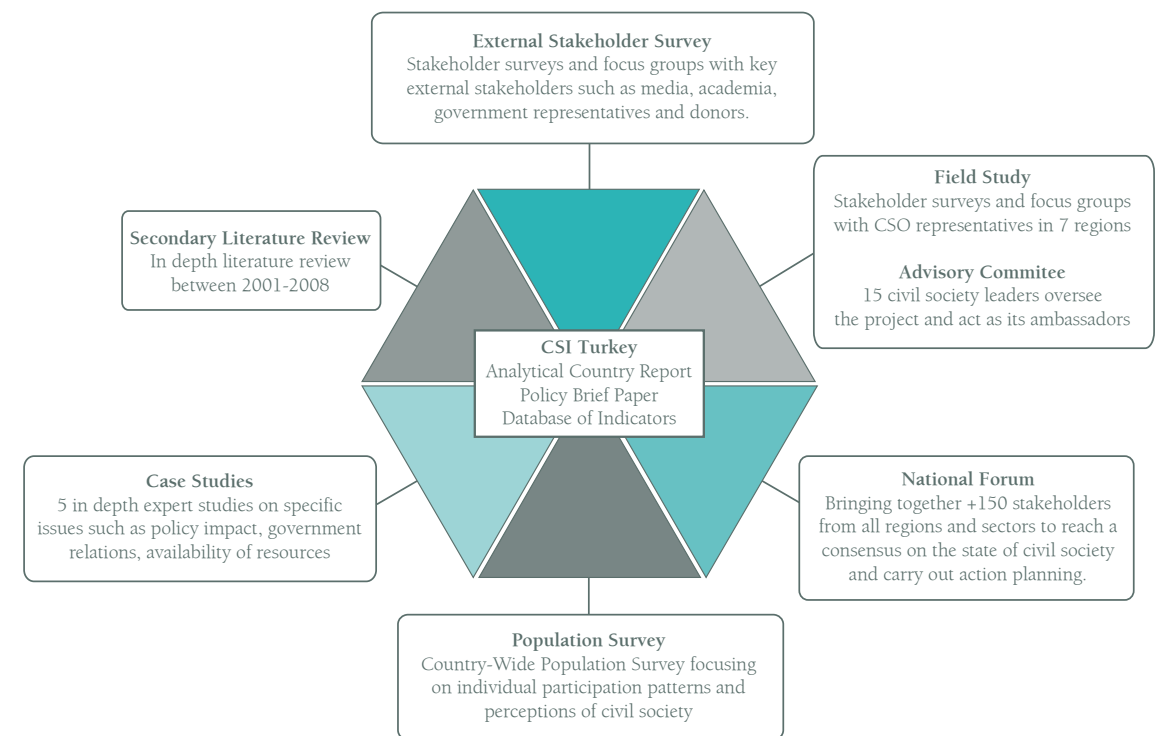
## List of Acronyms

<b>BCI</b>	Basic Capabilities Index
<b>CAF</b>	Charities Aid Foundation
<b>CS</b>	Civil Society
<b>CSI</b>	Civil Society Index
<b>CSO</b>	Civil Society Organisation
<b>CSOS</b>	Civil Society Organisations Survey
<b>CSR</b>	Corporate Social Responsibility
<b>DoA</b>	Department of Associations
<b>ESS</b>	External Stakeholder Survey
<b>EU</b>	European Union
<b>GDF</b>	General Directorate of Foundations
<b>GNI</b>	Gross National Income
<b>OECD</b>	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
<b>PR</b>	Public Relations
<b>TSA</b>	Turkish Statistics Agency
<b>TÜSEV</b>	Third Sector Foundation of Turkey
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>WVS</b>	World Values Survey
<b>WRO</b>	Women's Rights Organisations
<b>YADA</b>	Yada Foundation

## Executive Summary

TÜSEV is the lead organisation responsible for the implementation of the CSI project in Turkey, under the guidance of the Advisory Committee. The project team established under TÜSEV has undertaken the data gathering and analysis, which was followed by the generation of action plans with the participation of a broad range of stakeholders. The figure below visually summarises the primary and secondary data gathering activities.<sup>01</sup>

Figure 1 CSI Turkey Data Collection Process



<sup>01</sup> Please see Appendix 2 CSI Methodology and Implementation in Turkey.

Data gathered was then divided and analysed along CSI's conceptual framework, the main pillars of which are the civil society definition and its five core dimensions.

CSI methodology is designed to measure the following **five core dimensions**:

- 1. Civic Engagement:** the extent to which individuals engage in social and policy-related initiatives;
- 2. Level of Organisation:** the degree of institutionalisation that characterises civil society (measured through an analysis of civil society organisations);
- 3. Practice of Values:** the extent to which civil society practices some core values;
- 4. Perceived Impact:** the extent to which civil society is able to achieve impact on the social and policy arena, according to internal and external perceptions;
- 5. External Environment:** the above four dimensions are analysed in the context of a fifth dimension that the CSI calls the 'external environment', which includes the conditions (e.g. socio-economic, political and cultural variables) within which civil society operates.

A close look at the research findings shows civil society's growing impact, expanding areas of activity and impressive initiatives to address some of Turkey's most pressing social and political concerns. When compared to two decades ago, civil society arena and its organisations' development have reached impressive heights.

In this context, the previous CSI study (2005) pictured civil society in a conceptual and operational era of transition. Although research findings showed more weaknesses than strengths, they also pointed towards some opportunities and potential for civil society actors to tackle the country's democratisation and development goals.

The current CSI study (2010) continues to show civil society in Turkey in an era of transition with more weaknesses than strengths. Although some of the opportunities that were pointed out in the first study have been addressed, the acceleration of civil society's transition has decreased. The persistence of some major weaknesses is worrisome and points towards future obstacles. As such, this CSI study portrays civil society in Turkey facing a major turning point: it will either build on its strengths to deepen its role as an indispensable actor in social and political life in Turkey; or it will enter a period of stagnation that is bound by its persistent weaknesses.

There are 90,578 CSOs (4,547 foundations and 86,031 associations) in Turkey. The numbers rise above 150,000 if one includes trade unions, professional chambers and cooperatives. Yet, these numbers are quite low in proportion to Turkey's population: there is one CSO for every 780 people in the country (DoA 2008 and GDF 2009).

CSOs tend to be more active in social services and solidarity, making advocacy and policy oriented activities less common. About 65% of associations do not work on policy issues but rather on delivering social services and on solidarity (DoA, 2008). Foundations have a similar tendency toward social aid (56.1%), education (47.5%) and health (21.8%) as their most common areas of activity. Yet the increase of activity and visibility among advocacy oriented CSOs (in areas such as women's rights, human rights, consumer protection, student and youth issues) is notable. In addition, in the recent decades, many new civil society actors have become visible on the Kurdish issue and on the question of the Laicism/Islamism duality, as will be discussed further below.

**1. Civic Engagement:** Despite its growth in the recent decades, Turkish citizens remain rather disconnected from the civil society movement. Citizen participation is characterised by a narrow and deep nature where different social groups such as young people, women and ethnic minorities are under-represented. In line with this weak description, Civic Engagement received the lowest score (31%) among the five dimensions of the CSI, showing the most need for improvement.

Only 4.5% and 5.3% of the population are members of social and political CSOs respectively, while only 2.5% and 4.2% provide volunteer support to social or political organisations. Donations to CSOs are also rather low in Turkey: according to an international study, only 14% of the public have made a financial donation to a CSO within the last month. The same study places Turkey 134th out of 153 in terms of donations, volunteerism and helping a stranger (CAF, 2010). Yet, despite the narrow citizen participation in Turkey, those that do participate in civil society activities do so rather deeply and intensely. A significant percentage of citizens who are members or volunteers of one CSO are members of or volunteers in at least one other.

A large majority (87%) of CSOs find citizen participation levels insufficient and place it second among their most pressing problems (YADA, 2010), approving the need for increased capacity and support in this area.

**2. Level of Organisation:** An in-depth look at CSOs' organisational levels shows that CSOs are functioning with insufficient levels of institutionalisation, problematic governance structures, and insufficient resources and relationships. Yet, this dimension holds a relatively high score (54.6%). This is due to the international standards the CSI applies across 56 countries, which were not always able to capture the idiosyncrasies of Turkey's CSOs.<sup>02</sup>

<sup>02</sup> Please see 2. Level of Organization under Section III of the analytical country report.

Insufficient human resources, both paid and volunteer, is a core weakness with multi-dimensional consequences for CSO activities. In terms of financial resources, CSOs function with very limited funds: almost half (44.6%) report yearly incomes below 10,000 TL (less than 5,000 Euro). CSOs place financial resources at the top of their most pressing needs, (YADA, 2010) while also underlining the fact that financial sustainability is an equally important issue.

A strong indicator of the health and vibrancy of civil society is the level of communication and cooperation among civil society actors. Research findings show that a large portion of CSOs meet, share information or cooperate with up to five CSOs within a three month period (42%, 45% and 48% respectively), but a significant proportion have no contact at all. As such, CSOs are functioning rather disconnectedly and independently, to the point that their ability to act together is questionable.

On the other hand, human and financial resources, along with levels of communication and cooperation, are closely interrelated and capable of triggering positive change in addressing other structural and organisational weaknesses of CSOs in Turkey. High levels of access to support infrastructures (41.1%) and technology (over 70%) also point towards opportunities to overcome the above weaknesses. In addition, there are a number of highly developed CSOs that present best practices with sustainable resources, relationships and governance structures that bring a potential for modelling and scaling-up in the sector.

**3. Practice of Values:** This dimension received a relatively high score (46.9%). Research findings show that stakeholders perceive negative values such as violence, corruption, racism/discrimination in civil society to be practiced rarely and only among marginal groups.

On the other hand, although democratic decision-making structures exist as legal necessities in most CSOs in Turkey, their functionality remains questionable. In addition, CSOs report that values such as equal opportunities, labour standards and environmental standards are rarely put down on paper and shared with the general public in a transparent manner, leaving their practice open to misuse and abuse. As such, CSOs are advised to develop written policies and share them publicly to promote transparency, trust and participation from the public.

**4. Perception of Impact:** Civil society is perceived to have a limited impact in promoting non-violence and peace in society. CSOs are self-critical in this respect, emphasising that they first need to act democratically and transparently themselves before they can promote any positive values, good governance or transparency in public and private sectors.

Civil society is also perceived to have a limited social and political impact, while its impact on attitudes appears to be non-existent. Yet civil society is perceived to have a relatively high impact on Turkey's most important social issues such as education and human rights.

Although civil society's impact is perceived to be limited both in the social and political spheres, social impact is seen as relatively higher than political impact, possibly due to CSOs being more active in this field. In addition, although the importance and necessity of advocacy and policy impact is understood more and more in the sector, there is yet to be a common understanding of how to handle these issues. Still, the fact that 50% of CSOs report having recently made a policy recommendation points towards an increased activity level in this respect.

Comparisons between levels of trust, tolerance and public spiritedness show no significant difference between those who participate in civil society activities as members and those who do not. Yet, studies show that volunteering has positive effects on self-esteem, anomie, trust and empathy levels among individuals (TEGV – İnfakto, 2008).

**5. External Environment:** The social, political and cultural contexts within which civil society functions are critically important for the health of the sector. The socio-political and socioeconomic environments in Turkey were assessed through international indices and found to present no significant challenges to its existence or growth. Yet, the socio-cultural environment and the low levels of social capital were found to be limiting. Still, the environment dimension enjoys the highest score (57.5%) of CSI Turkey, signalling even more room for the development of civil society in the future.

Relations with the public sector appear to have worsened in civil society actors' perceptions, be it in terms of autonomy, dialogue or cooperation. This could be due to the legal reforms and participatory mechanisms that were established in the early 2000s with great hopes and expectations. Yet, over the years, the legal reforms and mechanisms were not implemented as they should have been. As such, the legal framework concerning CSOs was found to be very or extremely limiting by 69% of CSOs while only 13% believed that they could function autonomously and without any illegitimate interventions from the state.

While relations with the private sector were found to be limited in terms of approach and numbers of cooperative relations, this area was perceived to be full of potential for development.

The European Union accession process kept its positive perception despite its ups and downs. It was found to be beneficial in terms of legal frameworks, dialogue with the state and financial resources, as well as support for social movements. There were only concerns regarding financial resources about the dependency they create on foreign aid.

Citizen participation and organisational levels of CSOs (in terms of international relations, financial and technological resources) in Turkey show significant regional differences.

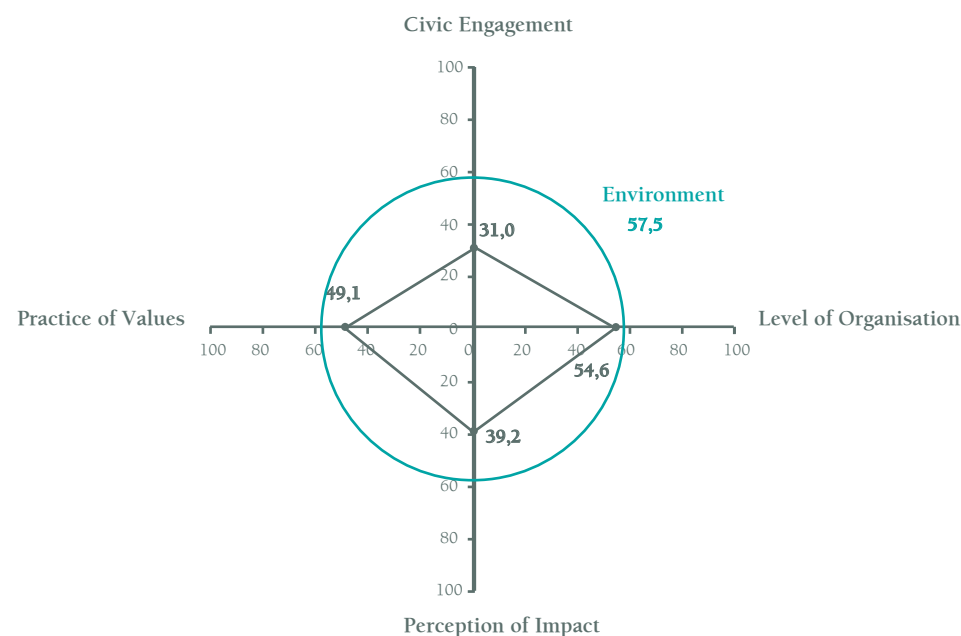
A comparative look at civil society's strengths and weaknesses over time shows that there have been improvements in some areas while others have failed to progress. For instance,

the socio-political and socio-economic environments, along with relations with the private sector, continue to be strengths of civil society in Turkey. The increase in volunteering and membership rates in terms of participation, access to technology and support infrastructures and a tendency not to associate civil society with negative values are all signs of improvement.

Yet insufficient citizen participation and weak organisational structures remain as major challenges for civil society in Turkey. In addition to these main weaknesses, CSOs' impact, along with relations with the government, are perceived to have worsened.

Research findings were analysed to capture the quantitative values which make up the Civil Society Diamond, through which civil society in Turkey is described visually. The figure depicts a weak civil society going through a positive transition, although it is not transforming at the rate it once was.

**Figure 2 Civil Society Diamond for Turkey**



## Introduction

This report presents the results of the CIVICUS Civil Society Index (CSI) project in Turkey carried out from January 2009 to December 2010 as part of the international CSI project coordinated by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation and implemented in more than 40 countries.

The CSI is a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in different countries. The project links this assessment with a reflection and action-planning process by civil society stakeholders, aiming to strengthen civil society in those areas where weaknesses or challenges are detected. By seeking to combine valid assessment, broad-based reflection and joint action, the CSI attempts to make a contribution to the perennial debate on how research can inform policy and practice.

An important feature of CSI implementation in Turkey is that it was the first comprehensive and internationally comparative study undertaken on civil society in Turkey. As such, the country report presents an invaluable collection of data that is crucial for identifying and rectifying the data gaps on civil society in Turkey.

## Structure of the Report

Section I, Civil Society Index Project and Approach, provides a detailed history of the CSI, its conceptual framework and research methodology, as well as limitations that were faced during its implementation in Turkey.<sup>03</sup>

Section II, Civil Society in Turkey, provides a background on civil society in Turkey and highlights some specific features of Turkish civil society. It also describes the use of the civil society concept in Turkey as well as the definition employed by the CSI project.

Section III, Analysis of Civil Society, examines the five dimensions of CSI – Citizen Participation, Level of Organisation, Practice of Values, Perceived Impact and External Environment.

<sup>03</sup> See also Appendix 1 CSI Indicator Matrix and Appendix 2 CSI Turkey Methodology and Implementation.

Presentation of the results according to individual dimensions and sub-dimensions are intended to offer a resource repository.

Section IV, Strengths and Weaknesses of Civil Society in Turkey, summarises the ideas, arguments and opinions raised at the regional focus groups and Civil Society Forum, where over 150 participants from CSOs and academic institutions had the opportunity to comment on, criticise and supplement the findings through their participation in plenary sessions and focus group discussions.

Section V, Recommendations, presents the suggestions put forward by participants at the Civil Society Forum and other project events such as regional consultation meetings. These recommendations focus on concrete actions on how to strengthen civil society and its role in Turkey.

Finally, the concluding remarks in Section VI offer an interpretation of the report's implications and recommendations while mapping the Civil Society Diamond which reflects the overall state of Turkish civil society.

# I

## Civil Society Index Project and Approach

1. Project Background
2. Project Approach
3. Limitations of CSI Study

**1**

**Project Background**



Civil society is playing an increasingly important role in governance and development around the world. In most countries, however, knowledge about the state and shape of civil society is limited, and there are few opportunities for civil society stakeholders to come together to collectively discuss, reflect on and act on the strengths, weaknesses, challenges and opportunities that face civil society.

The Civil Society Index (CSI) is a participatory action-research project assessing the state of civil society in countries around the world in order to create the necessary knowledge base and momentum for civil society strengthening initiatives. The CSI is initiated and implemented by, and for, CSOs at the country level, and actively involves and disseminates its findings to a broad range of stakeholders including civil society, government, the media, donors, academics, and the public at large.

**The CSI project follows a pioneering sequence to bring about change in the sector:**

- 1. Assessment:** using an innovative mix of participatory research methods, data sources and case studies to comprehensively assess the state of civil society along five dimensions.
- 2. Collective reflection:** providing opportunities for structured dialogue among diverse civil society stakeholders enables the identification of civil society's specific strengths and weaknesses.
- 3. Joint action:** the actors involved use this participatory and consultative process to develop and implement a concrete action agenda to strengthen civil society in a country.

The CSI first emerged as a concept over a decade ago, and has since built up a significant international track record. CIVICUS, with the help of Helmut Anheier, initially developed the CSI at the end of the late 1990s as a follow-up to the 1997 *New Civic Atlas* publication by CIVICUS, which contained profiles of civil society in 60 countries around the world.<sup>04</sup> Subsequently, in 1999, CIVICUS unveiled the first version of the CSI methodology<sup>05</sup> and carried out an initial pilot phase in 2001-2002 using 13 countries.<sup>06</sup> The implementation and results were then addressed through an evaluation and revision of the methodology, and CIVICUS implemented

<sup>04</sup> CIVICUS (1997) "The New Civic Atlas: Profiles of Civil Society in 60 Countries" Washington, DC: CIVICUS. Please also see Heinrich/Naidoo (2001) "Assessing the Health of Civil Society: A Handbook for Using the CIVICUS Index on Civil Society as a Self-Assessment"; and Holloway, R. (ed) (2001) *Using the Civil Society Index: A Handbook for using the CIVICUS Index on Civil Society as a Self-Assessment Tool*. Washington DC: CIVICUS.

<sup>05</sup> Please see Anheier, Helmut K. (2004) *Civil Society: Measurement, Evaluation, Policy*. London: Earthscan.

<sup>06</sup> The pilot countries were Belarus, Canada, Croatia, Estonia, Indonesia, Mexico, New Zealand, Pakistan Romania, South Africa, Ukraine, Uruguay and Wales.



the first complete phase of the CSI between 2003 and 2006 in over 50 countries worldwide, directly involving more than 7,000 civil society stakeholders.<sup>07</sup>

CIVICUS worked with the Centre for Social Investment at the University of Heidelberg, as well as partners and other stakeholders, to rigorously evaluate and revise the CSI methodology for a second time before the start of this current phase of CSI. With this new and streamlined methodology in place, in 2008 CIVICUS launched the new phase of the CSI and selected country partners, including both previous and new implementers, from all over the globe to participate in the project. Please see Table I.1.1 below for a list of implementing countries in the current phase of the CSI.

**Table I.1.1 List of CSI Implementing Countries 2008-2011<sup>08</sup>**

1. Albania	14. Ghana	28. Niger
2. Argentina	15. Italy	29. Philippines
3. Armenia	16. Japan	30. Russia
4. Bahrain	17. Jordan	31. Serbia
5. Belarus	18. Kazakhstan	32. Slovenia
6. Bulgaria	19. Kosovo	33. South Korea
7. Burkina Faso	20. Lebanon	34. Sudan
8. Chile	21. Liberia	35. Togo
9. Croatia	22. Macedonia	36. Turkey
10. Cyprus <sup>09</sup>	23. Madagascar	37. Uganda
11. Djibouti	24. Mali	38. Ukraine
12. Democratic Republic of Congo	25. Malta	39. Uruguay
13. Georgia	26. Mexico	40. Venezuela
	27. Nicaragua	41. Zambia

<sup>07</sup> See V. Finn Heinrich 2008, CIVICUS Global Survey of the State of Civil Society, Vol.1 Country Profile, Bloomfield, Kumarian Press, Inc. for a list of the implementing countries from 2003-2006.

<sup>08</sup> Please note that this list was accurate as of the publication of this Analytical Country Report, but may have changed slightly since the publication, due to countries being added or dropped during the implementation cycle.

<sup>09</sup> The CSI Project was carried out both in the Greek and Turkish Cypriot parts of the island.



The uniqueness of the CSI project is that its approach marries assessment and evidence with reflections and action in a manner that permeates the conceptual framework for all of CSI's work. In other words, CSI does not produce knowledge for its own sake but instead seeks to directly apply the knowledge generated to stimulate strategies that enhance the effectiveness and role of civil society. As such, CSI's fundamental bedrocks are:

**Inclusiveness:** The CSI framework strives to incorporate a variety of theoretical viewpoints, as well as being inclusive in terms of civil society indicators, actors and processes included in the project.

**Universality:** Since the CSI is a global project, its methodology seeks to accommodate national variations in context and concepts in a unique framework.

**Comparability:** The CSI aims not to rank, but instead to comparatively measure different aspects of civil society worldwide. The possibility for comparisons exists both between different countries or regions within one phase of CSI implementation and between phases.

**Versatility:** The CSI is specifically designed to achieve an appropriate balance between international comparability and national flexibility in the implementation of the project.

**Dialogue:** One of the key elements of the CSI is its participatory approach, involving a wide range of stakeholders who collectively own and run the project in their respective countries.

**Capacity Development:** Country partners are firstly trained on the CSI methodology during a three day regional workshop. After the training, partners are supported through the implementation cycle by the CSI team at CIVICUS. Partners participating in the project also gain substantial skills in research, training and facilitation in implementing the CSI in-country.

**Networking:** The participatory and inclusive nature of the different CSI tools (e.g. focus groups, the Advisory Committee, the National Workshops) create new spaces where very diverse actors can discover synergies and forge new alliances, including at a cross-sectoral level. Some countries in the last phase have also participated in regional conferences to discuss the CSI findings as well as cross-national civil society issues.

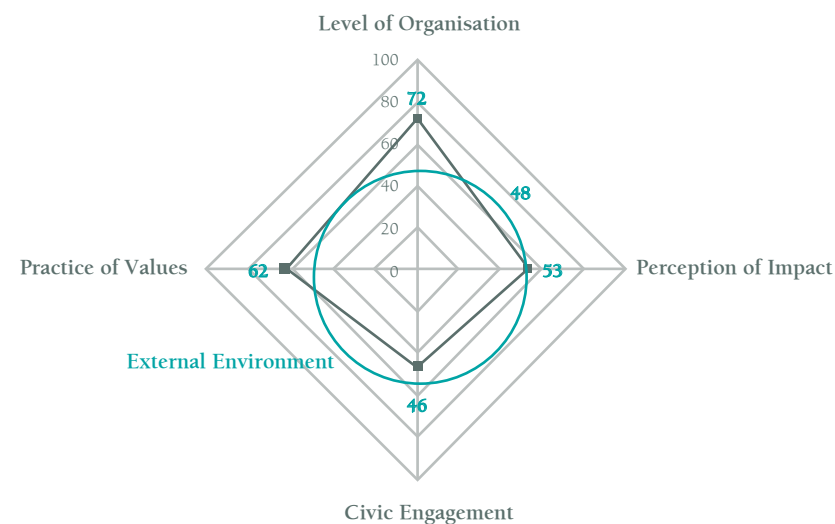
**Change:** In contrast to some research initiatives, the principal aim of the CSI is to generate information that is of practical use to civil society practitioners and other primary stakeholders. Therefore, the CSI framework seeks to identify aspects of civil society that can be changed and to generate information and knowledge relevant to action-oriented goals.

With these foundations, the CSI methodology uses a combination of participatory and scientific research methods to generate an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level. The CSI measures the following core dimensions:

- (1) Civic Engagement
- (2) Level of Organisation
- (3) Practice of Values
- (4) Perceived Impact
- (5) External Environment

These dimensions are illustrated visually through the Civil Society Diamond (see Figure I.1.1 below), which is one of the most essential and best-known components of the CSI project. To form the Civil Society Diamond, 67 quantitative indicators are aggregated into 28 sub-dimensions which are then assembled into the five final dimensions along a 0-100 percentage scale.<sup>10</sup> The Diamond's size seeks to portray an empirical picture of the state of civil society, the conditions that support or inhibit civil society's development, as well as the consequences of civil society's activities for society at large. The context or environment is represented visually by a circle around the axes of the Civil Society Diamond, and is not regarded as part of the state of civil society but rather as something external that remains a crucial element for its wellbeing.

Figure I.1.1 The Civil Society Index Diamond



<sup>10</sup> CSI Turkey Team and Advisory Committee expanded the number of indicators to 86 and the subdimensions to 30, but the additions did not play a role in forming the Civil Society Diamond.

Major elements of the CSI implementation at the national level include:

- Multiple surveys, including: (i) a **Population Survey**, gathering the views of citizens on civil society and gauging their involvement in groups and associations; (ii) an **Organisational Survey** measuring the meso-level of civil society and defining characteristics of CSOs; and (iii) an **External Perceptions Survey** aiming at measuring the perception that stakeholders, experts and policy makers in key sectors have of civil society's impact. The CSI methodology enables the Population Survey indicators to be substituted with equivalent indicators from the World Values Survey where this was available, and this was done in Turkey.
- Tailored **case studies** which focus on issues of importance to the specific civil society country context.
- **Advisory Committee (AC)** meetings made up of civil society experts to advise on the project and its implementation at the country level.
- **Regional Consultation Meetings** where civil society stakeholders reflect and share views on civil society's role in society in focus groups

Following this in-depth research and the extensive collection of information, the findings are presented and debated at a **national level forum**, which brings together a large group of civil society and non-civil society stakeholders and allows interested parties to discuss and develop strategies for addressing identified priority issues.

This Analytical Country Report is one of the major outputs of the CSI implementation process in Turkey, and presents highlights from the research conducted, including summaries of civil society's strengths and weaknesses as well as recommendations for strengthening civil society in the country.

# 3

## Limitations of CSI Study

- 3.1 The Diversity of Turkey's Civic Landscape
- 3.2 Scarce Civil Society Data and Literature for Turkey
- 3.3 The Balance Between Comparability and Turkey's Idiosyncrasies



While the CSI framework and methodology is complex and far-reaching, the implementation of the project in Turkey was not without its limitations. The vastness and diversity of the country's civic landscape, the scarcity of data and research on civil society and the fine balance between international comparability and country flexibility were the main limitations encountered during the project implementation.

### 3.1. *The Diversity of Turkey's Civic Landscape*

The foremost limitation encountered during the CSI implementation was the inability to include all actors that were suggested by the broad civil society definition of the CSI. While the concept of inclusiveness was important in sending the message that the civil society space is very wide and diverse, it also presented a challenge in reaching this entire wide spectrum of actors.

Although the samples for surveys and regional consultation meetings were kept as diverse as possible, it was not possible to reach groups such as religious communities, mosque building associations or township associations because of their low visibility and accessibility.<sup>11</sup> Combined with the lack of literature on these organisations, we were unable to obtain a better understanding of these 'sub-sectors', although they account for about a quarter of all associations and foundations in Turkey. In addition, the relatively small number of stakeholders that were involved (about 400) was another limitation to the inclusiveness of the project.

As such, readers must keep in mind that the analysis of this study is more reflective of CSOs established as associations and foundations, which engage in activities which are generally oriented toward development and rights issues and toward the benefit of the public at large.

### 3.2 *Scarce Civil Society Data and Literature for Turkey*

As in many developing countries, the literature regarding civil society in Turkey is quite scarce. National studies are limited and are mainly in essay/opinion format or are 'grey literature'.<sup>12</sup>

.....

<sup>11</sup> Mosque building associations are grassroots organisations that provide for the mosque and its community, accounting for 18.13% of the 86,031 associations in Turkey. Township (hemseri) associations are established in cities by migrants from a particular town to support one another and send remittances back home to their communities, making up about 16.68% of associations (DoA, 2008).

<sup>12</sup> The term 'grey literature' refers to a body of materials that includes working papers from research groups or committees, white papers, pre-prints and such. These sources of information are often not disseminated through conventional channels such as publishers or academia.

However, the exercise of determining what type of literature does exist was in itself a very useful one and revealed significant gaps in research.

A ground-breaking development in recent years is that associations and foundations have started to file their annual reports in digital format, allowing the relevant government agencies to accumulate vast amounts of information on a wide range of issues such as members, volunteers, organisational structures, resources, international relations and activities of these CSOs. This quantitative information was available for associations; however the data analysis was still underway for foundations at the time this study was published. As a result, the CSI implementation in Turkey had to rely heavily on the primary data generated by CSI activities such as surveys and case studies.

### 3.3 *The Tension between International Comparability and Turkey's Idiosyncrasies*

The CSI is specifically designed to achieve an appropriate balance between international comparability and country flexibility. Yet, this balance was not always easy to achieve in implementation. Advisory Committee members sometimes felt that the CSI framework suggested rather superficial comparative measurements of different aspects of civil society without sufficiently accommodating Turkey's idiosyncrasies.

In order to take into account some of Turkey's variations, some modifications have been made to the CSI indicator matrix<sup>13</sup> and the Committee's concerns are discussed under the related sub-dimensions of the country report.

<sup>13</sup> Please see Appendix 1, CSI Indicator Matrix for more information.

## II Civil Society in Turkey

1. Concept of Civil Society
2. History of Civil Society in Turkey
3. Mapping Civil Society



Historically, civil society emerges as an important factor in western-style modernisation processes. In Turkey where such a modernisation process was initiated with significant political will, civil society is often discussed within the framework of a “continuous tradition of strong government in opposition to a weak civil society” (Heper, 1985, 1994; Göle, 1994; Toprak, 1996; Keyman ve İçduygu, 2005).

On the other hand, the extent to which this duality, which is the product of a certain ideology and framework for modernisation, truly reflects Turkey civil society has also been questioned. Within these arguments, there have been certain claims that in a rapidly globalising world with a variety of modernisation processes, it would be possible to find different historical and societal experiences of civil society co-existing in the same space (Kalaycıoğlu, 2002; Keyman ve İçduygu, 2003; Şimşek 2004).

Civil society in Turkey has been revitalised as a result of several internal and external factors, especially in the post-1980 era, and has gained prominence in academic, social and political discourse. As the numbers of civil society actors in the country increases, they have also become important actors for social change.

This section aims to begin the discussion of civil society in Turkey by drawing a comprehensive conceptual framework. It is followed by an overview of civil society’s historical journey and concludes with a map of the civil society arena in contemporary Turkey.

1

## Concept of Civil Society





Contemporary discussions on the concept of civil society rotate around three main axes. These arguments, taking place in the aftermath of the Cold War and within the context of heavy globalisation, have important implications for the understanding of civil society in Turkey.

The *first* axis is based on the model of a civil society emerging from within, without any government influence. This model specifically refers to historical developments which came about as a result of the demands of urban populations from their governments for civil liberties and individual rights. The question here is whether such a process for civil society's development is possible in countries such as Turkey where western modernisation took place at a much later time in history. The idea of civil society's formation from within implies its development from the bottom up and relates it to the expansion of individual rights and liberties. As such, this line of argument relates the weakness of civil society to the "late and slow modernisation process" that was experienced in Turkey (Kalaycıoğlu, 2002).

The *second* axis of argument positions civil society vis-à-vis the quality and character of democracy. This argument has its roots in the 'good society' argument and sees civil society as a means through which democracy is initiated and established. It is argued that especially in authoritarian and totalitarian regimes with strong governments, a civil society that is independent and even capable of opposing the system is the most important agent of change. In this sense, civil society is perceived to be both a result and an indicator of democratisation.

Starting from the 1980s, regions such as Latin America and Eastern Europe have experienced processes of democratisation towards becoming liberal democracies. In this context, civil society's role has been examined through concrete cases to reveal both a bottom up and a top down direction where civil society becomes both an object and a subject that actively contributes to the democratisation processes. Civil society in Turkey in the post-1980 era is also often discussed within this framework (Yaresimos, Seufert ve Vorhoff, 2000; İçduygu, 2007).

A *third* axis involves an approach to civil society that is beyond and yet encompassing of both the first and second approaches. Here civil society is not approached as an organisational arena that spontaneously appears in liberal economic and political systems. It is also not approached as an actor actively contributing to democratisation processes in an ethical and political sense. This third approach rather defines civil society as an area of associational life with diverse social, economic and political functions (Keyman ve İçduygu, 2003; Keyman, 2006). Starting from the late 1990s and throughout the 2000s, civil society in Turkey has been predominantly portrayed through this approach.

Within its diverse functions:

- (a) Civil society is perceived to be an effective agent in solving social problems
- (b) It cooperates with government and other actors to solve these problems
- (c) It thus facilitates effective and active citizenship
- (d) Contributes to the wellbeing of liberal democracy by facilitating direct and daily participation
- (e) Brings efficiency, transparency and legitimacy to state functions through this constant participation
- (f) Creates an environment for discussion and reflection among economic, social and political actors.

The CSI definition describes civil society as “*the arena, outside of the family, the state, and the market, which is created by individual and collective actions, organisations and institutions to advance shared interests*”. Although the definition was accepted by the Advisory Committee, regional consultation meeting and civil society forum participants, it was discussed thoroughly along three lines. First, the notion of civil society being “outside of family, state and market” was found to be open to misunderstandings by creating oppositions between these spheres. Second, the term ‘common interest’ was viewed to have a more negative connotation in the Turkish language (implying some sort of self-interest) and it was eventually agreed to change this term from ‘interest’ to ‘benefit’. Third, it can be said that civil society in Turkey was discussed along individualistic (liberal) and communitarian lines.

In this framework, the CSI definition of civil society has the following implications:

- (a) Civil society consists of associations where citizens come together to pursue their common benefit.
- (b) These associations form a large societal space with a diversity of actors and processes.
- (c) This space co-exists with three other social areas, namely the state, market and the family.
- (d) Although the boundaries between these areas are often visible, they can also be blurry, with overlapping areas at times.
- (e) Civil society also involves un-civil actors.
- (f) The civil society definition is a multidimensional one that changes according to one’s position in society.

## 2

### History of Civil Society in Turkey



In parallel to the social and political transformations Turkey has gone through, the development of civil society in the country can be examined within five major historical periods: 1923-1945, 1945-1960, 1960-1980, 1980-2000 and post-2000.

A western style civil society space became visible in the late Ottoman era with the emergence of a western modernisation process that started to transform Turkey in the early 20th Century. Yet, if we define civil society solely as an associational life outside of the state, then its history goes back much further.

For instance, foundations emerged in the Ottoman Empire as ‘philanthropic institutions’, which created social solidarity outside political and economic spheres through charitable activities (Çizakça, 2006). There were also prototypes of early trade unions called *lonca* and *ahi* organisations, accompanied by the emergence of association-type organisations in the Meşrutiyet Era (Hatemi, 1983).

*1923-1945 Period:* CSOs first emerged as a constitutional right in the 1908 constitution. The legislation defining the structures and functions of these organisations was the 1909 Cemiyetler Kanunu which stayed in effect until 1938, thus shaping the first fifteen years of associational life after the Republic’s establishment.

Following Turkey’s emergence as an independent and modern nation state, civil society displayed organic relations with the state in its efforts to establish and deepen a nation state. In this context, the state began to see civil society as an ideological tool to reinforce modernisation in society. Thus, it is not possible to speak of a bottom-up development of CSOs in this period where the single party system, along with a heavily rural population, left little room for organising from within.

As such, the state encouraged an associational life that was in line with and complementary to modernisation, while it suppressed any kind of organisation that did not fit this criteria (Toprak, 1996). This approach continued through the following periods of the Republic.

*1945-1960 Period:* The shift from a single party system to a multi-party system can be viewed as an important milestone for freedom of association in Turkey (TÜSEV, 2006: 37). For instance, the 1946 Law on Associations expanded civil liberties and brought about increases in association and trade union activities. With the Democrat Party coming to power, social groups from the peripheries of society found themselves represented and this facilitated a relatively more representative civil participation. In addition, as a result of social and economic transformations of this period, Turkey’s economy became more industrialised and the population became more urban, leading to a more favourable social structure for civil society’s development.

Yet, the tradition of state-oriented and top-down modernisation prevailed in this period as well, inhibiting the development of civil society from the bottom-up. The ruling Democrat Party between 1950-1960 followed a hostile approach towards CSOs of the opposition. For instance, the applications of Türk-İş, a major trade union confederation, to join its international counterparts were declined on numerous accounts by the government. This is a clear example that in the 1950s, although the society's development and structure had reached a certain level for civil society's development, the political system failed to take the necessary steps.

In short, the state's influence and oversight over social life continued in the post-1945 period of the multi-party system, resulting in limited development of civil society and its organisations (Toksöz, 1983: 373).

*1960-1980 Period:* In this period, state dominance and control over associational life continued and prevailed, and reached its peak during three subsequent military interventions (1960, 1971, 1980), severely disrupting the democratic fabric of Turkey. These military coups not only disrupted the multi-party parliamentary system but also served to put security ideology above democracy, and reinforced government's strength against society (TÜSEV, 2006: 37).

Although the 1960 military coup significantly harmed Turkey's young democracy, the 1961 Constitution opened up space for associational freedoms and thus for civil society's development (Özbudun, 1993). The institutionalisation of the syndical movement, increased associational activity and increased participation from urban and rural areas in social movements can all be observed in this period. In addition, rapid industrialisation and urbanisation brought about increased demands from the newly migrated masses and allowed for a relatively more bottom-up development of civil society. It was also a period in which associational life expanded to include organisations such as professional chambers, trade unions and township associations.

This transformation was first disrupted in 1971, and again in 1980, which significantly limited the use of the democratic rights and freedoms outlined in the 1961 Constitution (Hazama, 1999). Thus, although some steps towards a more enabling environment for civil society were taken between the 1960s and 1980s, the state-oriented and state-initiated modernisation process did not allow for the development of civil society from the bottom-up. In addition, associational structures have rather facilitated state oversight over society. Political parties similarly became self-serving organisations instead of challenging the power of the state.

*1980-2000 Period:* The effects of the 1980 military coup and the ensuing military regime were rather severe for civil society in Turkey: almost all CSO activities were suspended while many CSOs were shut down permanently. Although the 1982 Constitution signified a return

to democratic rule, it is not possible to say that it opened up space for an associational life (Aslandaş, 1995). The new constitution put significant restraints on associations, trade unions and even political parties, and subjected them to heavy auditing and state control. The association memberships of many civil servants were restrained and the government was allowed to control and even stop associational activities. The 1983 Law on Associations reflected the restrictive spirit and ideology of the 1982 Constitution. Although the 1983 elections signalled a return to democracy, the inhibiting environment established by the 1982 constitution led to a very slow revival of associational space.

It was not until the 1990s that civil society showed renewed importance in quantitative and qualitative terms. In addition, a number of internal and external factors served to catalyse the democratisation process that re-started after 1980. Three factors emerge as key in this process: the transition to an export-oriented free market based economy, the rise of ethnic and religious identity demands and the effects of globalisation.

*Post 2000 Period:* A number of developments that were inherited from the late 1990s shaped the dynamics of civil society in the new millennium. The first such milestone came in the form of the 1999 Marmara and Kaynasli earthquakes, which led to the death of over 20,000 people. These disasters mobilised CSOs and increased society's interest and trust in civil society as citizens participated in search and rescue activities through volunteering and donations. These earthquakes revealed that a modernisation and development completely dependent on the state could not adequately design solutions or address social problems (TÜSEV, 2006: 38).

In addition, two notions that have their basis in identity politics in Turkey played significant roles in the transformation of civil society in Turkey: the secularist-Islamist divide running along the 28 February 1997 coup, to the AKP's election victory in 2002; and the on-going tensions of the Kurdish issue and identity demands.

Finally, the acceptance of the Copenhagen Criteria<sup>14</sup> and the consequent clarification and deepening of Turkey's EU integration process has undoubtedly brought more vitality to civil society (Keyman ve İçduygu, 2005: 1; İçduygu, 2007). The Copenhagen Criteria regarding "*the existence of institutions guaranteeing democracy, human rights, rule of law, minority rights and protection*" has significantly expanded the space for freedoms through constitutional amendments and legal reforms between 2001 and 2005. In addition, there have been

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<sup>14</sup> The Copenhagen criteria are the rules that define whether a country is eligible to join the European Union. The criteria require that a state has the institutions to preserve democratic governance and human rights, has a functioning market economy, and accepts the obligations and intent of the EU. These membership criteria were laid down at the June 1993 European Council in Copenhagen. Please see [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Copenhagen\\_criteria](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Copenhagen_criteria) for more information.

significant changes in legislation directly concerning CSOs, governments have been more eager to listen to civil society demands and new and vast resources for CSOs have emerged.

The 2000s have seen the rise of a civil society similar to those in liberal democracies. This process has underlined the importance of civil society while also signalling an increase in its importance in the near future.



# 3

## Mapping Civil Society

- 3.1 CSOs According to Legal Structures
- 3.2 CSOs According to Focus Area



It is possible to draw a general and comprehensive map of civil society and its organisations according to (1) their legal structures and (2) work areas.

### 3.1 CSOs According to Legal Structures

There are six major CSO legal structures in Turkey: (a) associations, (b) foundations, (c) trade unions, (d) chambers, (e) cooperatives and (f) federations and confederations.

Table II.3.1 Civil Society Organisations

Legal Structures	Number	%
Associations <sup>15</sup>	86,031	56.01
Cooperatives <sup>16</sup>	58,090	37.82
Chambers <sup>17</sup>	4,749	3.09
Foundations <sup>18</sup>	4,547	2.96
Trade Unions <sup>19</sup>	94	0.06
Civil Servant Trade Unions <sup>20</sup>	93	0.06
<b>Toplam</b>	<b>153,604</b>	<b>100.00</b>

There is no legal structure that unifies non-profit/voluntary organisations in Turkey. Instead they are often structured as associations and foundations. These are two different entities that are subject to different legislation and regulated by different public agencies, yet they show great similarity in their functions. In recent years, the lines between these two structures have blurred significantly, leading to the emergence of association-like foundations and foundation-like associations. It must therefore be kept in mind that the definitions below are mere generalisations.

<sup>15</sup> DoA, 2010.

<sup>16</sup> Union of Cooperatives of Turkey Statistics, 2007 [www.turkiyemillikoop.org.tr](http://www.turkiyemillikoop.org.tr)

<sup>17</sup> TÜSEV, 2006.

<sup>18</sup> GDF, 2009.

<sup>19</sup> 27.291 July 17 2009 Official Gazette (Resmi Gazete) Article on Trade Union Membership Statistics.

<sup>20</sup> 27.634 July 7 2010 Official Gazette (Resmi Gazete) Article on State Workers' Trade Union Membership Statistics.

**Associations** are “legal entities where a total of at least seven real or legal persons join their knowledge and work towards a common goal that is legal and non-profit.” In other words, associations are member-based organisations.

**Foundations** are “legal entities that are formed through the dedication of private resources to public benefit activities.” In other words, foundations are asset-based entities.

**Trade unions** are organised associations of workers and/or employers in an industry or profession working for the protection and furtherance of their rights and interests. Membership is voluntary but can be pressured in some environments. State employees have unions but are not allowed to strike. They have a separate law governing their organisational structure.

**Chambers** require membership for the specific profession or sector (e.g. accountants, artisans, doctors). They aim to serve the common benefit of professionals, promote its development and protect ethical conduct and work discipline. They are established by the government and have a separate law governing their organisational structure.

**Cooperatives** are “business organisations owned and operated by a group of individuals for their mutual economic benefit.” Yet there are also many social cooperatives active in Turkey which target disadvantaged groups (TÜSEV, 2010).

**Federations and confederations** are umbrella bodies consisting of associations, foundations, co-operatives’ trade unions and chambers. They are considered under the same status as associations.

Yet, it must be noted that not all legal entities mentioned above are entirely voluntary and/or non-profit. For instance, membership of some trade unions and chambers is obligatory rather than voluntary. In addition, cooperatives do not entirely correspond to the non-profit distribution principle. Similarly, political parties were not considered among civil society organisations due to their close positioning to the state apparatus.

As such, the CSI universe considered in Turkey includes political parties, trade unions and chambers only in the Civic Engagement dimension. In terms of cooperatives, only those that can be considered social cooperatives are included.

### 3.2 CSOs According to Focus Area

Although CSOs in Turkey exhibit great diversity in terms of their areas of activity, they appear to be more active in some areas than others. A close look at foundations’ and associations’ areas of activity reveals that they are mostly active in social solidarity and services, leaving a very small group of CSOs who work on advocacy.

Of all the associations in Turkey, 18.1% work in delivering religious services, 14.3% are sports associations, and 13.7% social solidarity organisations, followed by professional solidarity associations at 10% and development and construction associations at 9.5%. This means that 65% of associations concentrate on social services and delivery activities (DoA, 2008).

Foundations follow a similar pattern. Social aid (56.1%), education (47.5%) and health (21.84%) are the three top work areas among foundations. Only 1.28% of foundations report carrying out activities that fall under democracy/law/human rights (GDF, 2009).

In addition to the concentration of their work areas, types of activities also reveal that CSOs work heavily in social areas. The top three CSO activities are organising social gatherings (66.1%), dinner organisations (63.1%) and meeting celebrities (50.1%) (YADA, 2010).

Despite the low levels of activity among advocacy CSOs (such as those working on women’s rights, environment, consumer protection, young people and students) the recent increase in their impact and visibility is noteworthy. On the other hand, the increased secular/Islamic polarisation in political and social lives, along with the on-going Kurdish issue, have created new areas of activity within identity politics. These areas are contested by opposing beliefs and ideologies and exhibit actors that both are legal entities and loosely organised around social movements. It is also observed that there are civil society actors defining their work areas through disadvantaged and marginalised groups in society such as street children, homeless people, refugees and immigrants.

The table below summarises the list of civil society actors examined in the CSI implementation in Turkey.

**Table II.3.2 CSI Civil Society Actors List**

<b>Types of Organisations</b>
Faith-based organisations
Trade unions
Organisations working for the protection of human rights (e.g. community movements, social justice movements, peace movement, consumer rights groups)
Social services organisations (e.g. literacy, health, education)
Educational organisations (e.g. think tanks, research centres, non-profit schools)
Non-profit media
Women's organisations
Youth and student organisations
Organisations working for socio-economically disadvantaged groups (e.g. the poor, homeless, refugees)
Professional organisations (e.g. employees' federations, business federations and chambers)
Community level groups (e.g. parents' associations)
Economically oriented organisations (cooperatives, credit unions)
Ethnic, racial and traditional organisations
Organisations for the protection of the environment
Cultural organisations
Other recreational CSOs and sports clubs
Grant making organisations
Networks/federations/support centres for CSOs
Social movements (e.g. peace movement)

# III

## Analysis of Civil Society

1. Civic Engagement
2. Level of Organisation
3. Practice of Values
4. Perception of Impact
5. External Environment





This section is organised along the five core dimensions of the CSI: Civic Engagement, Level of Organisation, Practice of Values, Perception of Impact and External Environment. It aims to act as an index for data generated during the CSI implementation.

1

**Civic Engagement**  
*(Social/Political)*

1.1 ve 1.4 Extent of Civic Engagement  
1.2 ve 1.5 Depth of Civic Engagement  
1.3 ve 1.6 Diversity of Civic Engagement



The Civic Engagement dimension examines the ways individuals engage in social and policy-related civil society initiatives in terms of the extent, depth and diversity of citizen participation. Civic engagement's **extent** (percentage of population that are active members and volunteers of CSOs), **depth** (the frequency and intensity of the participation) and **diversity** (representation of different social groups in these activities) are examined in detail.

In addition, CSI approaches civic engagement through two separate yet closely related lenses: the social and the political. Social civic engagement is defined as activities undertaken in a social organisation such as sports and hobby organisations, music, personal development and charity organisations, while political participation refers to activities involving political parties, trade unions, chambers, consumer groups and human rights organisations.<sup>21</sup>

Yet the Advisory Committee had some reservations about this dual positioning of civic engagement as social and political, since they felt that these are not necessarily mutually exclusive areas in day-to-day practice. For instance, charity organisations' activities could easily become politicised depending on the beneficiaries of aid and how the aid is distributed. In addition, individuals could be participating in a social organisation for political purposes and vice versa. According to the Committee, such examples are quite common in Turkey and blur the lines between social and political civic engagement.

As such, the narrative of this dimension is not divided along social and political lines and the social/political division is only reflected in the quantitative data and the Indicator Matrix.

Finally, the Civic Engagement dimension received the lowest score (31%) among the five core dimensions of the CSI, showing the greatest weakness and need for improvement.

**Table III.1.1 Civic Engagement Scores**

		%
<b>1</b>	<b>CIVIC ENGAGEMENT</b>	<b>31.0</b>
1.1	Extent of Socially-Based Engagement	6.2
1.2	Depth of Socially-Based Engagement	41.1
1.3	Diversity of Socially-Based Engagement	63.9
1.4	Extent of Political Engagement	7.0
1.5	Depth of Political Engagement	23.5
1.6	Diversity of Political Engagement	44.4

<sup>21</sup> Political parties, trade unions and chambers were only included in the civic engagement dimension of the study.

## 1.1 and 1.4 Extent of Civic Engagement (Social and Political)

In terms of the extent of civic engagement, CSI examines the percentage of the population that a) are active members/volunteers of a CSO, b) have been involved in an act of individual activism<sup>22</sup> in the last five years, and c) have had several community engagement experiences in the past year.<sup>23</sup> The CSI implementation in Turkey also makes comparisons between the country's different geographical regions and between years.

Table III.1.2 Extent of Civic Engagement

Extent	CSI %
Social Membership	4.5
Social Volunteering	2.5
Political Membership	5.3
Political Volunteering	4.2
Individual Activism	11.6
Social Engagement	11.5

(WVS 1999 and 2007)

Low levels of membership, volunteering, political activism and community engagement reveal that a majority of Turkish citizens remain disconnected from the civil society movement. Percentages of citizens that are **active members** of social and political organisations are 4.5% and 5.3% respectively. The participation is even lower when **volunteering** is concerned: only 2.5% of citizens volunteer for social organisations, followed by a slightly higher rate of political volunteering at 4.2% (WVS, 1999 and 2007).

**Donations** to CSOs are also rather low. Approximately 80% of Turkish citizens report making donations in one form another, but a clear majority make these donations directly to individuals in need (TÜSEV 2006). Only 8% make a donation and/or provide some form of assistance directly to a CSO (TEGV-İnfakto, 2008).

Recent international studies point to similar patterns: according to the 2010 World Giving Index prepared by Charities Aid Foundation (CAF), only 14% of the population of Turkey

<sup>22</sup> Individual activism is defined as undertaking non-partisan political action(s) such as signing a petition, joining in boycotts and attending peaceful demonstrations.

<sup>23</sup> Community engagement is defined as engaging in social activities with other people at sports clubs or voluntary/service organisations.

make donations to a CSO, 7% volunteer and 35% help a stranger in need. These percentages place Turkey at 134 among the 153 countries that were included in the study (CAF, 2010).

In terms of **individual activism**, the percentage of the population that has undertaken political activism in the past five years (such as signing a petition, joining in boycotts, attending peaceful demonstrations) is 11.6% (WVS, 1999). Studies show that only 14% of citizens have written a letter of complaint, 9% have joined a demonstration, 7% have participated in a boycott and 3% have participated in an online campaign (Ari-İnfakto, 2006).

In terms of the extent of civic participation, volunteering appears to attract the smallest part of the population. Studies suggest the relatively small size of the population of retirees in good health and high socio-economic status to be a major reason behind this trend (İnsel, 2004). Furthermore, individual activism appears to be the most widespread form of civic engagement.

The extent of civic engagement seems to have improved over the years. Numbers of association members have gone up from 4,326,248 in 2005 to 6,811,147 in 2008, showing a 63.5% increase (DoA, 2008).

There are, however, striking differences between Turkey's seven geographical regions when it comes to the extent of civic engagement. Data shows that there is a direct correlation between association membership and population density and level of urbanisation. As such, about three-quarters of association members are located in the Marmara, Central Anatolia and Aegean Regions, which host a large segment of the population (58%) and Turkey's largest cities.

Table III.1.3 Regional Distribution of Association Members

Region	Population	% of Total Population	Association Members	% of Total Association Members
Marmara	21,044,783	30	2,597,364	38
Central Anatolia	11,459,292	16	1,922,937	28
Aegean	8,585,932	12	815,222	12
Black Sea	7,372,798	10	648,378	10
Mediterranean	9,050,691	13	502,825	7
Eastern Anatolia	5,74,243	8	167,191	3
South Eastern Anatolia	7,350,752	10	156,963	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>70,608,491</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>6,811,147</b>	<b>100</b>

(TSA and DoA, 2008)

In the regional consultation meetings that took place in all seven regions of Turkey<sup>24</sup> the negative and on-going effects of the 1980 military coup on freedom of association, economic hardships and confusion between charity and civil society work were counted among the reasons behind low levels of civic engagement in the country.

### 1.2 and 1.5 Depth of Civic Engagement (Social and Political)

The depth of civic engagement examines the frequency and intensity of citizens' participation in civil society activities. It is measured through the percentage of the population that: a) are active as members and/or volunteers in more than one CSO or b) are frequently engaged in political activism and community engagement. This section also offers a geographically comparative perspective to the depth of participation in Turkey.

Research shows that although a very narrow and limited part of the population engages in civil society in Turkey, those that do so do it rather intensely and frequently. For instance, 30% of social volunteers and 21.6% of political volunteers and 11.5% of social members and 16.6% of political members are active in at least two CSOs.

**Table III.1.4 Depth of Civic Engagement**

Depth	%
Social Membership	11.5
Social Volunteering	30.0
Political Membership	16.7
Political Volunteering	21.6
Political Activism	32.1
Community Engagement	81.9

(WVS 1999 and 2007)

As mentioned above, volunteerism has the narrowest and yet the deepest engagement in Turkey and the findings suggest the existence of a small yet highly committed group of individuals. About 50% of volunteers commit 1 to 4 hours, 21% commit 5 to 8 hours while 23%

<sup>24</sup> CSI brought together 146 civil society stakeholders in regional consultation meetings to discuss the state of civil society in Turkey at the collective level. The meetings took place in 2009 in the cities of İstanbul, Ankara, Denizli, Adana, Trabzon, Van and Diyarbakır. Please see Appendix 2, CSI Turkey Methodology and Implementation for more information.

commit more than 9 hours a week to their volunteer work (TEGV-İnfakto, 2008). Despite this positive picture, it must also be noted that volunteering activities within CSOs are rarely sustainable or long-term.

The depth of civic engagement also shows differences from region to region. When examined in terms of the density of association members to the general population, the Central Anatolia region appears to be the highest with 17%, while South-eastern Anatolia appears to be the lowest with only 2%. In addition, in terms of the regional distributions of associations and foundations, Turkey's average is 1 CSO for every 780 people. Yet, the most CSO-dense province appears to be Aydin with one CSO for each 130 people, contrasted with Şırnak where there is 1 CSO per every 8,032 people. As such, the depth of participation varies among provinces and different regions of the country.

**Table III.1.5 Proportions of Association Members to Population**

Region	Association Members/Population %
Central Anatolia	17
Marmara	12
Aegean	9
Black Sea	9
Mediterranean	6
Eastern Anatolia	3
South-Eastern Anatolia	2

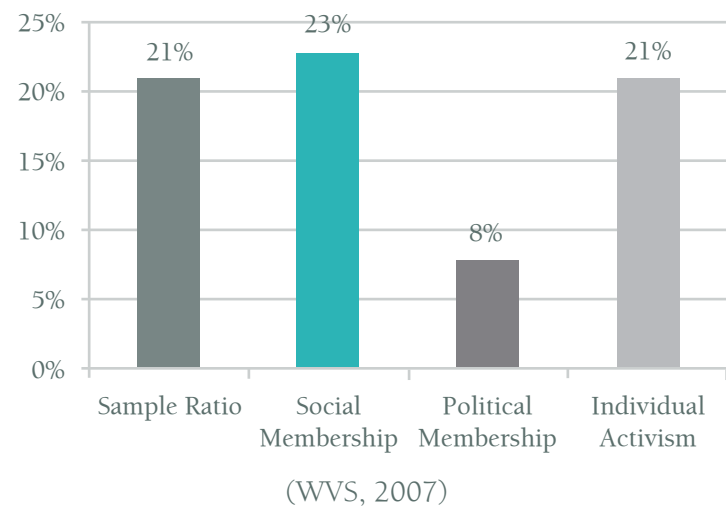
(DoA, 2008)

This narrow yet deep trend of civic engagement results in a small neighbourhood of civil society actors that know each other well. This was also stated and observed during the regional consultation meetings.

### 1.3 and 1.6 Diversity of Civic Engagement (Social and Political)

Diversity of civic engagement measures the participation trends of certain social groups (young people, older people, women, ethnic minorities and the lower class) and different geographical regions vis-à-vis the general public.<sup>25</sup>

Figure III.1.1 Engagement Among Youths (Under 25)



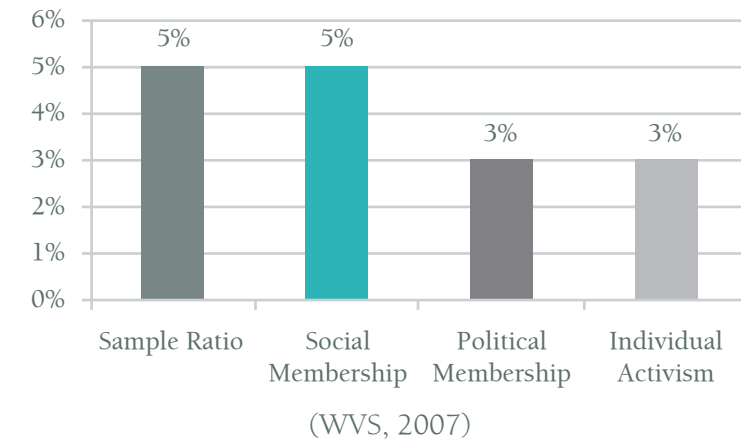
For instance, 21% of the individuals in the sample are **young people** (below 25 years of age) and they show a somewhat high level of social engagement (23%) followed by a normal level of individual activism (21%). Yet they display a very low level of political engagement (8%) (WVS, 2007). This trend parallels the findings of another study revealing that young people spend much less time discussing politics than the general public (Ari-İnfakto, 2006).

Another study taking a closer look at CSO membership patterns among young people in İstanbul reveals that only a quarter are members of a CSO (25.5%) and that they are most active in sports clubs (11%). Yet, it is encouraging to see that among those that have no CSO membership to date, half are considering joining one in the near future (Kurtaran, Nemutlu, Yentürk, 2008).

<sup>25</sup> For this analysis, the CSI team separated the sample group of WVS 2007 into specific social groups and geographical regions. These groups' civic engagement percentages were then compared to their ratios in the sample. The assumption was that each group's level of civic engagement should correspond to their representation in the sample. For instance women comprised 50% of the survey sample and yet their social and political engagements (membership) were at 31% and 15% respectively, pointing to low levels of social and political engagement among women in Turkey.

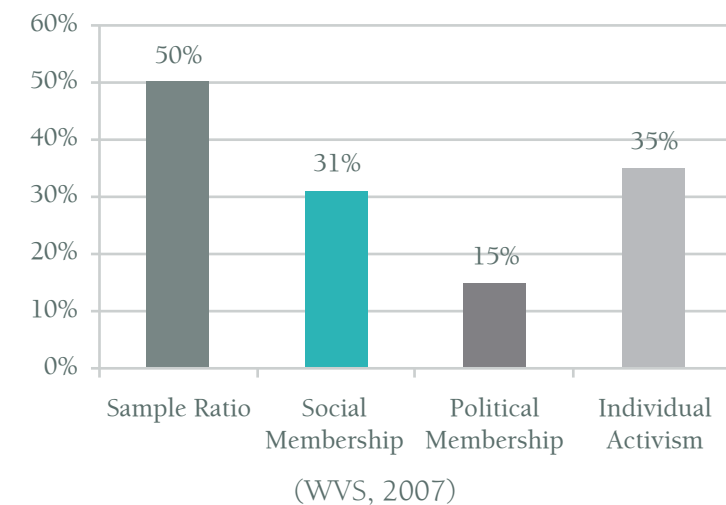
An international study places Turkey last among 55 countries in terms of youth participation, with a percentage of 8% (TEGV-İnfakto, 2008).

Figure III.1.2 Engagement Among Older People (>65)



Participation of **individuals above 65 years of age** in the sample was 5%, while this group's political engagement and individual activism were only 3%. Yet their social engagement was observed to be at a normal level.

Figure III.1.3 Women's Engagement



As the table shows, **women's** civic engagement occurs at low rates for all three types.

A closer look at women's participation in terms of CSO membership and board membership reveals that women make up only 10.4% of membership and 14.4% of board members of CSOs in Turkey (YADA, 2010).

Gender inequality in civic engagement also becomes apparent when association membership is considered. Only 16% of association members in Turkey are women and these rates go as low as 10% in some geographical regions (DoA, 2008). In addition, women's membership in associations appears to have decreased by 6% over the years, from 22% in 2005 to 16% in 2008 (DoA, 2008).

The case study titled 'Identity Politics and Women's Participation in Women's Rights Organisations (WRO) in Turkey'<sup>26</sup> argues that because of the strict, top-down modernisation efforts of the Republic's founding elites, who used *Turkishness* and secularism as the defining points of the new society, individuals who didn't fit this mould felt isolated and started to utilise identity politics to pursue their wishes. Starting in the early 1990s, citizens started to organise around identities other than those provided by the nation-state. Among these were Kurdish, Islamic and feminist groups, feminists being among the first to challenge the status quo, starting in the early 1980s. The women's movement then became institutionalised and well organised into a legitimate force in Turkish society by the 1990s.

However, although identity politics enabled women to unite around various causes, it also produced obstacles in the way of participation within the movement. The study observes that women have found different identities within the feminist movement to rally around and at times these differing identities had conflicting missions. Therefore, polarisation within the feminist movement inhibits some women from being active in WROs, as the introduction of other micro-identities caused women to be less involved in the feminist movement as a whole.

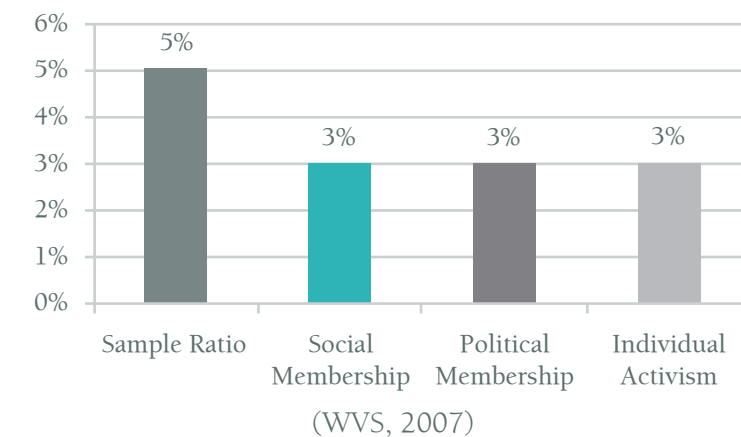
<sup>26</sup> The case study titled "Identity Politics and Women's Participation in Women's Rights Organisations (WRO) in Turkey" was prepared by Hande Paker of Bahcesehir University. Please see Appendix 3: Case Study Report Summaries for more information.

Figure III.1.4 Ethnic Minority Engagement



**Ethnic minorities**,<sup>27</sup> making up 11% of the sample population, are another social group displaying low levels of social (8%) and political (9%) engagement, while also having a high level of individual activism (15%).

Figure III.1.5 Lower Class Engagement



<sup>27</sup> The ethnic minorities in the sample correspond to the group of individuals that declared a language other than Turkish as the language spoken at home.

In order to analyse the relationship between socio-economic status and civic engagement, the study examined the participation trends of those that identified themselves as belonging to a **lower class**.<sup>28</sup> The analysis shows that this group (5%) shows low civic engagement, both in terms of social and political engagement and individual activism.

**Table III.1.6 Diversity of Civic Engagement by Social Group**

	Social Engagement	Political Engagement	Individual Activism
Young People (<25)	High	Low	Normal
Older People (>65)	Normal	Low	Low
Women	Low	Low	Low
Ethnic Minorities	Low	Low	High
Lower Class	Low	Low	Low

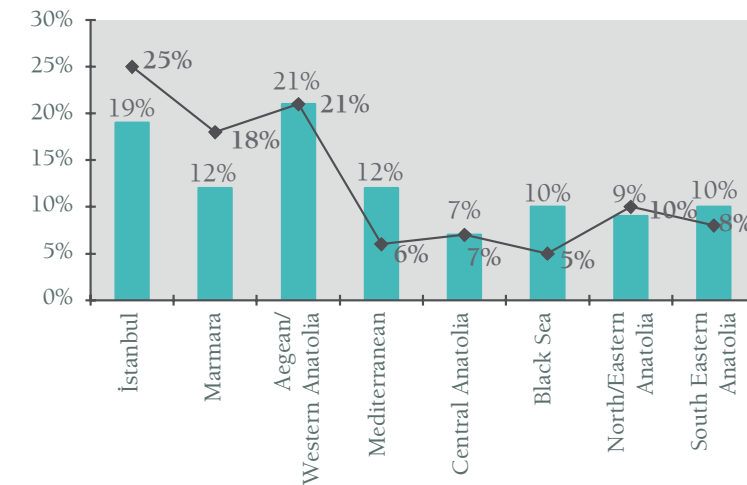
(WVS, 2007)

Young people stand out with high levels of social engagement while ethnic minorities show high levels of individual activism. Both women and young people display very low levels of political engagement. In addition, women and lower classes show low civic engagement in all areas while no social groups display normal or high levels of civic engagement in all areas. Finally, political engagement appears to be low among all social groups examined.

Levels of civic engagement also differ from region to region. The figures below visually depict this tendency. The columns show the proportion of regional representation in the sample while the blue dots show the levels of social/political engagement and individual activism. Ideally, all blue dots should have the same value as the columns, thus showing a normal level of activity. Yet, in most cases the dot signifying the level of civic engagement is lower than the regional population.

<sup>28</sup> The lower class group in the sample corresponds to the group of individuals that identify themselves as belonging to the 'lower class'.

**Figure III.1.6 Social Engagement By Region**



**Figure III.1.7 Political Engagement By Region**

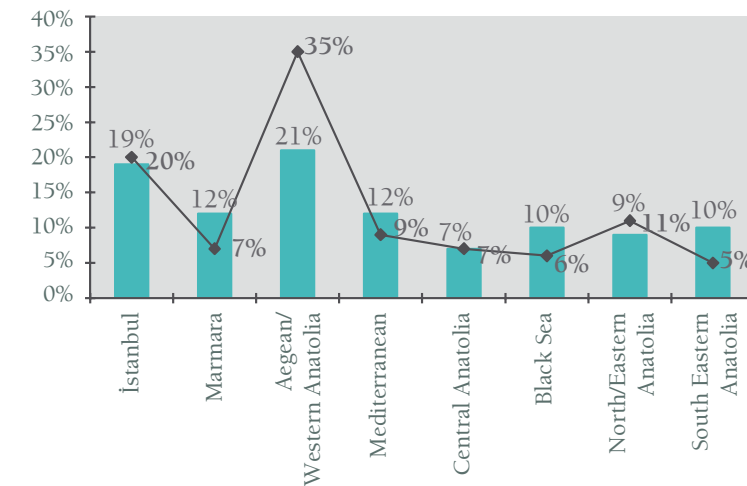
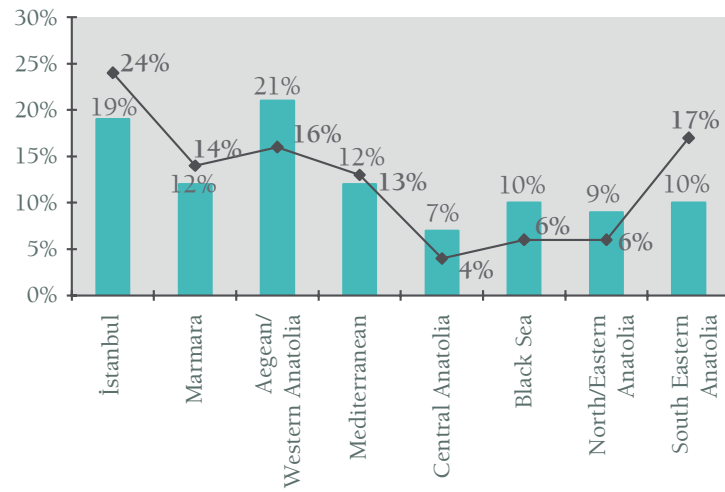




Figure III.1.8 Individual Activism by Region



(WVS, 2007)

As seen in the figures above, social engagement follows a high pattern in İstanbul and Marmara, a normal level in Aegean/Western Anatolia and North-Eastern/Central-Eastern Anatolia and a low level in Mediterranean, Black Sea and Southeastern Regions.

Political engagement is rather high in Aegean/Western Anatolia, somewhat high in North-eastern/Central-Eastern Anatolia, normal in İstanbul and Central Anatolia and low in all the remaining regions.

Finally, individual activism is high in İstanbul, Marmara, Mediterranean and Southeastern regions, while it is low in all remaining regions.

Table III.1.7 Diversity of Civic Engagement by Region

	Social Engagement	Political Engagement	Individual Activism
İstanbul	High	Normal	High
Marmara	High	Low	High
Aegean/Western Anatolia	Normal	High	Low
Mediterranean	Low	Low	High
Central Anatolia	Normal	Normal	Low

	Social Engagement	Political Engagement	Individual Activism
Black Sea	Low	Low	Low
North-Eastern/Eastern Anatolia	Normal	High	Low
South Eastern Anatolia	Low	Low	High

(WVS, 2007)

The Black Sea Region displays low levels of civic engagement in every sense, while İstanbul enjoys normal to high levels of civic engagement in all areas.

As such, it can be concluded that the levels of civic engagement among social groups and geographical regions differ greatly in Turkey. Research shows that people living in urban areas, men, the 26-34 age group and people above a certain socio-economic status show higher levels of participation in civil society activities (An-İnfakto, 2006). This was also confirmed at the regional consultation meetings where CSOs were criticised for appealing to an ‘urban’ and ‘elite’ segment of society and remaining rather detached from the rest of the population. In terms of youth participation, the highly competitive university entrance examination system and lack of mechanisms to encourage youth participation in CSOs were given as reasons for low youth participation. Gender-based work distributions at home and in professional life were seen as obstacles to women’s participation.

### Conclusion

Civic engagement has a very narrow yet deep nature in Turkey, where different social groups and regions only participate to varying degrees in civil society activities. As such, despite going through an era of transition and expansion, the civil society movement in Turkey remains detached from a large portion of the public. Regional comparisons reveal differences in the extent of civic engagement, where urban and developed centres enjoy a more vibrant civic life.

Civic engagement remains the weakest dimension of the CSI and therefore the one with the greatest opportunity and need for improvement. This has remained constant since the first CSI implementation in 2005, which also showed a very narrow yet deep participation trend (TÜSEV, 2006). The majority of CSOs see citizen participation as insufficient (78%) and place it in second place among their most serious problems (YADA, 2010). In short, CSOs share concerns about limited participation and their outreach to society, noting the need to promote more citizen involvement.

# 2

## Level of Organisation

2.1 Internal Governance

2.2 Support Infrastructure

2.3 Sectoral Communication and Cooperation

2.4 Human Resources

2.5 Financial and Technological Resources

2.6 International Linkages



This section examines the levels of institutionalisation in civil society in Turkey through **internal governance, access to support infrastructures, sectoral communication and cooperation levels, resources** (human, financial and technological) and **international relations**.

The CSO survey (CSOS) is the major source of quantitative information in this dimension, providing information about CSOs as institutions.<sup>29</sup>

The Advisory Committee found some of the international standards imposed by the CSI methodology in this dimension insufficient to draw a realistic picture of the level of organisation of CSOs in Turkey. Thus, the CSO survey was supplemented with additional questions to better capture Turkey’s specificities and the Committee’s concerns are discussed under each of the relevant subdimensions. In line with the Committee’s concerns that the methodology drew an overly optimistic portrait of the Level of Organization of civil society in Turkey, this dimension holds a relatively high score (54.6%).

**Table III.2.1 Level of Organisation Scores**

	(%)
<b>2 Level of Organisation</b>	<b>54.6</b>
2.1 Internal governance	95.1
2.2 Support infrastructure	41.1
2.3 Sectoral communication and cooperation	79.2
2.4 Human resources	8.0
2.5 Financial and technological resources	85.3
2.6 International linkages	18.8

## 2.1 Internal Governance

The CSI methodology assesses the level of internal governance of CSOs by the percentage of organisations that have a board of directors or a formal steering committee. CSOs in Turkey demonstrate high levels of internal governance with a percentage of 95.1% having established such mechanisms.

<sup>29</sup> As part of the CSO Survey (CSOS), a diverse and representative sample of 142 civil society actors were interviewed on topics such as CSOs’ structures, values, impact and environment. For detailed information please see Appendix 2, CSI Turkey Methodology and Implementation.

Yet the Advisory Committee found this indicator insufficient, pointing out that the mere existence of such structures does not guarantee their function, especially in Turkey where such formal management bodies are required by law. As such, the internal governance levels of CSOs in Turkey might be reflected in an overly positive way in the indicator matrix, and thus the Civil Society Diamond.

CSOs report an increasing need for institutionalisation and a lack of knowledge and experience on initiating these processes (Erol, 2007). Regional consultation meeting participants also underline the weakness of CSO's internal governance structures, reporting procedural elections, president-oriented and top down decision-making structures and conflicts of interest as symptoms of such organisational problems.

The importance of CSO internal governance structures becomes apparent when one considers their role in promoting democratic structures, participation, achieving rule of law, transparency, multi-stakeholder governance, effectiveness and productivity in society (Gündoğan, 2004).

## 2.2 Support Infrastructure

Access to support infrastructures is measured by the percentage of organisations that are formal members of any federation, umbrella group or support network. Almost half of CSOs in Turkey (41.1%) report having such access (CSOS, 2009).

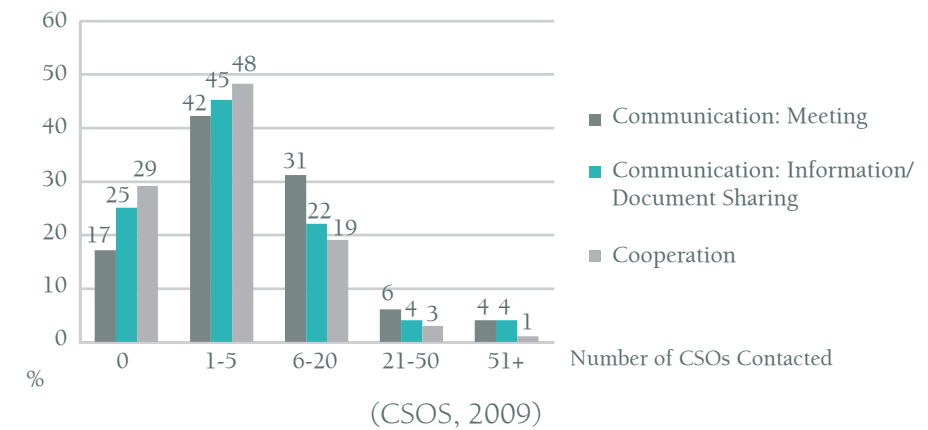
A close look at associations reveals 432 federations with 7,348 associations as members making up a total of 19 confederations (DoA 2008). There has been an increase of 61% in the number of federations, followed by an increase of over 100% in numbers of confederations since 2005.

These indicate significant improvements in CSO access to umbrella bodies, networks and support organisations, which are symptoms of recent reforms that have provided a more enabling environment for establishing and joining umbrella bodies for associations.

## 2.3 Sectoral Communication and Cooperation

The CSI measures sectoral communication and cooperation levels through the percentage of organisations that have recently (within the past three months) held meetings, exchanged information (e.g. documents, reports, data), and have cooperated (e.g. signing or making a joint declaration, co-hosting a meeting, having a joint project) with another organisation.

Figure III.2.1 Sectoral Communication and Cooperation



Of the organisations surveyed, 82.9% had met with and 75.4% had shared information with at least one organisation in the past three months. Although the Advisory Committee saw these high rates as positive, they also pointed out that a large group of CSOs had only been in contact with a maximum of five organisations in recent months, indicating that large networks and multi-partnerships are not very common in the sector.

Regional consultation meeting participants report that CSOs working in similar fields and close geographical proximity enjoy higher levels of communication and cooperation do CSOs from different spheres and locations. The positive effects of funds and project proposals that require partnerships among CSOs were mentioned as well, although the sustainability of these project/funding based partnerships and communication networks were questioned.

As such, the project findings suggest that CSOs in Turkey function in a rather disconnected fashion, which brings to mind questions regarding their consciousness of being part of a sector, and their ability to act together.

## 2.4 Human Resources

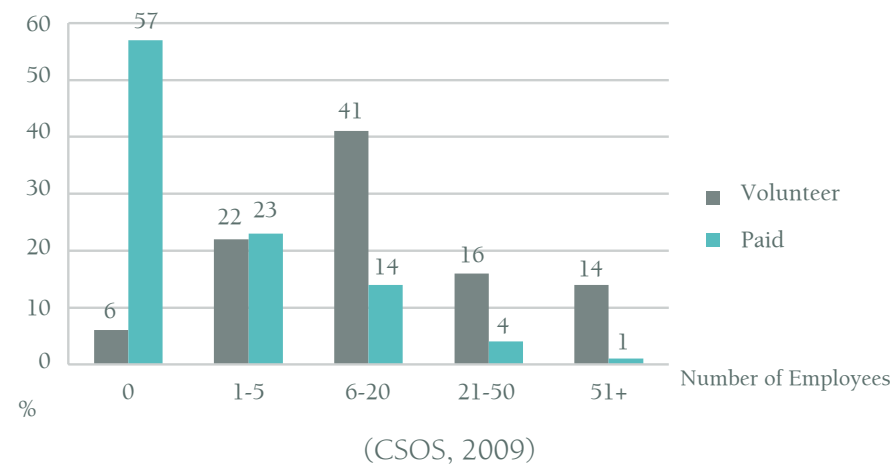
In the CSI methodology, the sustainability of CSOs' human resources is measured by the percentage of organisations with a sustainable human resource base (e.g. volunteers currently comprising less than 25% of the organisation's average staff base). Only 8% of the CSO survey participants meet this criterion, which makes human resources one of the weakest aspects of CSO's level of organisation in Turkey.

Advisory Committee members also placed insufficient human resources as one of the top organisational weaknesses of CSOs in Turkey, but disagreed with the CSI methodology and approach. Committee members found this measurement to be problematic because it made a value judgement between paid and volunteer work and placed professional work above volunteer work in terms of its sustainability.

A closer look at CSO's volunteer and professional human resources reveals that 57% of CSOs do not have paid staff, while many organisations' human resources generally consist of 6-20 volunteers.

Furthermore, volunteer or professional, the majority of CSOs are not satisfied with their human resources: 71% of those that have volunteers and 85% of those that have paid staff report having insufficient human resources to realise their goals (CSOS, 2009).

**Figure III.2.2 CSO Paid and Volunteer Human Resources**



A detailed look at CSOs with paid staff shows that over half of these positions (60%) are of an administrative or financial nature, 15% are in areas of expertise and only 8.5% are professional managers. In addition, the percentage of foundations with paid staff (71.2%) is much higher than the percentage of associations (27.2%).

Regional consultation meetings revealed that professional work in CSOs is not yet widespread or fully structured. Some CSO representatives even think that paid work is undesirable and goes against the voluntary spirit of CSOs. Project-based funding was seen as a way to employ qualified and paid staff, but these methods were criticised for not being sustainable beyond the

project periods. The need to learn from present best practices and capacity development opportunities in volunteer management were also underlined in the regional consultation meetings.

## 2.5 Financial and Technological Resources

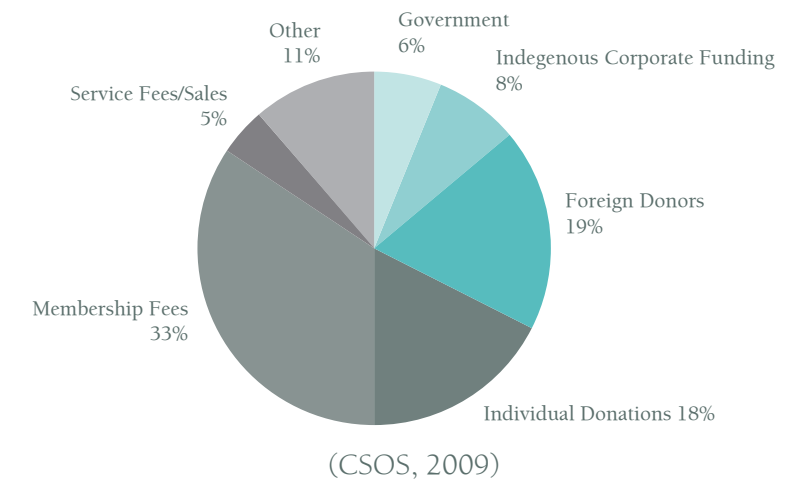
Technological resources of CSOs are measured by the percentage of organisations that have regular access to technologies such as computers, phones and the Internet, while the stability of CSOs' financial resources are measured by the increase/decrease in their annual income and expenses over a one-year period. When measured as such, the technological resources of CSOs appear to be strong while financial resources are rather weak.

The Advisory Committee found the measurement of sustainability of financial resources by increase and decrease over a short period to be somewhat simplistic. They stated that the issue of financial sustainability is far more complex and that analysis over a longer time period, allowing an assessment of diversity of financial resources and the perceptions of CSOs, need to be also taken into account for an in-depth analysis.

As such, on this measure almost 79% of CSOs do not find their financial resources to be sufficient, which shows a continuing trend over the years. CSOs place lack of financial resources at the top of their weaknesses (YADA, 2010) and perceive their first and foremost need to be financial support, channelling their energy and time to generate more income for their activities (Erol, 2007).

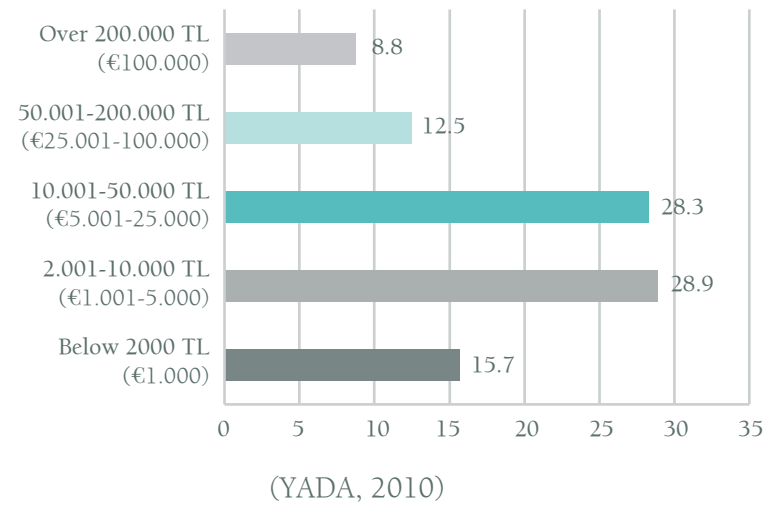
CSOs display a more positive portrait in terms of the diversity of their financial resources which include membership fees, foreign funding, individual and corporate donations as well as public funding and income generation activities.

**Figure III.2.3 CSO Financial Resources**



A detailed look at the annual incomes of CSOs reveals that these organisations carry out their activities with rather minimal finances. Almost half of CSOs (44.6%) have an annual income below 10,000 TL (5,000 euro) while a significant group (15.7%) have less than 2,000 TL (1,000 euros) per year. Foundations enjoy much greater annual incomes on average (386,312 TL) than do associations (45,961 TL) (YADA, 2010).

Figure III.2.4 CSO's Annual Incomes



There also are regional differences in terms of the diversity of funding sources. For instance, Marmara Region ranks much higher than the country average in terms of receiving funding from abroad, while the Mediterranean region ranks much lower. Membership fees make up the largest portion of financial resources of CSOs in the Eastern and South-Eastern Anatolia regions while it is foreign funds and local corporations for Marmara Region. While local corporations appear as significant sources of funding for Marmara and Aegean region's CSOs, they play virtually no role in the South-Eastern Region (CSOS 2009).

Figure III.2.5 Regional Distributions of CSOs Receiving Foreign Funding

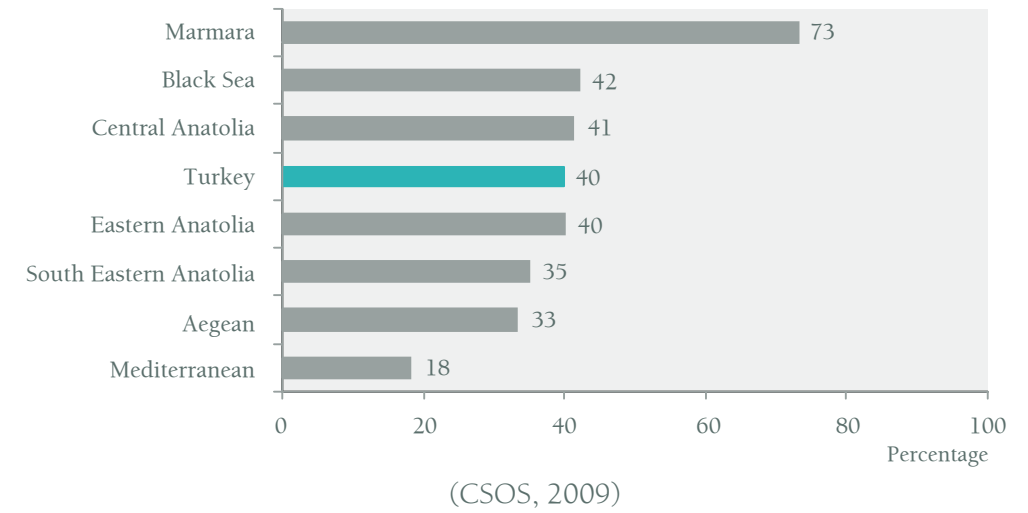
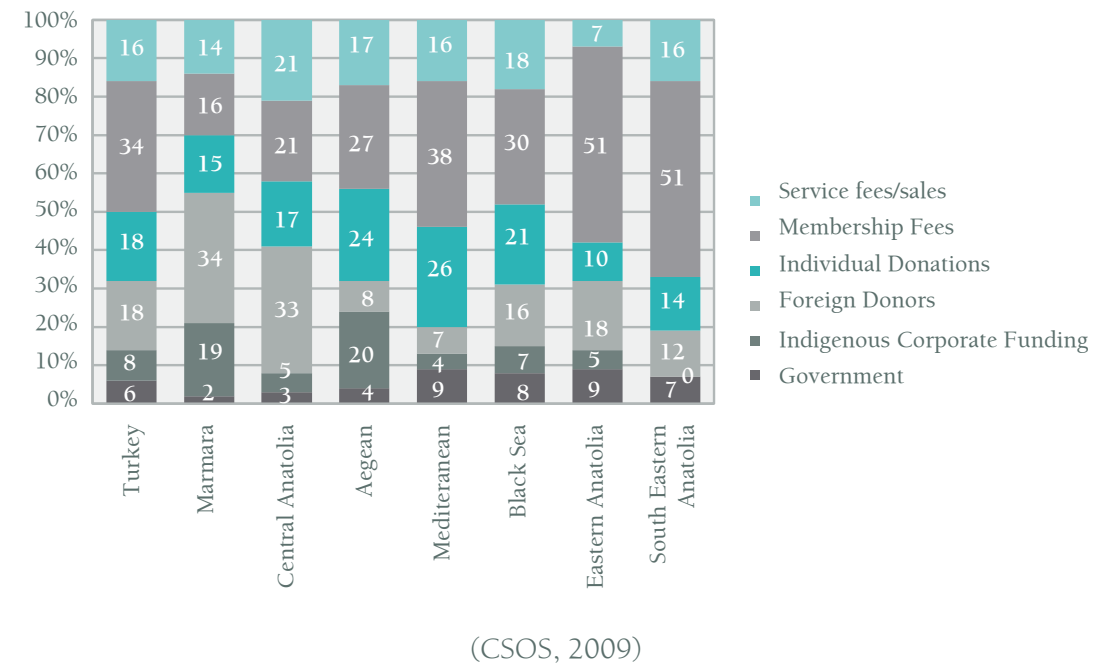


Figure III.2.6 Regional Distributions of Different Financial Resources



Regional consultation participants claimed that the financial problems of CSOs revolved around the issue of sustainability rather than the small amounts of income, criticising the project-oriented fundraising methods that are common in the sector. The lack of knowledge of fundraising and financial management, as well as the fact that some major CSOs absorb most of the local donations that are available, were counted among some of the causes of the problem. Lack of mechanisms to direct individual and corporate donations to smaller and less visible CSOs was also mentioned. Although there have been some developments such as new local grant programmes and mechanisms such as community foundations, their impact is yet to be seen.

CSOs enjoy much better technological resources in comparison to their human and financial capabilities (CSOS, 2009).

Most CSOs appear to have regular access to technological resources such as telephone, computer and the Internet. A detailed look at CSO offices shows that most are equipped with a desktop computer, a DSL Internet connection, television and phone.

**Table III.2.2 Office Infrastructures of CSOs**

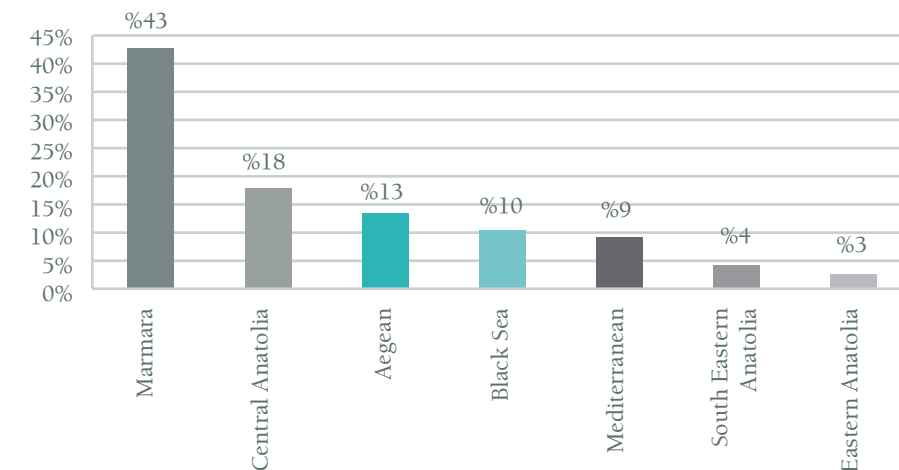
	%
Desktop Computer	78.1
Internet Connection	72.7
Television	66.4
Fax	65.8
Phone	63.1
Multipurpose Room	55.1
Projector	28.5
Laptop Computer	27.7
Meeting Room	23.2

(YADA, 2010)

The number of associations that own computers and use an e-government tool called 'e-association' shows a constant increase over the years. While 9% of the associations used computers in 2007, this percentage increased to 11% in 2009. Similarly, while only 5% of associations used e-association for their administrative work with public institutions in 2006, this percentage increased to 50% in 2010 (DoA 2006, 2008, 2010). Yet there are great regional

differences among associations that own and use computers. While the majority are located in the Marmara Region, some regions host only 3 or 4%.

**Figure III.2.8 Regional Distribution of Associations That Own Computers**



(DoA, 2009)

Regional consultation meeting participants have disagreed with this optimistic portrait of CSOs technological resources, arguing that most organisations lack this infrastructure and often use Internet cafes.

CSO's technological resources have improved significantly while financial problems have remained constant since the last CSI study in 2005, also affecting qualified human resources of these organisations negatively.

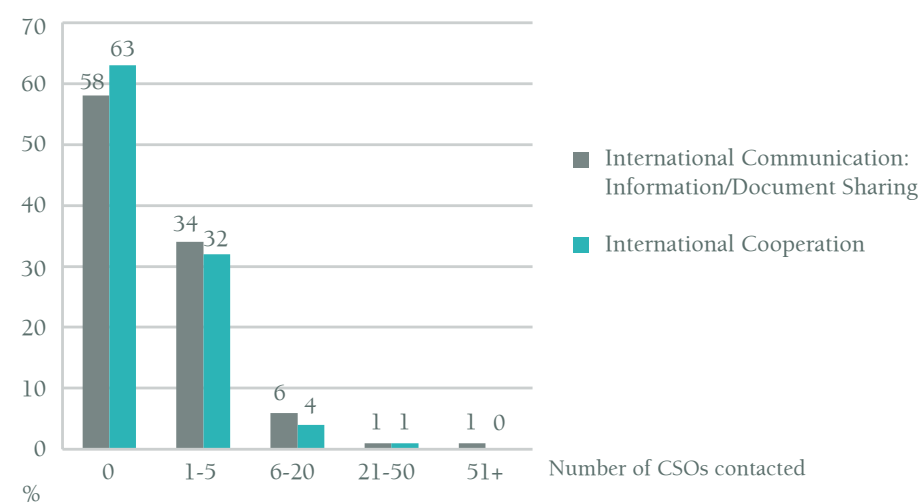
## 2.6 International Linkages

The level of development of international relations is measured by international non-governmental organisations (INGOs) present in the country as a ratio to the total number of known INGOs in the Union of International Associations Database. The ratio in Turkey is only 18.8%.

Yet the Advisory Committee pointed to the fact that this indicator offers no corresponding information on the state of international relations of local CSOs in Turkey, given that it reflects only one side of the equation.

The Advisory Committee therefore decided to investigate international connections of Turkish CSOs, finding that 58% of CSO survey participants did not share any documents or information while 63% did not engage in any form of cooperation with an international counterpart. Similarly, only 28% of CSOs reported being a member of an international network or umbrella organisation (CSOS, 2009).

**Figure III.2.9 International Communications and Cooperation**



(CSOS, 2009)

Further, among the 86,031 associations that are active in Turkey, very few have official relations with the United Nations and/or the European Union (DoA, 2008).

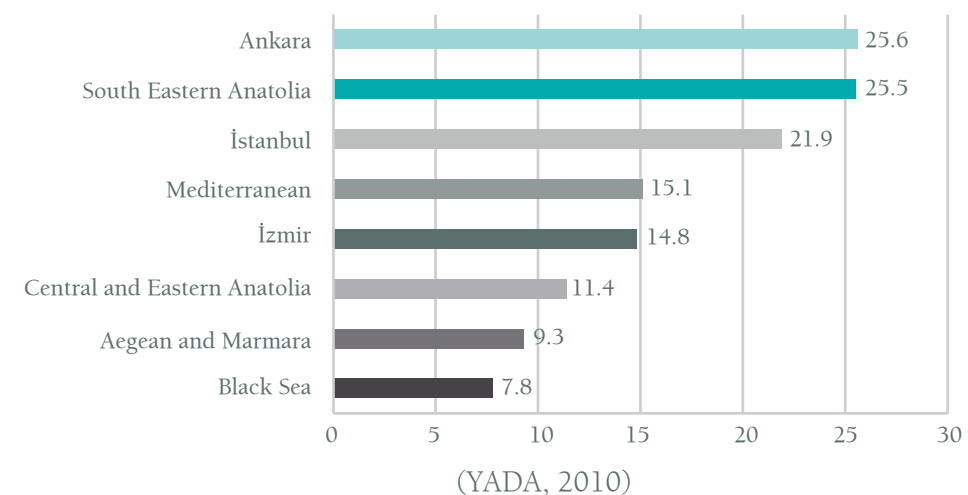
**Table III.2.3 Associations Having Official Relations at UN and/or EU**

Status	Number of Associations
UN Consultative Status	13
UN Conference Accreditation	16
UN Project Partnership	58
UN Public Liaison Service Cooperation	6
UN Other Relationship	19
UN CSO Conference Full Membership	11
UN CSO Conference Associate Membership	1
EU CSO Database Record	48

(DoA, 2008)

There are also regional differences concerning CSOs' international relations. Ankara and İstanbul, hosting the most developed and resource-rich CSOs in the country, enjoy much higher levels of international linkages than other regions. Yet, the South-eastern Anatolia region has also caught up with the country's two biggest cities in this respect.

**Figure III.2.10 Regional Comparison of CSOs' International Relations**



(YADA, 2010)

Recent legal reforms have brought about a change in philosophy and approach in CSO international relations. There has been a shift from 'permission' based international activities where CSOs were required to receive government approval before cooperating with or receiving foreign funding from international actors, to 'reporting' based international relations where CSOs can pursue international activities as long as they file reports. This shift in philosophy reflects changes to legislation, making it much easier for CSOs to communicate, cooperate, join and receive funding from their international partners. Yet, the legal reforms have yet to make an impact on the development of international relations which show no significant improvement over the years.

Regional consultation meeting participants confirm, however, that international relations of CSOs remain weak after the legal reforms and point out problems in implementation as well as CSOs' limited human resources as main underlying causes. A lack of foreign language speaking staff, cumbersome bureaucracies and the high costs of visa procedures and lack of databases and platforms to initiate international flow of information were outlined as other important factors. CSOs confirmed that the EU process has been instrumental in developing Turkish CSOs' relations with their European counterparts but expressed their regret that these opportunities were often taken on by the same CSOs that have reached a certain level of capacity.



In addition to these findings, the case study titled ‘Effects of the EU Accession Process on CSO’s level of organisation in Turkey’<sup>30</sup> points out that many CSOs strive for EU partnership solely due to the grants provided, so they do not form sustainable, long-term partnerships that could create potential opportunities for the CSOs to assert their influence in the reform process. One of the reasons for these short lived relationships is the fact that most EU grants are project-based and, after the conclusion of the project, communication between the funding authority and the recipient CSO ceases. In addition, CSOs have been restricted to areas which the EU deems as important or fund-worthy, so many CSOs have designed projects or programmes solely to meet the requirements of EU grants.

However, the case study recognises an important development that resulted from this process: because of the availability of EU funds, CSOs have become better at preparing project documents, keeping records and even looking for funding in different sources. That said, many CSOs find the EU grant process to be too bureaucratic and cumbersome and, given the opportunity, they would rather look for funding elsewhere. The case study also finds that as EU funds increased, other international organisations decreased their grants. In addition, CSOs formed partnerships with other international organisations mainly because it was required by the EU in order to be eligible for a grant. The authors stress that although CSOs benefit from these international ties, usually they too are short-term and end with the completion of the project or programme.

## Conclusion

The previous CSI Study offered a detailed look at the organisational and structural weaknesses of CSOs in Turkey while also pointing at some strengths and opportunities for improvement. Yet, a contemporary look at CSOs shows that certain basic organisational weaknesses remain. CSOs are continuously reporting insufficient human and financial resources, as well as limited levels of communication and cooperation.

Some of these major weaknesses such as human and financial resources, along with international relations, are closely interrelated and present opportunities for solving some of the sector’s structural problems if they are tackled. The recent improvements in access to technology and support infrastructures further suggest opportunities to address these issues.

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<sup>30</sup> ‘Effects of the EU Accession Process on CSO’s level of organisation in Turkey’ Case Study was prepared by Okan University’s Zeynep Alemdar and Rana Birden Çorbacıoğlu tarafından hazırlanmıştır. Please see Appendix 3, Case Study Report Summaries for more information.

A comparative look at foundations and associations show that foundations are much more developed in terms of their human and financial resources in comparison to associations. In addition, legal reforms in the area of support infrastructures seem to have been reflected in implementation while the same cannot be said for reforms regarding CSOs’ international relations. In particular, the case study for this dimension finds that in terms of organisational democratisation and capacity building, the EU has not had any substantial effect on CSOs. Although the EU grant process was a good learning experience for CSOs to develop projects and draft related documents, CSOs failed to acquire other norms or practices from the EU.

# 3

## Practice of Values

- 3.1 Democratic Decision-Making Governance
- 3.2 Labour Regulations
- 3.3 Code of Conduct and Transparency
- 3.4 Environmental Standards
- 3.5 Perception of Values in Civil Society as A Whole



This dimension examines the practice of values within CSOs, as demonstrated through the existence of democratic decision-making governance, labour regulations, codes of conduct and transparency and environmental standards. It also takes a look at the perceptions of values in civil society as a whole, deriving its data predominantly from the CSO Survey.

The ‘practice’ of selected values such as equal opportunities, labour standards and environmental standards is assessed by the percentage of organisations that have publicly available policies in these areas. However, the Advisory Committee members pointed out that there is a general tendency among CSOs not to have written documents and not to share them publicly, possibly making the practice of these values appear worse than they really are.

Yet, this dimension still managed to receive a relatively high score (46.9%) among the five core dimensions of the CSI.

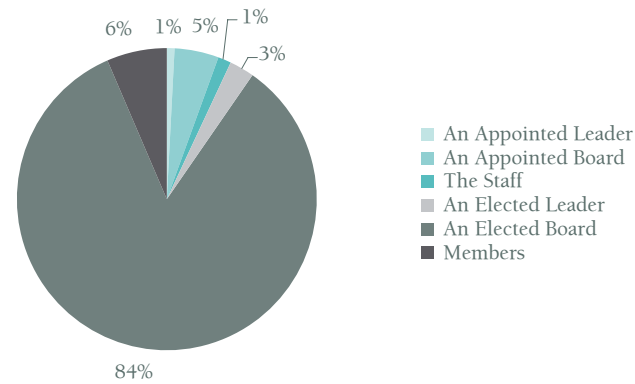
**Table III.3.1 Practice of Values Scores**

	(%)
<b>3 Practice of Values</b>	<b>49.1</b>
3.1 Democratic Decision-Making Governance	94.4
3.2 Labour Regulations	34.9
3.3 Code of Conduct and Transparency	50.5
3.4 Environmental Standards	30.3
3.5 Perception of Values in Civil Society as A Whole	35.6

### *3.1 Democratic Decision-Making Governance*

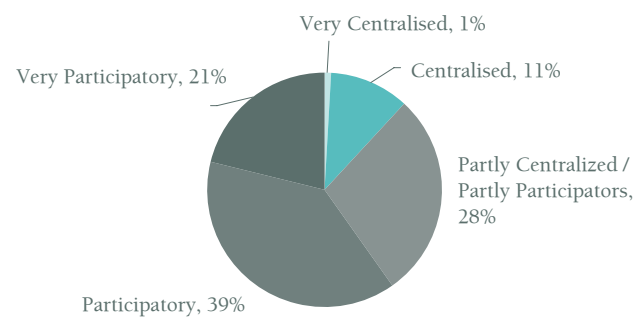
In order to find the percentage of organisations that practice democratic decision-making internally, CSOs were asked to report on who makes decisions in their organisations. They were also asked to comment on the approaches and ways in which decision-making takes place. Elected bodies, members or staff make the decisions in 94% of the CSOs, while 60% consider their approach to be inclusive. As such, CSOs in Turkey demonstrated high levels of democratic decision-making internally.

Figure III.3.1 Decision-Makers in CSOs



(CSOS, 2009)

Figure III.3.2 Decision-Making Approaches in CSOs



(CSOS, 2009)

Yet both the Advisory Committee and many regional consultation meeting participants suggested that CSOs do not sufficiently practice democratic decision-making. As is also mentioned in this report's internal governance section, although such mechanisms appear to exist, their functionality and effectiveness are questionable to many stakeholders. Participants emphasised the dominant roles appointed bodies enjoy in some CSOs, along with relations of patronage and hierarchy, all of which present obstacles to internal democracy. According to regional consultation meeting participants, the process of CSOs internalising democratic governance is a long-term one and CSOs need to go beyond the current legal necessities and impose self-regulation.

Figure III.3.3 CSOs with Publicly Available Written Policy Documents



(CSOS, 2009)

Figure III.3.4 CSOs That Have/Might Prepare Publicly Available Policy Documents



(CSOS, 2009)

### 3.2 Labour Regulations

As mentioned in the previous sections of the country report, most CSOs in Turkey do not employ professional staff (57%). As such, this section evaluates the labour regulations of a relatively small number of CSOs that employ a relatively small workforce. Labour regulations are analysed through equal opportunities, members of labour unions, labour rights trainings, and publicly available policies for labour standards.

Sixty-three percent of CSOs do not have written policies in place regarding equal opportunity and/or equal pay for equal work for women (CSOS, 2009) while a majority believe that gender discrimination is a common practice among CSOs (Toros, 2007).

Low labour union rates among CSO employees parallel the low levels across Turkey, with only 7% of CSOs reporting having paid staff that are members of labour unions (CSOS, 2009).

Of surveyed CSOs, 68.1% report conducting specific trainings on labour rights for new staff members. Yet they fail to give details on the content of these trainings, which are generally more like orientation sessions that provide practical information on day-to-day life in the CSO.

As mentioned in the section concerning human resources, employment of paid professional staff has yet to take root and become common practice in civil society. Research findings show CSOs having insufficient professional human resources with insufficient infrastructures to manage them in accordance with basic labour standards.

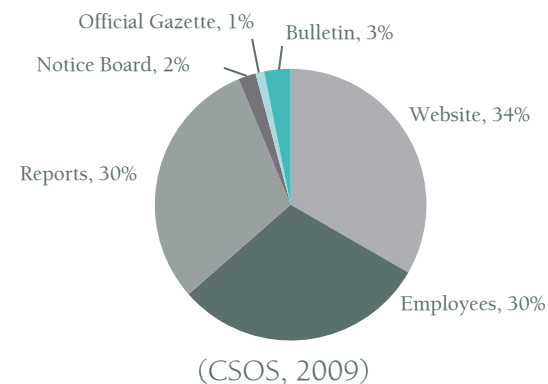
### 3.3 Code of Conduct and Transparency

This sub dimension involves the existence of publicly available codes of conduct among CSOs as well as a measurement of transparency through the percentage of organisations whose financial information is made publicly available.

More than half (68.7%) of CSOs do not have publicly available codes of conduct, while 84% report never having considered developing such a document (CSOS, 2009).

A relatively high percentage of CSOs (70.6%) report sharing their financial records with the public and employing various methods to do so (CSOS, 2009).

**Figure III.3.5 CSO Methods of Sharing Financial Information**



Yet the regional consultation meeting participants and Advisory Committee members report the actual practice of transparency in the sector to be much worse. Many expressed the view that CSOs feared financial transparency thinking it might have a negative effect on the donations they receive, while many others criticised CSOs for asking other sectors to be transparent while they did not practice the same values they were promoting. The legal framework was criticised for not being strict about financial transparency and many recommended that it should be an obligation of CSOs benefiting from tax benefits to publicly display their financial records.

### 3.4 Environmental Standards

A majority (69.7%) of Turkish CSOs do not have a publicly available policy for environmental standards while, 84% report never having considered developing such a document (CSOS, 2009).

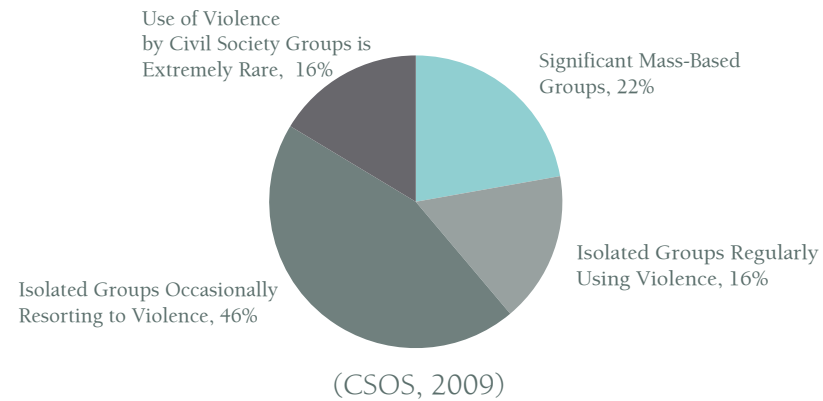
Regional consultation meeting participants stated that many CSOs were environmentally sensitive and paid special attention to recycling and not wasting natural resources, even though they may not have written policies on the subject.

### 3.5 Perception of Values in Civil Society as A Whole

This section makes an assessment of levels of certain negative values such as violence, corruption and intolerance through civil society actors' perceptions. As such, civil society actors were asked to evaluate the use of violence by civil society groups, corrupt practices within civil society, and racist and discriminatory forces within civil society in terms of how widespread and prominent they are in the sector. In addition, civil society's role in promoting democratic decision-making, isolation and denouncing of violent practices and groups within civil society, as well the promotion of non-violence and peace, are examined through the same approach.

Although the majority (64%) report believing that civil society groups use violence, the dominant impression (78%) is that these are isolated groups that are disapproved of by most civil society actors (CSOS, 2009).

**Figure III.3.6 Use of Violence by Civil Society Groups**

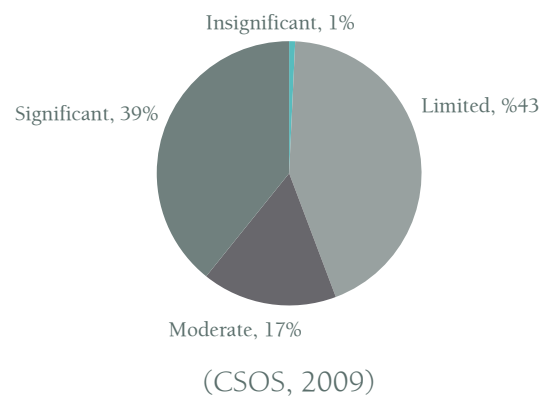


Only 30% of CSO survey participants believe that corrupt practices within civil society are frequent or very frequent. This shows a certain level of trust in CSOs even though not many share their financial reports and despite generally low levels of trust in Turkey.

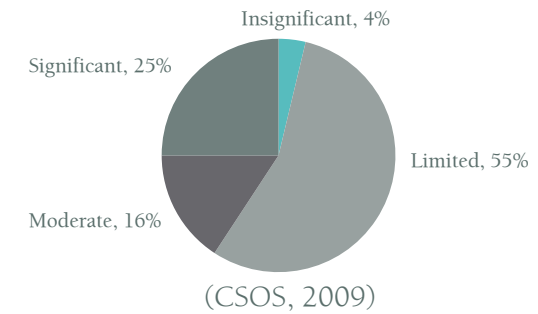
Although the majority (80%) reports believing that there are racist and discriminatory forces within civil society, the dominant impression (61%) is that these are only marginal groups that are disapproved of by most civil society actors (CSOS, 2009).

Considering civil society's role in promoting democratic decision-making and promoting non-violence and peace, the majority finds both roles to be insignificant, limited or moderate (75% and 61% respectively) (CSOS, 2009).

**Figure III.3.7 Civil Society Role in Promoting Non-Violence and Peace**



**Figure III.3.8 Civil Society Role in Promoting Democratic Decision-Making**



The case study 'Status of Accountability in Civil Society in Turkey'<sup>31</sup> seeks to examine the extent to which civil society organisations practice the core value of accountability and uses a broad concept of accountability that goes beyond the traditional notions of the analysis of formal representational mechanisms. Specifically, it defines the concept of stakeholder accountability as the right to hold an organisation accountable by any individual or organisation that might affect or be affected by a decision or action taken by an organisation.

The case study, examining six CSOs, concludes that most are transparent and have moved on to deal with aspects of inclusiveness. Those that are not transparent at least identify transparency as an important organisational issue and want to improve this aspect of their management. However, there exists a superficial understanding of evaluation, and this is a sector-wide problem: CSOs only evaluate their projects and fail to do an overall evaluation of their organisational values, goals and mission. Only one of the organisations makes noteworthy attempts to include as many stakeholders as they can in their decision-making process. Also, this particular organisation sees the value in implementing formal complaint mechanisms, while the majority of the organisations rely on informal means such as being accessible by phone or e-mail. In short, Turkish CSOs are still in a transition phase, attempting to identify, connect with and establish closer ties to their stakeholders.

Regional consultation meeting participants found most activities of CSOs towards denouncing violence to be limited and targeted at certain disadvantaged groups rather than having a more comprehensive approach. Yet they also expressed the importance of denouncing any type of violence in all civil society activities since civil society is the only actor undertaking this important role in society. CSOs were also self-critical, expressing the need to be democratic internally before they can effectively promote democratic governance in society and government.

<sup>31</sup> 'Status of Accountability in Civil Society in Turkey' Case Study was prepared by " Zeynep Meydanoglu and Bilal Zivali. Please see Appendix 3, Case Study Report Summaries for more information.

## Conclusion

This dimension shows that values such as equal opportunities, labour standards and environmental standards are not recorded and shared through publicly available policy documents in these areas, leaving their practice open to misuse and abuse. This also points towards a general tradition of not keeping written policies and documents in CSOs, both internally and at the sectoral level.

Regional consultation meeting participants found this method of measurement very ‘occidental’ and claimed that unauthorised government auditing of CSOs pushes them not to keep any written documents that might be used against them in a possible future audit.

Civil society is perceived to contain some negative forces and values such as violence, corruption and intolerance. Yet, the dominant impression is that these are only marginal groups that are disapproved of by most civil society actors.

Considering civil society’s role in promoting democratic decision-making internally and externally, most found it to be limited and problematic, stating that organisations that were not democratic or accountable internally could not effectively promote democracy externally.

Although civil society in Turkey is still in its infant stages, there are signs of positive developments towards internalising and practising the core aspects of accountability. Moving forward, before attempting to address the issue of accountability, CSOs have to identify their stakeholders to see who they are actually accountable to. This will link organisations not only to their stakeholders but to the public in general, and will raise the profile of CSOs.



- 4.1 and 4.4 Responsiveness
- 4.2 and 4.5 Social Impact
- 4.3 and 4.6 Political Impact
- 4.7 Impact of Civil Society on Attitudes



This dimension aims to assess the level of activity and impact of CSOs regarding various societal issues and policies. Impact assessment in civil society proves to be a complex and difficult area and most organisations lack activities and strategies to this end. Thus, it is the perception of impact rather than the actual impact that is measured under this dimension.

Civil society in Turkey is perceived to have limited impact, and this receives the second lowest score of 39.2% of the core dimensions of the CSI.

**Table III.4.1 Perception of Impact Scores**

		%
<b>4</b>	<b>Perceived Impact</b>	<b>39.2</b>
4.1	Responsiveness ( <i>Internal Perception</i> )	38.7
4.2	Social Impact ( <i>Internal Perception</i> )	51.3
4.3	Policy Impact ( <i>Internal Perception</i> )	32.2
4.4	Responsiveness ( <i>External Perception</i> )	41.0
4.5	Social Impact ( <i>External Perception</i> )	44.8
4.6	Policy Impact ( <i>External Perception</i> )	50.2
4.7	Impact of Civil Society on Attitudes	16.4

The responsiveness of civil society to leading societal issues was measured by focusing on the three leading public areas of concern, namely, unemployment, education and human rights. These issues have continued to appear at the top of most public opinion surveys, and unemployment and human rights were also examined in the previous CSI implementation.

In addition to responsiveness, civil society’s perceived social and political impact, along with the difference in attitudes between members of civil society and non-members were examined.

Under this dimension, the perception of civil society’s external stakeholders,<sup>32</sup> such as the government, public sector, academia and the media, was also measured to complement and compare the perceptions of civil society actors in terms of their objectivity. The internal and external perceptions for each impact area are discussed under the same section to provide a contrast between internal and external stakeholders’ views.

<sup>32</sup> ‘CSI External Stakeholder Surveys (ESS) were carried out in the same seven regions as the other research. Involving about 50 government, private sector, media and academia representatives, the rationale was to capture ‘external’ opinions from important stakeholders, thus giving CSI a more objective perspective on the state of civil society in Turkey. Please see Appendix 2, CSI Methodology and Implementation in Turkey for more information.



#### 4.1 and 4.4 Responsiveness (Internal and External Perception)

Civil society's internal and external stakeholders were asked to evaluate civil society's responsiveness towards Turkey's three leading social problems. While the majority found civil society's responsiveness to unemployment to be non-existent or limited, civil society was perceived to have significant or high impact on education and human rights. This perception followed a similar pattern to the last CSI implementation. In addition, the similarity in the perceptions of internal and external stakeholders suggests that civil society actors are reasonably objective in their assessment of impact.

Figure III.4.1 Civil Society's Impact on Societal Problems (Internal Perception)

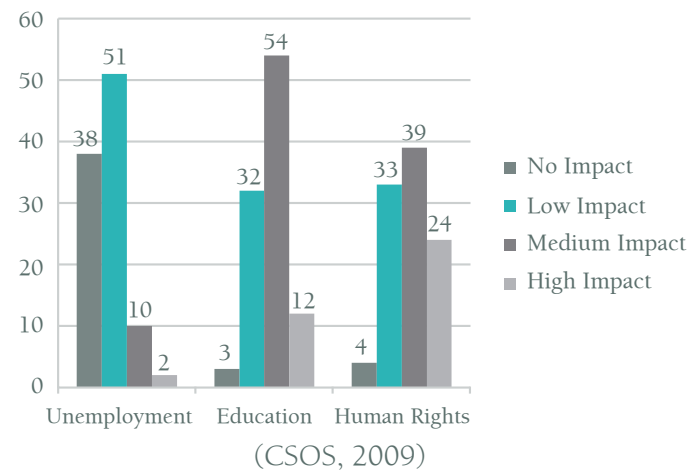
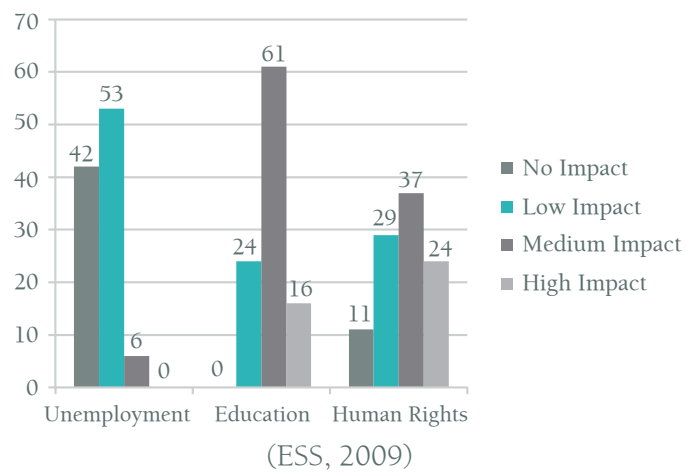


Figure III.4.2 Civil Society's Impact on Societal Problems (External Perception)



Seen as an area where CSOs display high levels of activity both in terms of social services and in terms of policy change, education enjoys the highest perception of impact among the three areas examined. The case study titled 'CSOs in the Field of Education'<sup>33</sup> examines the post-1990 role of CSOs in the education sector of Turkey and finds that CSOs have come to play an important role in filling a service gap. There are serious inequalities in terms of access and quality between different regions as well as gender-based problems, and Turkey, compared to other OECD members, continues to struggle to provide sound education, due to a high youth population and the increasing demand for education coupled with insufficient government resources. The case study argues that CSOs have been successful in reaching countless children in various parts of Turkey with a focus on early childhood education, vocational and technical education, and higher education. CSOs have also been active in forming coalitions with the public sector, especially the Ministry of National Education, institutions of higher education, and other CSOs, to further implement their projects, propose new ones, undertake research, influence policy-making and raise social awareness and responsibility among the population.

As the study points out, they have their own unique educational models and have become commendable institutions in their area of specialisation; they have amassed skilled human capital and have successfully developed their organisational capacity to meet the challenges posed by the sector. The study author argues that since CSOs became heavily involved in service delivery, they brought with them to the education field new ways of thinking and practices that help accelerate development. These new proposals are a combination of both scholarly research and ideas borrowed from international initiatives, on which the CSOs keep a close eye. The study concludes with a simple but important message: CSOs are and will continue to be a significant stakeholder in the development of the education sector in Turkey.

#### 4.2 and 4.5 Social Impact (Internal and External Perception)

In order to evaluate civil society's social impact, internal stakeholders were asked to evaluate their own organisation's social impact, and civil society's impact as a whole, whereas external stakeholders were only asked to evaluate the latter. As was the case regarding responsiveness, education, supporting disadvantaged and marginalised communities, social development and human rights were the areas where civil society stakeholders perceived themselves to be the most effective. Similarly, education, humanitarian aid, supporting disadvantaged groups and food aid were the areas where external stakeholders believed civil society as a whole to have the highest impact. Education and supporting disadvantaged groups were two areas of success for both groups.

<sup>33</sup> 'CSOs in the Field of Education' Case Study was prepared by Esin Aksay. Please see Appendix 3, Case Study Report Summaries for more information.

Figure III.4.3 Social Impact of Own Organisation (*Internal Perception*)

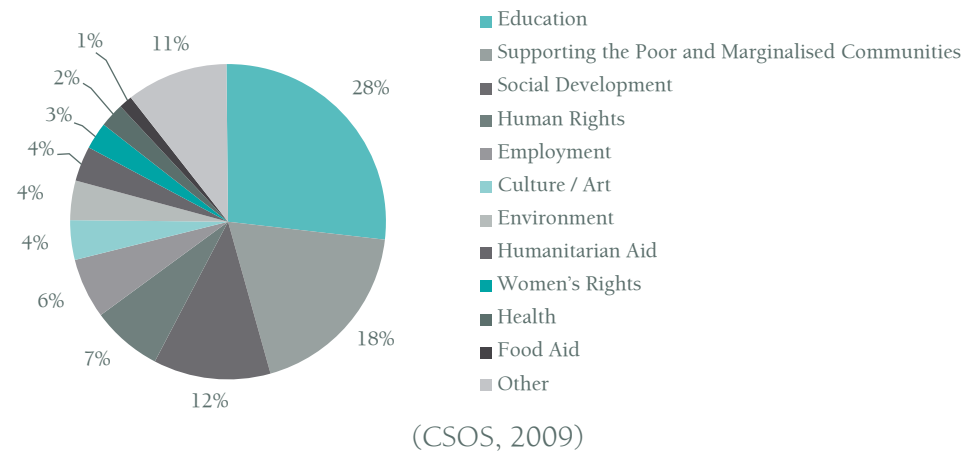
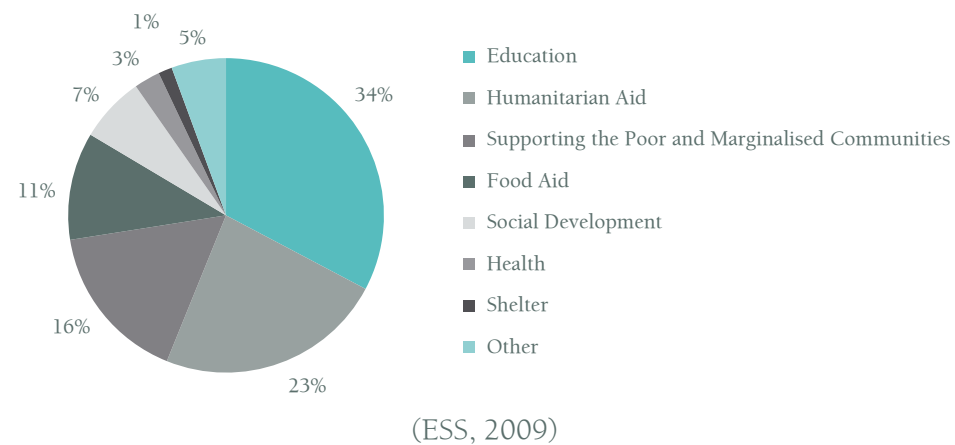


Figure III.4.4 Civil Society's Social Impact (*External Perception*)



### 4.3 and 4.6 Political Impact (*Internal and External Perception*)

Civil society's policy impact in Turkey was measured by internal and external stakeholder perceptions as well as questions on the level of activity and the success of CSOs in policy-making processes.

In terms of perceptions, civil society is perceived to have limited policy impact by both internal and external stakeholders. Seventy-three percent of internal stakeholders and 68% of external stakeholders agree that civil society has limited or no impact in this area. Similarly,

another study surveying 213 CSOs reveals that only 24% of participants reported CSOs to be effective in holding the state to account and generating policy change (Toros, 2007).

Figure III.4.5 Civil Society's Policy Impact (*Internal Perception*)

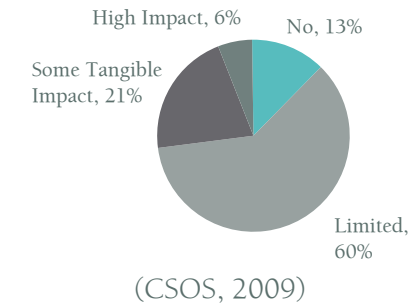
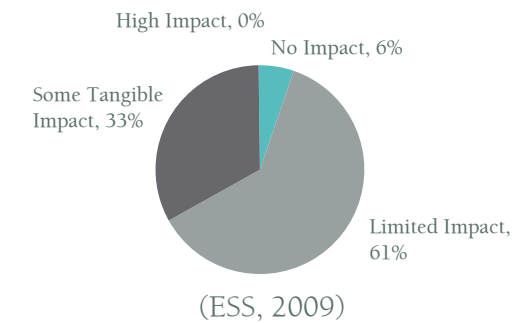
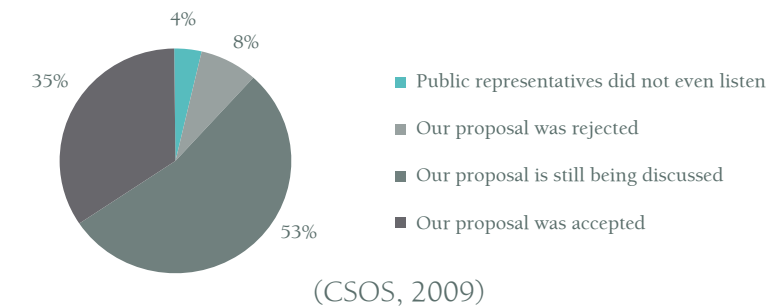


Figure III.4.6 Civil Society's Policy Impact (*External Perception*)



On the other hand, 50% of CSO Survey participants report having pushed for policy change in the last two years, which suggests a relatively high level of activity. Among these organisations, only 12% report being ignored or refused by authorities while the remaining 88% report their policy recommendation to be either accepted or still under discussion.

Figure III.4.7 Result of Policy Recommendation



Yet a general lack in CSOs' capacity and mechanisms to facilitate further dialogue and policy-making processes need to be noted as well. The state needs to make further arrangements to enable civil society participation. The 2006-dated Regulation on Principles and Methods of Legislation Preparation needs to be strengthened to ensure CSO's strategic participation (TÜSEV, 2010).

#### 4.7 Impact of Civil Society on Attitudes

As part of the CSI process in Turkey, three major indicators of social capital, namely trust, tolerance and public spiritedness, were examined to see if participation in civil society had any effect on enhancing the social capital contribution of involved individuals. Analysis showed that there was very little or no difference between civil society members and non-members with no difference in trust and public spiritedness levels and a 14% difference between tolerance levels.

Yet a look at the effects of volunteerism on social capital reveals that there are significant differences between individuals who participate in civil society activities as volunteers and those who do not. Volunteers show much higher levels of self-esteem, trust and empathy, and much lower levels of anomie (TEGV-İnfakto, 2008).

Considering the generally low levels of social capital in Turkey, it would not be wrong to say that CSOs are affected by these negative conditions. Yet, it is positive to see a moderate level (51%) of trust towards CSOs (WVS 2007). Regional consultation meeting participants found these results to be natural and surprising at the same time. It was stated that it was natural for civil society members to reflect the low levels of social capital present in the society at large, while it was surprising that citizens got together in civil society with such low levels of trust and tolerance. Some participants stated that this would mean individuals getting together and organising only with people who have similar backgrounds and identities, thus reinforcing and deepening the divides in society.

#### Conclusion

Research findings show a limited perceived impact of civil society on unemployment, with higher levels of perceived impact in education and human rights. In terms of impact on attitudes, participation in civil society has no visible impact.

Despite the perception of a limited impact in both social and political arenas, civil society is perceived to have a relatively higher impact on social issues. This might be due to the signifi-

cantly higher levels of CSO activity in the social area. As discussed in detail in Section II of this report, foundations and associations work on social solidarity and social services, with a very limited number of organisations working on rights and related policies.

This appears to be an on-going trend over the years, with the previous CSI implementation revealing similar perceptions. The previous CSI study counts CSO capacities for social service provision as a major strength of civil society. The long list of CSOs providing premier services to address the health and education needs of the public, from hospitals and schools to literacy programs and after school centres for youth, showed that Turkish CSOs were delivering high quality programs to target populations. According to regional consultation meeting participants, CSOs exhibit a developing understanding of the importance of advocacy activities but lack a roadmap or strategy to be more active and successful in this area.

# 5

## External Environment

- 5.1 Socio-Economic Context
- 5.2 Socio-Political Context
- 5.3 Socio-Cultural Context
- Government-Civil Society Relations
- Private Sector-Civil Society Relations
- European Union Accession Process



This section defines the political, social, economic, cultural and legal environment in which civil society functions, largely through the use of international studies and indexes. In addition, civil society's relations with the public and private sectors, as well as the EU accession process's effects on Turkey's environment, are described in detail. The score is derived mostly from a range of existing indicators, summarised in Appendix 5.

The External Environment dimension enjoys the highest score (57.5%) in CSI Turkey, signalling even more room for the development of civil society in the future.

**Table III.5.1 External Environment Scores**

		(%)
<b>5</b>	<b>External Environment</b>	<b>57.5</b>
5.1	Socio-Economic Context	64.0
5.2	Socio-Political Context	59.0
5.3	Socio-Cultural Context	49.4

### **5.1 Socio-Economic Context**

The socio-economic context for civil society in Turkey was assessed through international indexes such as the World Values Survey, Social Watch Basic Capabilities Index, Transparency International Corruption Index, World Bank Development Indicators and the Gini Coefficient. The findings showed no significant socio-economic obstacles for the functioning and development of civil society in Turkey, placing Turkey among countries where the basic needs of a large majority (98%) are met (Social Watch BCI, 2009) and with an average level of income inequality (World Bank Gini Coefficient).

Yet, the regional consultation meeting participants drew a much more pessimistic portrait of socio-economic conditions in the country. They suggested that other socio-economic conditions such as dense rural population and rapid urbanisation are barriers to the effective functioning of civil society. They add that economic conditions, including unemployment, have a negative impact on civil society.

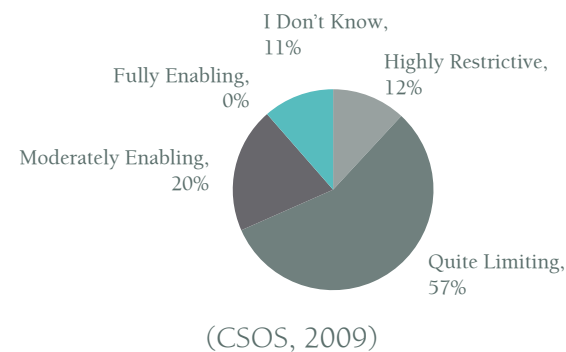
### **5.2 Socio-Political Context**

For the socio-political context the project examined political rights and freedoms, rule of law, associational and organisational rights, state effectiveness and CSO experience of legal frame-

works. International indexes such as Freedom House and World Bank reports, along with the CSOS, reveal that the socio-political context for civil society is somewhat limiting.

In addition to the above indicators, CSO's subjective experience of the legal framework was also examined. Turkey's civil society legislation was seen as very limiting by 69% of the participants, despite the recent law reforms. In addition 78% of CSOs reported facing illegitimate restriction or attack by local or central government on a frequent basis. These findings show significant differences between the two CSI implementations, contrasting with the 63% that had reported only legitimate government interferences in 2005.

**Figure III.5.1 CSO Experience of Legal Framework**



The TÜSEV report 'Barriers to Freedom of Association of Associations in Turkey' identifies the remaining barriers to freedom of association in Turkey in terms of legislation and implementation after the reform of the associations legislation in 2004. Additionally, the study goes on to give key recommendations that would improve the current situation and mend existing problems with the laws and legislation concerning civil society. The findings show that further reforms are needed on public benefit status, fundraising legislation and receiving foreign donations. In terms of implementation, 41% of associations continue to report that they do not perceive the Department of Associations to be civil, meaning it is still perceived to have ties to the police, which administered associations in Turkey before 2004. (TÜSEV, 2010).

The new law on foundations, which came into effect in 2008, has brought along significant improvements for foundations in Turkey. Many activities of foundations, such as international relations and partnerships, which required government permission, now require reporting instead. Another development towards minimising bureaucracy for foundations was the introduction of standardised and electronic reporting forms. The General Directorate of Foundations was democratised through the formation of a democratically elected Council on Foundations which acts as the ultimate decision-making body of the General Directorate. Despite

this positive outlook, due to the relatively young nature of the law, the lack of any monitoring initiatives towards its implementation to date and the fact that the General Directorate has yet to share the data from the electronic annual foundation reports, it is not yet possible to make a considered assessment of its effects.

Another important factor is that fiscal legislation does not support the financial sustainability of CSOs. Tax deductions or credits, or other tax benefits to encourage individual and corporate giving, are available on a limited basis, to a limited number of CSOs. The government is therefore strongly advised to review current tax incentives for donations to CSOs so as to enable a broader base of individual and institutional philanthropy.

Regional consultation meeting participants observed the political will towards a more favourable socio-political context for CSOs, yet pointed out that it would take a long time for civil liberties and the culture of democracy to be internalised by authorities and society. The following were specifically mentioned as unfavourable conditions in the political context in Turkey: limitations on freedom of expression, problems with the implementation of recent legal reforms and the persistence of bureaucratic difficulties.

### 5.3 Socio-Cultural Context

The levels of interpersonal trust, tolerance and public spiritedness were examined to evaluate the socio-cultural context for the development of civil society in Turkey.

Research findings reveal that low levels of social capital, especially in the levels of trust and tolerance, present obstacles to the functioning and development of civil society in Turkey.

Only 4.8% of individuals believe that most people in Turkey can be trusted, and there are significantly low levels of trust towards individuals outside of the family, acquaintances and neighbours. A majority of people do not tolerate individuals such as people with different religious, ethnic, or sexual backgrounds, foreigners, unmarried couples, persons who are HIV-positive, and heavy drinkers and drug addicts. In contrast, and despite these low levels of trust and tolerance, individuals in Turkey display high levels of public spiritedness (WVS, 2007).

Low levels of trust and tolerance, complemented by high levels of public spiritedness, have been a constant over the years. Yet, the levels of generalised trust have gone down significantly from 16% to a mere 4.8% (WVS 2007).

According to other research underlining the low levels of social capital in the country, social capital has a crucial role to play in social and political participation, tolerance, and spreading and deepening democratic practices (An-İnfakto 2006).

## Government – Civil Society Relations<sup>34</sup>

According to some researchers, due to the Ottoman traditions of a strong state shaping both politics and society, it is not easy for civil society to develop and function independently of the state (Toros, 2007). Others suggest that government needs to employ social, political and economic means and policies to support civil society development (Türküne, 2003). In short, there are diverse arguments as to the ideal nature and state of government-civil society relations in Turkey.

The state needs to have two fundamental properties to enable civil society development: ensuring the rule of law and limiting the state's powers powers. In this context, the conditions limiting civil society development in Turkey can be summarised as follows: the constitution lacks the ability to accommodate the democracy and freedom demands of the public; political life continues to feel the effects of the military; economic policies lack a truly liberal perspective; and political life is becoming polarised and occupied by marginal parties (Çaha, 2008).

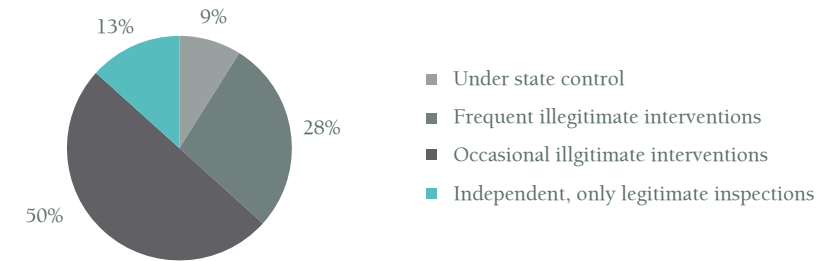
CSI Turkey implementation examined state-civil society relations through autonomy, dialogue and support. The extent to which civil society can exist and function independently of the state; the nature of state dialogue with civil society, and the range of CSOs receiving state resources (in the form of grants, contracts, etc.) were the guiding questions under this sub-dimension.

As mentioned in the previous CSI report, technically (by law), civil society can exist and function independently of the state; CSOs are free to operate without excessive government interference and government oversight apart from that reasonably designed and limited to protect legitimate public interests (TÜSEV, 2006). But in practice, CSOs are subject to frequent unwarranted interference in their operations, and 78% of CSOs report being subjected to frequent illegitimate interferences. In terms of dialogue, the majority of CSOs believe that the state engages with a selective group of CSOs on a needs-only basis (68%). Regarding public support of CSOs, 97% describe the range of CSOs that benefit from such support to be limited or very limited (CSOS, 2009). These perceptions of CSOs overlap with external stakeholders' perceptions, suggesting the objectivity of their assessments.

In comparison with the previous CSI study, the dialogue and cooperation levels remain the same while there has been a significant worsening of the CSO perception of autonomy. This might be due to the failure to fully implement legal reforms.

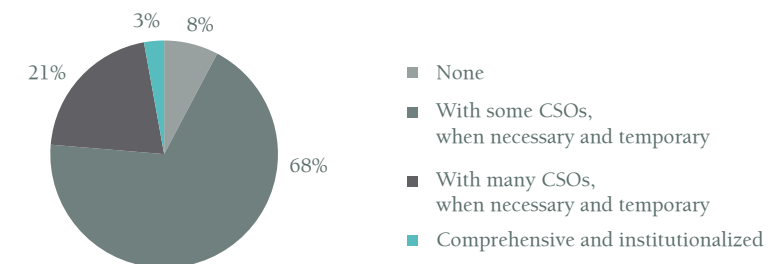
<sup>34</sup> The below issues were seen as critical and examined in the CSI Turkey implementation. These were government and private sector relations and the impact of the EU accession process on civil society's external environment.

Figure III.5.2 Autonomy of Civil Society



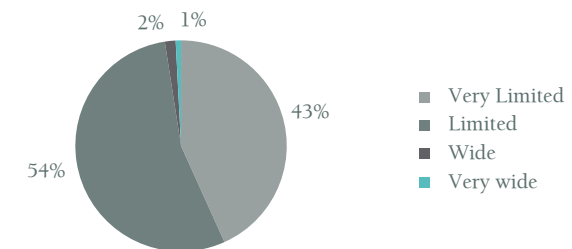
(CSOS, 2009)

Figure III.5.3 Government–Civil Society Dialogue



(CSOS, 2009)

Figure III.5.4 CSOs Receiving Public Support

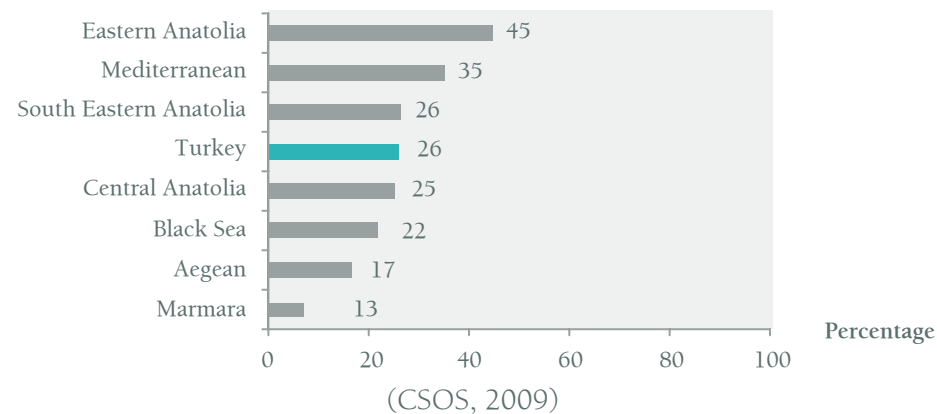


(CSOS, 2009)

CSO perception of illegitimate government interferences shows regional differences. The CSOs in Mediterranean and Eastern Anatolia regions report much higher levels of government interference than the country average. The regional consultation meeting participants suggested

that implementations differ greatly from province to province, let alone regions. It was seen as a direct result of the fact that the personas and perspectives of high level officials in the provinces (such as governors) make a direct impact on how laws and regulations are implemented.

**Figure III.5.5 Illegitimate Interferences in CSO Activities by Region**



In conclusion, although there were many positive legal reforms in the first half of the 2000s, there still are frequent interferences, limited dialogue and even more limited support between government and civil society actors in Turkey, suggesting that the reforms have stayed on paper rather than being implemented.

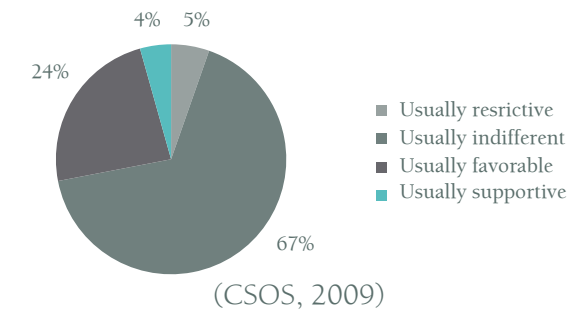
### Private Sector-Civil Society Relations

Under private sector-civil society relations, CSI Turkey examines the general attitude of the private sector towards civil society actors; the level of development of ideas and actions of corporate social responsibility (CSR) and the range of CSOs that receive support from the private sector. This area appears to be a weak but improving area that has much future potential, as was the case in the previous CSI implementation.

CSO survey participants find that private sector is generally uninterested in civil society actors (67%). Major companies show limited concern about the social and environmental impacts of their operations and CSR activities (48%), and only a very limited range of CSOs benefit from CSR activities (75%).

On the other hand, external stakeholders have a somewhat more positive perception of private sector-civil society relations.

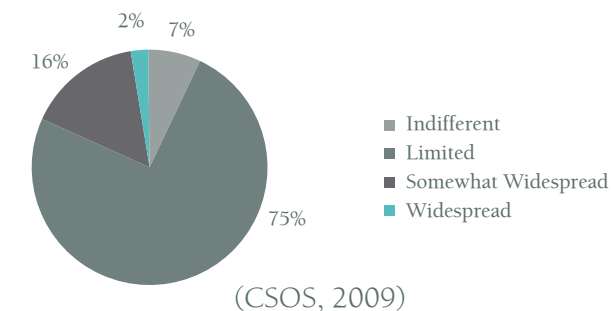
**Figure III.5.6 Private Sector Attitude towards Civil Society**



**Figure III.5.7 CSR Activities**



**Figure III.5.8 Private Sector Support for Civil Society**



The case study 'Corporate Social Responsibility: Examination of Five Corporations and Five CSOs'<sup>35</sup> reflects on private sector and CSO perspectives on CSR and good CSR practices.

<sup>35</sup> 'Corporate Social Responsibility Case Study: Examination of Five Corporations and Five CSOs' was prepared by Peren Özturan. Please see Appendix 3, Case Study Report Summaries for more information.



The cross-cultural differences in CSR initiatives, and their different development over time, indicate that there are unique factors that influence each country's corporate-led social activities. CSR activities in the Turkish business sector have been shaped by its roots in Ottoman *waqf* (foundation) tradition and its encounter with Western best practices through the liberalisation process of the Turkish economy.

In the study, CSR and its positive influence on society and environment are discussed by providing CSO and corporate perspectives on partnerships in exemplary CSR projects. The examples show that there are firms and CSOs in Turkey which integrate CSR initiatives into their daily operations and fulfil CSR's key ideas and principles.

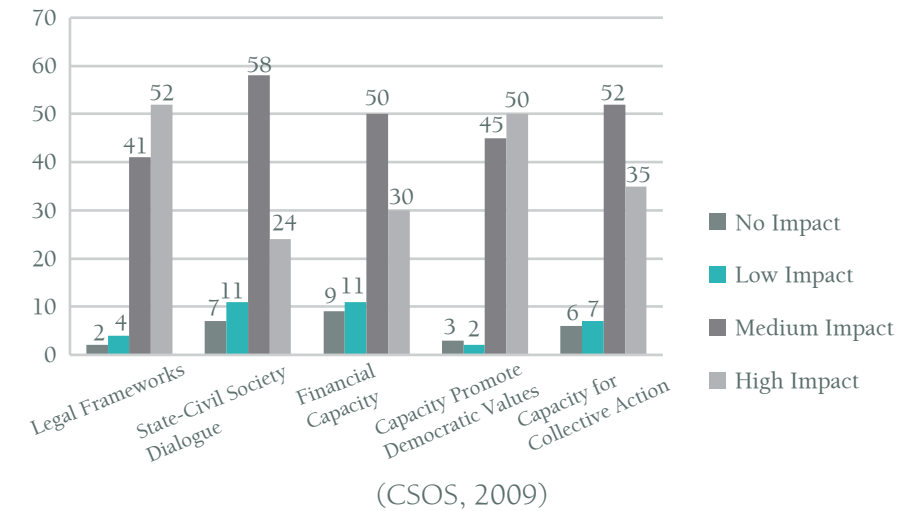
CSO stakeholders taking part in regional and national focus group discussions agree on the trend that companies are taking a more active role in supporting CSOs, yet concerns remain about the lack of strategies and mechanisms. According to regional consultation meeting participants, CSO partners and projects are selected and supported on an ad-hoc basis, generally with the advice of public relations/corporate communications consultants, commonly funded from the companies' PR or marketing budgets. Decisions are rarely made according to any set guidelines and the practice is often treated as a 'sponsorship' rather than a 'grant'. As such, corporate funds are accessible only for small and selective groups of CSOs. The unfavourable fiscal framework for donations and grant giving appears as another factor affecting CSR and corporate philanthropy negatively.

### European Union Accession Process

According to Diez et al., civil society and its organisations have been both objects and subjects of Turkey's EU accession process (Diez et. al., 2005).

CSOs participating in the CSI survey report a generally positive impact of the EU accession process on the development of civil society in terms of the development of legal frameworks, and the promotion of values (see Figure III.5.9 below). The more negative effects of the EU on civil society were in the area of funding (noting the cumbersome procedures, bureaucracy and lack of transparency). The most significant and positive effects were related to the enabling environment (through the reform of CSO laws) and increased ability of CSOs to promote democratic values. The least significant yet still positive effects related to promoting the capacity for collective action and CSO dialogue with the state.

Figure III.5.9 Effects of the EU Process



Yet in regional consultation discussions and literature, the EU was frequently criticised for promoting a project-based approach where winning project-based EU grants became the only measure of success for CSOs (Erol, 2007). Another criticism was of the sustainability of the EU's effects on CSOs, with EU support having short-term impacts on financial and human resources and internal governance.

As detailed in the section on CSO international relations (Section III.2.6), the case study 'Effects of the EU Accession Process on CSO's level of organisation in Turkey' notes that while the EU process has made CSOs more familiar with documenting projects and seeking funding, the changes have been limited and the EU has failed to have a deeper effect on the norms and structures of CSOs in Turkey.

### Conclusion

Civil society in Turkey is greatly affected by the environment within which it operates. The socio-political and socio-economic contexts which were examined through international indices and studies were found not to pose any serious limitations to the functions and development of civil society in Turkey.

In addition the limited yet optimistic nature of private sector-civil society relations emerges as an area open to development. The presence of good practices and the growth of the Turkish private sector point towards developments in the near future.

The EU process continues to be perceived positively despite the ups and downs of the process. It is perceived to be particularly positive in developing legal frameworks, creating dialogue with the state, building financial capacity and encouraging societal movements. Yet it is criticised in terms of not having a sustainable impact on CSO capacities.

There have been some drawbacks in government-civil society relations over the years, largely due to the failure to implement recent legal reforms. Thus, government-civil society relations, be it in terms of autonomy, dialogue or support, offer a more pessimistic portrait than in the previous CSI Study.

Finally, the socio-cultural context presents an obstacle to the development of civil society in Turkey because of the low levels of social capital. This has been a constant since the last CSI study.

# IV

## Strengths and Weaknesses of Civil Society in Turkey



This section provides an overview of the strengths and weaknesses of civil society in Turkey, based on the data collected throughout this study, with a primary focus on the views and comments of the regional consultations and Civil Society Forum participants.

## *Strengths*

When all of the collected data was analysed in close detail, civil society was perceived to be experiencing a period of positive transition, showing an array of activities, accomplishments and impressive efforts to address social and economic problems in Turkey. Regardless of the obstacles brought on by social, political and economic instability, civil society, albeit in a more limited space, has persevered and demonstrated some noteworthy strengths, which are described in the section below.

### *Access to Technological and Support Infrastructures*

Recent years show significant increases in CSOs' access to technology and support infrastructures such as support offices and umbrella bodies, pointing towards opportunities to address structural and relational weaknesses in the sector.

### *Limited Scope of Negative Values*

Negative values such as violence, corruption and racism are seen to be practiced by marginal groups and denounced by civil society at large. This positive perception is a valuable strength in gaining participation from the public.

### *Socio-Economic and Socio-Political Contexts*

Both the socio-economic and socio-political contexts were found to be favourable for the functions and development of civil society in Turkey.

### *Private Sector Relations*

Although private sector relations remain limited in terms of perspective and application, the presence of good examples and practices suggests that the area is open to improvements.

## Weaknesses

Civil society and CSOs in Turkey are facing several challenges in their attempt to address new mandates brought about by an era of social and economic development. It is also showing continuity in some weaknesses and great regional differences. Some of the key limitations are summarised below.

### Civic Engagement

Turkish citizens remain rather disconnected from the current movement of organised civil society, with participation taking place in a very narrow and deep manner where different social groups are only moderately represented. This is a multi-dimensional weakness, coming hand in hand with weaknesses in financial and human resources as well as legitimacy.

### Organisational Levels of CSOs

A current look at the civil society arena reveals that CSOs function with limited resources, problematic governance structures and weak relationships, despite the recent growth and developments in the sector.

### Limited Perceived Impact

Civil society is perceived to have an impact on human rights and education, but with a weak impact on unemployment and no impact on attitudes such as trust, tolerance and public spiritedness.

### Socio-Cultural Context

The low levels of social capital in Turkey continue to pose an obstacle to civil society functions and developments.

### Government Relations

Over the years, the failure to implement legal reforms has led to a negative perception of government-civil society relations, be it in terms of autonomy, dialogue or support. This perception results from the reforms and mechanisms that were initiated in early 2000s and which resulted in high expectations.

Figure IV.1.1 Comparison of Civil Society Strengths and Weaknesses Over Time (2005-2010)



The above figure offers a chronologically comparative look at the strengths and weaknesses of civil society in Turkey since the previous CSI study.

Over the years, socio-economic and socio-political contexts, relatively high perceived social impact and private sector relations continue to be strengths, while access to technological and support infrastructures have emerged as an area of improvement.

On the other hand, the persistence of low citizen participation and levels of organisation (resources, relations and structures) is worrisome. In addition to these basic weaknesses, the perception of political impact and government-civil society relations appear to be much weaker than before.

**V**

**Recommendations**



The following recommendations suggest specific actions to address the limitations revealed in this study. This section will be especially useful for CSOs and other stakeholders, such as government, funders and academics, who are keen to support and develop specific activities to strengthen civil society and CSOs in Turkey.

### *Strengthening and Deepening Relations with Citizens*

A large group of CSOs (87%) find citizen participation in civil society to be insufficient, placing it second among their most pressing concerns (Toros, 2007) and confirm that they need to develop their capacities in this regard. As such:

- CSOs need to encourage citizen participation through innovative mechanisms and modelling of existing best practices towards gaining members, volunteers and donations.
- Highly costly and yet beneficial PR and communications activities need to be supported by donor and support organisations.
- Government needs to make efforts towards making CSO registration, management, membership and donations free of bureaucracy.
- CSOs need to form more interactive relations with the public and their beneficiaries to ensure stakeholder accountability, as well as to bridge their gap with the public.

### *Strengthening CSOs Organisational Capacities*

Research findings reveal that CSOs levels of institutionalisation, management structures, resources and relationships are far from satisfactory. On the other hand, recent developments in access to technological and support infrastructures, along with the existence of best practices, present opportunities for overcoming these weaknesses. As such:

- CSOs continue to need operational and governance-oriented capacity building activities. Yet it is advised that such activities and training be long-term and consistent to ensure their maximum effect.
- In addition to trainings and support, platforms to enable the sharing of good applications and best practices are needed.
- Improvements in access to technological infrastructures such as the Internet need to be used as advantages to improve the level of communications and of public relations.
- CSO capacities also need to be improved for better fundraising and financial manage-

ment skills. In addition, mechanisms to enable the flow of resources to civil society need to be further encouraged.<sup>36</sup>

- Establishing written and publicly open policy documents on issues such as labour regulations, transparency, environmental standards and gender equity will not only ensure their implementation but will also have a positive effect on public trust by promoting transparency.

Support organisations and infrastructures have a particular role to play in order for these recommendations to be implemented and take root. In addition, umbrella organisations have potentially important roles to play in bringing CSOs together, promoting cross-sector and cross-border communication and cooperation and establishing self-regulatory mechanisms. Coordinated efforts between support and umbrella organisations and donors will ensure effective use of resources and avoid overlaps.

### *Supporting Government–Civil Society Relations*

As emphasised throughout the report, government–civil society relations are of vital importance for the development of civil society in Turkey. These relations have historically been full of ups and downs. Although the 2000s brought great expectations, the failure to implement legal reforms and effectively run mechanisms for participation have had a negative effect on these relations.

- In this context, it is necessary to implement past reforms, to undertake further reforms in necessary areas such as tax benefits, bureaucratic procedures and ensuring effective use of participatory mechanisms. In addition, CSOs need to increase their capacities in this respect, to establish their policies and ensure their own internal democracy and transparency.

### *Civil Society Actions and Social Capital*

As emphasised throughout this report, low levels of tolerance and trust in Turkey affect civil society negatively. Individuals who mistrust and do not tolerate their differences either will not work together, if they do, will do so only with people of similar backgrounds, causing deeper divides in the society.

.....  
<sup>36</sup> Although community foundations and local grant programmes have emerged in recent years, their impact is yet to be seen.

As such, it would be beneficial for CSOs to reconsider their programmes and projects through a social capital perspective and identify how they can be used to enhance relations between different social groups rather than being one-way services or messages. This would require a clear identification of stakeholders, reformulation of activities through active participation and finally involving them in decision-making mechanisms.

**VI**

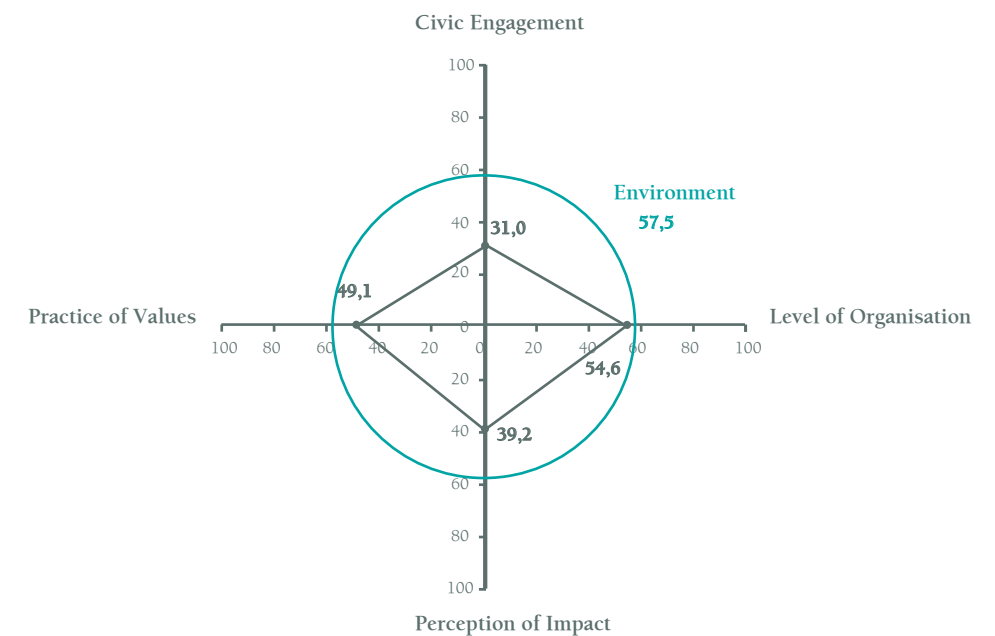
**Conclusion**





The conclusion seeks to draw together the main findings and recommendations of the CSI project in Turkey. It offers a thorough interpretation of the state of Turkish civil society as depicted in the Civil Society Diamond and engages with some of key findings and recommendations resulting from the CSI project.

Figure VI.1.1 Civil Society Diamond for Turkey



As depicted in the relatively small size of the CSI Diamond, civil society in Turkey continues to present more weaknesses than strengths. The findings of the previous CSI study suggested that there is an improving trend regarding many of the existing limitations and captured civil society undergoing transition and facing respective challenges in that process (TÜSEV, 2006). The current CSI study continues to capture civil society in transition, but also suggests that civil society in Turkey faces a major turning point: it will either use its strengths to deepen its role as an indispensable actor in social and political life in Turkey; or it will enter a stagnation period. The key findings and conclusions are summarised below.

**Civic engagement** has a very narrow and nature in Turkey, where different social groups and regions can only participate at varying degrees in civil society activities. As such, the civil

society movement in Turkey remains detached from a large portion of the public despite experiencing a period of transition and expansion. In accordance with this weak description, this dimension received the lowest score (31%) among five core dimensions of the CSI, remaining the weakest dimension with the most need for improvement in Turkey.

As such, CSOs are advised to develop innovative mechanisms to facilitate citizen participation and to have more interactions with their target groups. Donor and support organisations are advised to support CSOs in communications and PR efforts while the government is asked to make CSO functions less bureaucratic to ensure more people can participate.

The previous CSI Study offered a detailed look at the **organisational and structural weaknesses** of CSOs in Turkey while also pointing at some strengths and opportunities for improvement. Yet a contemporary look at CSOs shows that certain basic organisational weaknesses remain. CSOs are functioning with insufficient levels of institutionalisation, problematic governance structures, insufficient resources and relationships. Yet, this dimension has a relatively high score (54.6%).

Institution building and governance-oriented long-term training and capacity building activities, platforms to share current best practices, Internet-based communication and PR activities are among the proposals to tackle the organisational weaknesses of the sector. In addition, the important roles of support organisations and the importance of working in a coordinated way with networks, donors and support organisations were also emphasised.

This dimension shows that **values** such as equal opportunities, labour standards and environmental standards are not recorded and shared through publicly available policy documents in these areas, leaving their practice open to misuse and abuse. This also points towards a general tradition of not keeping written policies and documents in CSOs, both internally and at the sectoral level. In addition, civil society is perceived to contain some negative forces and values which are present in Turkish society, such as violence, corruption and intolerance. Yet, the dominant impression is that these are only marginal groups that are disapproved of by most civil society actors. As such, this dimension received a relatively high score (46.9%) among the five core dimensions of the CSI.

As such, CSOs are advised to develop written policies and share them publicly to promote transparency, trust and possibly better participation from the public.

Findings show a limited **perceived impact** of civil society on unemployment, with higher levels of perceived impact on education and human rights. In terms of impact on attitudes, participation in civil society activities by CSO members has no impact on attitudes. As such,

civil society shows limited impact and receives the second lowest score of 39.2% among the dimensions of the CSI. Despite the perception of a limited impact in both social and political areas, civil society is perceived to be relatively more impactful in social areas. This might be due to the significantly higher levels of CSO activity in the social area. As discussed in detail in Section II of this report, foundations and associations work on social solidarity and social services, with a very limited number of organisations working on rights and related policies. This appears to be an ongoing trend over the years, with the previous CSI implementation revealing similar perceptions.

Efforts towards increasing participation and organisational capacities of CSOs will undoubtedly have direct effects on their perceived impact on social areas, policy making and attitudes. In order to improve the relatively lower political impact of CSOs, it is important for the recent increase in CSO activity in this area to continue. Developing relations with government will also be beneficial.

Civil society in Turkey is greatly affected by the **environment** within which it operates. The socio-political and socio-economic contexts which were examined through international indices and studies were found not to pose any serious limitations to the functions and development of civil society in Turkey. Yet, the socio-cultural context presents an obstacle to the development of civil society in Turkey because of low levels of social capital. This has been a constant since the last CSI study. Still, the environment dimension enjoys the highest score (57.5%) on the civil society diamond, signalling even more room for the development of civil society in the future.

In addition, the limited yet optimistic nature of private sector-civil society relations emerges as an area open to development. The presence of good practices and the growth of the Turkish private sector point towards developments in the near future. The EU process continues to be perceived positively despite the ups and downs. It was perceived to be especially positive in building legal frameworks, dialogue with the state, financial capacity and encouraging societal movements. Yet, there have been some drawbacks in government-civil society relations over the years, largely due to the failure to implement recent legal reforms. Thus, government-civil society relations, be it in terms of autonomy, dialogue or support, offer a more pessimistic portrait than the previous CSI Study.

In conclusion, the current CSI study (2011) continues to depict civil society in Turkey in an era of transition with more weaknesses than strengths. Although some of the opportunities that were pointed towards in the first study have been addressed, the acceleration of civil society's transition has lessened. The persistence of some of the sectors' major weaknesses is worrisome and points towards future obstacles.

# Appendices

Appendix 1: CSI Indicator Matrix

Appendix 2: CSI Turkey Methodology and Implementation

Appendix 3: Case Study Summaries

Appendix 4: Foundations and Associations in Turkey

Appendix 5: Socio-Economic and Socio-Political Context Indicator Tables

## Appendix 1: *CSI Indicator Matrix*

The CSI Indicator Matrix is a list of all the quantitative data that is collected and analysed through the project framework. It forms the skeleton of the analytical country report along 67 standard indicators, 27 sub-dimensions and 5 dimensions. Each data source has been rated and colour coded by the Advisory Committee according to its reliability. The light colour denotes completely reliable data sources while the slightly darker tone denotes somewhat reliable data sources in the view of the committee. No data source was found fully unreliable by the committee members. The standard CSI Indicator Matrix has been modified with additional indicators and sub-dimensions to better capture Turkey's special conditions. The matrix does not show the quantitative data for these additions because they do not take part in the formation of the civil society diamond. They are listed following the standard matrix.

	Question	Source	%
<b>1</b>	<b>CIVIC ENGAGEMENT</b>		<b>31.0</b>
<b>1.1</b>	<b>Extent of Socially-Based Engagement</b>		<b>6.2</b>
1.1.1	Social Membership 1	WVS 2007	4.5
1.1.2	Social Volunteering 1	WVS 1999	2.5
1.1.3	Community Engagement 1	WVS 1999	11.5
<b>1.2</b>	<b>Depth of Socially-Based Engagement</b>		<b>41.1</b>
1.2.1	Social Membership 2	WVS 2007	11.5
1.2.2	Social Volunteering 2	WVS 1999	30.0
1.2.3	Community Engagement 2	WVS 1999	81.9
<b>1.3</b>	<b>Diversity of Socially-Based Engagement</b>		<b>63.9</b>
1.3.1	Diversity of Socially-Based Engagement	WVS 2007	63.9

	Question	Source	%
<b>1.4</b>	<b>Extent of Political Engagement</b>		<b>7.0</b>
1.4.1	Political Membership 1	WVS 2007	5.3
1.4.2	Political Volunteering 1	WVS 1999	4.2
1.4.3	Individual Activism 1	WVS 2007	11.6
<b>1.5</b>	<b>Depth of Political Engagement</b>		<b>23.5</b>
1.5.1	Political Membership 2	WVS 2007	16.7
1.5.2	Political Volunteering 2	WVS 1999	21.6
1.5.3	Individual Activism 2	WVS 2007	32.1

	Question	Source	%
<b>1.6</b>	<b>Diversity of Political Engagement</b>		<b>44.4</b>
1.6.1	Diversity of Political Engagement	WVS 2007	44.4
	Percentage of members of organisations belonging to social groups such as women, indigenous people or people of a different ethnicity, older people, people from rural areas in social groups or activities		
<b>2</b>	<b>LEVEL OF ORGANISATION</b>		<b>54.6</b>
<b>2.1</b>	<b>Internal Governance</b>		<b>94.4</b>
2.1.1	Management	CSOS 2009	95.1
	Percentage of organisation that have a board of directors or a formal steering committee		
<b>2.2</b>	<b>Infrastructure</b>		<b>41.1</b>
2.2.1	Support Organisations	CSOS 2009	41.1
	Percentage of organisations that are formal members of any federation, umbrella group or support network		
<b>2.3</b>	<b>Sectoral Communication</b>		<b>79.2</b>
2.3.1	Peer-to-Peer Communication 1	CSOS 2009	82.9
	Percentage of organisations that have recently (within the past three months) held meetings with other organisations working on similar issues		
2.3.2	Peer-to-Peer Communication 2	CSOS 2009	75.4
	Percentage of organisations that have exchanged information (e.g. documents, reports, data) with another organization		
<b>2.4</b>	<b>Human Resources</b>		<b>8.0</b>
2.4.1	Sustainability of Human Resources	CSOS 2009	8.0
	Percentage of organisations with sustainable human resource base (i.e. volunteers compose less than 25% of the organisation's average staff base)		
<b>2.5</b>	<b>Financial and Technological Resources</b>		<b>85.3</b>
2.5.1	Financial Sustainability	CSOS 2009	78.2
	Percentage of organisations with a stable financial resource basis		
2.5.2	Technological Resources	CSOS 2009	92.3
	Percentage of organisations that have regular access to technologies such as computers, telephones, fax and email		

	Question	Source	%
<b>2.6</b>	<b>International Linkages</b>		<b>18.8</b>
2.6.1	International Linkages	Union of int'l Associations Database	18.8
	International non-governmental organisations (INGOs) present in the country as a ration to the total number of known INGOS		
<b>3</b>	<b>PRACTICE OF VALUES</b>		<b>49.1</b>
<b>3.1</b>	<b>Democratic Decision-Making Governance</b>		<b>94.4</b>
3.1.1	Decision-Making	CSOS 2009	94.4
	Percentage of organisations that practice democratic decision-making internally		
<b>3.2</b>	<b>Labour Regulations</b>		<b>34.9</b>
3.2.1	Equal Opportunities	CSOS 2009	23.7
	Percentage of organisations that have written policies in place regarding equal opportunity and/or equal pay for equal work for women		
3.2.2	Members of Labour Unions	CSOS 2009	15.5
	Percentage of paid staff within organisations that are members of labour unions		
3.2.3	Labour Rights Trainings	CSOS 2009	68.1
	Percentage of organisations that conduct specific training on labour rights for new staff members		
3.2.4	Publicly Available Policy for Labour Standards	CSOS 2009	32.4
	Percentage of organisations that have a publicly available policy for labour standards		
<b>3.3</b>	<b>Code of Conduct And Transparency</b>		<b>50.5</b>
3.3.1	Publicly Available Code of Conduct	CSOS 2009	30.3
	Percentage of organisations that have a publicly available code of conduct for its staff		
3.3.2	Transparency	CSOS 2009	70.6
	Percentage of organisations whose financial information is made publicly available		
<b>3.4</b>	<b>Environmental Standards</b>		<b>30.3</b>
3.4.1	Environmental Standards	CSOS 2009	30.3
	Percentage of organisations that have a publicly available policy for environmental standards		

	Question	Source	%
<b>3.5</b>	<b>Perception of Values in Civil Society as A Whole</b>		<b>35.6</b>
3.5.1	Perceived Non-Violence	CSOS 2009	16.5
3.5.2	Perceived Internal Democracy	CSOS 2009	40.7
3.5.3	Perceived Levels of Corruption	CSOS 2009	20.3
3.5.4	Perceived Intolerance	CSOS 2009	19.5
3.5.5	Perceived Weight of Intolerant Groups	CSOS 2009	60.9
3.5.6	Perceived Promotion on Non-Violence and Peace	CSOS 2009	55.8
<b>4</b>	<b>PERCEIVED IMPACT</b>		<b>39.2</b>
<b>4.1</b>	<b>Responsiveness (Internal Perception)</b>		<b>38.7</b>
4.1.1	Impact on Social Concern 1 - Unemployment	CSOS 2009	11.8
4.1.2	Impact on Social Concern 2 - Education	CSOS 2009	65.5
<b>4.2</b>	<b>Social Impact (Internal Perception)</b>		<b>51.3</b>
4.2.1	General Social Impact	CSOS 2009	36.6
4.2.3	Social Impact of Own Organisation	CSOS 2009	66.0
<b>4.3</b>	<b>Policy Impact (Internal Perception)</b>		<b>32.2</b>
4.3.1	General Policy Impact	CSOS 2009	27.1
4.3.2	Policy Activity of Own Organisation	CSOS 2009	50.4
4.3.3	Policy Impact of Own Organisation	CSOS 2009	19.0

	Question	Source	%
<b>4.4</b>	<b>Responsiveness (External Perception)</b>		<b>41.0</b>
4.4.1	Impact on Social Concern 1 - Unemployment	ESS 2009	5.6
4.4.2	Impact on Social Concern 2 - Education	ESS 2009	76.3
<b>4.5</b>	<b>Social Impact (External Perception)</b>		<b>44.8</b>
4.5.1	Social Impact Selected Concerns	ESS 2009	55.3
4.5.2	Social Impact General	ESS 2009	34.2
<b>4.6</b>	<b>Policy Impact (External Perception)</b>		<b>50.2</b>
4.6.1	Policy Impact Specific Fields	ESS 2009	63.6
4.6.2	Policy Impact General	ESS 2009	36.8
<b>4.7</b>	<b>Impact of Civil Society on Attitudes</b>		<b>16.4</b>
4.7.1	Difference in Trust between Civil Society Members and Non-Members	WVS 2007	0.0
4.7.2	Difference in Tolerance Levels between Civil Society Members and Non-Members	WVS 2007	14.7
4.7.3	Difference in Public Spiritedness between Civil Society Members and Non-Member	WVS 2007	0.0
4.7.4	Trust in Civil Society	WVS 2007	50.9

	Question	Source	%
<b>5</b>	<b>EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT</b>		<b>57.5</b>
<b>5.1</b>	<b>Socio-Economic Context</b>	<b>How favourable is the socio-economic context for the development of civil society (general health and education/ corruption/ inequality/ macro-economic context)</b>	<b>64.0</b>
5.1.1	Basic Capabilities Index	Comprised from the following three criteria covering health and basic educational provision: the percentage of children who reach fifth grade at school, the percentage of children who survive until at least their fifth year (based on mortality statistics), the percentage of births attended by health professionals	92.4
5.1.2	Corruption	Corruption through perception of corruption levels in the public sector	46.0
5.1.3	Inequality	Income inequality in countries where 0 signifies absolute equality and 100 signifies absolute inequality, inverted for CSI scoring purposes	56.4
5.1.4	Economic Context	The country's macro-level economic health measured through the ratio of the external debt to the GNI	61.2
<b>5.2</b>	<b>Socio-Political Context</b>	<b>How favourable is the socio-political context for the development of civil society (political rights and freedoms, rule of law, associational and organisational rights, legal framework, state effectiveness)</b>	<b>59.0</b>
5.2.1	Political Rights and Freedoms	The state of political rights and freedoms through election processes, political pluralism and participation	72.5

	Question	Source	%
5.2.2	Rule of Law and Personal Freedoms	Levels of civil liberties through freedoms of religion and expression, rule of law, personal freedoms and autonomy	62.5
5.2.3	Associational and Organisational Rights	The state of associational and organizational rights vital for civil society	58.3
5.2.4	Experience of Legal Framework	General attitude towards the country's regulations and laws for civil society Percentage of organizations that have faced an illegitimate restriction or attack by local or central government	47.0
5.2.5	State Effectiveness	State effectiveness in terms of public services, policy-making processes and perception of government attitude towards the rule of law	54.8
<b>5.3</b>	<b>Socio-Cultural Context</b>	<b>How favourable is the socio-cultural context for the development of civil society (levels of interpersonal trust, tolerance, public spiritedness)</b>	<b>49.4</b>
5.3.1	Trust		4.8
5.3.2	Tolerance		49.2
5.3.3	Public Spiritedness		94.2
5.2.4	Experience of Legal Framework	General attitude towards the country's regulations and laws for civil society Percentage of organizations that have faced an illegitimate restriction or attack by local or central government	47.0
5.2.5	State Effectiveness	State effectiveness in terms of public services, policy-making processes and perception of government attitude towards the rule of law	54.8



5.3	Socio-Cultural C
5.3.1	Trust
5.3.2	Tolerance
5.3.3	Public Spiritedness

### Additional Questions Specific to The Turkish Context

<b>1</b>	<b>CIVIC ENGAGEMENT</b>		
<b>2</b>	<b>LEVEL OF ORGANISATION</b>		
	Cooperation	Percentage of organisations that have cooperated (e.g. a joint declaration, meeting or project) with another organisation	CSOS 2009
	Perception of Paid Staff	Percentage of organisations that find their paid human resources sufficient	CSOS 2009
	Perception of Volunteers	Percentage of organisations that find their volunteer human resources sufficient	CSOS 2009
	International Communication	Percentage of organisations that have exchanged information (e.g. documents, reports, data) with another organization based outside of Turkey	CSOS 2009
	International Cooperation	Percentage of organisations that have cooperated (e.g. a joint declaration, meeting or project) with another organisation based outside of Turkey	CSOS 2009
	International Funding	Percentage of organisations that have received international funding	CSOS 2009
	International Membership	Percentage of organisations that are members of international organisations	CSOS 2009
<b>3</b>	<b>PRACTICE OF VALUES</b>		
	Decision-Making Methods	Percentage of organisations where decisions are taken democratically	CSOS 2009
<b>4</b>	<b>PERCEIVED IMPACT</b>		
	Impact on Social Concern 3 – Human Rights	Internal perception	CSOS 2009
	Impact on Social Concern 3 – Human Rights	External perception	ESS 2009

5	<b>EXTERNAL ENVIRONMENT</b>		
	Government – Civil Society Relations		
	Autonomy	To what extent can civil society exist and function independently of the state?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Dialogue	To what extent does the state enter into dialogue with civil society?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Support	How narrow/broad is the range of CSOs that receive state resources (in the form of grants, contracts, etc.)?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Private Sector – Civil Society Relations		
	Attitude	What is the general attitude of the private sector towards civil society actors?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	CSR Activities	How developed are notions and actions of corporate social responsibility?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Private Sector Support	How narrow/broad is the range of CSOs that receive support from the private sector?	CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Impact of The EU Process on CSOs	What has been the EU process' effect on CSOs on various issues?	
	Legal Frameworks		CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Dialogue with The State		CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Financial Capacity		CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Capacity to Promote Democratic Values		CSOS 2009 ESS 2009
	Capacity for Collective Action		CSOS 2009 ESS 2009

## Appendix 2: *CSI Turkey Methodology and Implementation*

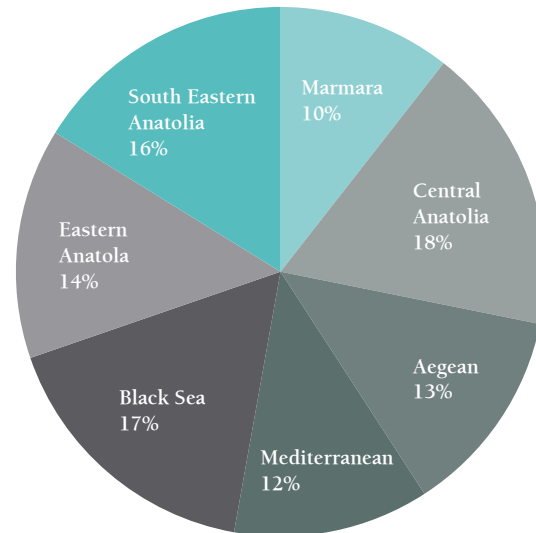
In early 2008, the CSI's methodology was revised in cooperation with the Centre for Social Investment, University of Heidelberg, based on the results of various evaluations and comments of stakeholders and experts. The methodology continues to use a combination of participatory and other research methods to create an assessment of the state of civil society at the national level. This assessment is then used to collectively set goals and create an agenda for strengthening civil society in the future.

### *Project Activities*

**Secondary Literature Review:** As a first step, a thorough review of the secondary data available for the CSI indicators was conducted. The review of existing information served to identify 'data gaps' and, on that basis, to determine the nature and extent of primary research that must be carried out. This review sought to cover as wide a range of different data sources as possible.

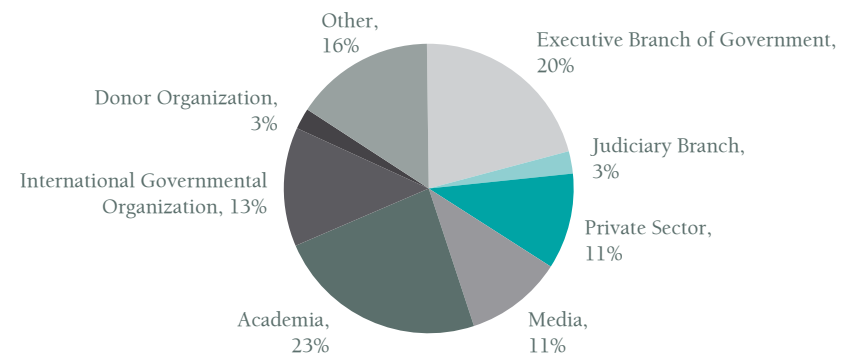
**Field Study:** Regional stakeholder consultations were carried out in seven regions. They were conducted in two steps. First, a select number of informed stakeholders each responded to a survey (covering a variety of issues related to the state of civil society). Next, they participated in a day-long stakeholder consultation, intended to scrutinise/validate individual responses, generate collective reflection, build consensus and clarify issues of disagreement. In Turkey, the field study was carried out with 150-200 civil society stakeholders from urban and rural locations in each geographical region. The consultation meetings took place in İstanbul, Ankara, Denizli, Adana, Trabzon, Van and Diyarbakir between January and May 2009.

Figure A2.1 Regional Distributions of CSOS Respondents



**External Stakeholder Survey:** External stakeholder consultations were carried out in the same seven regions. Involving around 50 government, private sector, media and academia representatives, the rationale was to capture ‘external’ opinions from important stakeholders, thus giving CSI a more objective perspective on the state of civil society in Turkey.

Figure A2.2 Sectoral Distributions of ESS Participants



**Population Survey:** The purpose of the population survey is to reach beyond organisations by obtaining information about individual participation and perception of civil society. The World Values Survey 2007 was substituted for the population survey in Turkey, as permitted by CSI methodology.

**Case Studies:** Case studies allowed in-depth and systematic analysis of issues and aspects that are significant for Turkish civil society. A total of five case studies were conducted by independent experts on selected issues. Please see Appendix 3 for more information.

**Civil Society Forum:** The Civil Society Forum was a comprehensive and participatory ‘strategic action planning exercise’ for civil society stakeholders in Turkey. Using CSI findings as a starting point, it provided an opportunity for dialogue and collective learning on the character, impact, environment and aspirations of civil society. Bringing together about 150 stakeholders, the Forum took place on 19 June 2009 at Kadir Has University in İstanbul.

**Advisory Committee:** The Committee consisted of a group of 15 individuals that represented diverse civil society types and other stakeholder groups such as government representatives, private sector, media, academia and others. Its primary role was to provide overall guidance in project implementation and to act as ambassadors for the CSI. Please see the inside cover for a list of Committee members for CSI Turkey.

## Appendix 3: Case Study Summaries

Case studies are an important part of the research activities carried out under CSI implementation. The case studies allow in-depth, systematic and qualitative analysis of issues and aspects that are significant for civil society in the country. As part of the CSI Turkey implementation, a total of five case studies were conducted by independent experts.

CSI Dimension	Case Study Topic	Author(s)
<b>Civic Engagement:</b> The extent to which individuals engage in social and policy-related initiatives	Identity politics' effects on participation in women's organisations in Turkey	Hande Paker, <i>Bahçeşehir University</i>
<b>Level of Organisation:</b> The degree of institutionalisation that characterises civil society	Effects of the EU Accession Process on CSO's level of organisation in Turkey	Rana Birden, <i>Arı Movement,</i> Zeynep Alemdar, <i>Okan University</i>
<b>Practice of Values:</b> The extent to which civil society practices some core values	Status of Accountability in Civil Society in Turkey	Zeynep Meydanoglu, <i>TÜSEV</i> Bilal Zivali, <i>TÜSEV</i>
<b>Perceived Impact:</b> The extent to which civil society is able to impact on the social and policy arena, according to internal and external perceptions	Impact of CSOs on Education Policy Areas	Esin Aksay, <i>Education Volunteers of Turkey (TEGV)</i>
<b>External Environment:</b> The conditions (i.e. socio-economic, political and cultural variables) within which civil society operates	Private Sector–Civil Society Relations through a CSR lens	Peren Özturan, <i>Koç University</i>

## Civic Engagement Case Study

**Topic:** Identity Politics' Effects on Participation in Women's Organisations in Turkey

**Methodology and Resources:** Five interviews with women's CSOs, literature review

**Summary of Findings:** The case study examines the effects of identity politics on women's participation in women's rights organisations (WROs) in Turkey.

The research first provides a general discussion of identity politics. The author points out that with the spread of globalisation and recent democratisation efforts of the 1990s, identity politics acquired a newfound importance. As globalisation gained strength and individuals started to create means of communication with groups or individuals outside their immediate environment, new forms of identities started to emerge. The author points out that although globalisation strengthened nationalism in a way, it also produced identities beyond nationalism to which people started to relate or find comfort.

The study then examines the status of identity politics in Turkish society and concludes that due mainly to historical reasons it is very much a significant part of the socio-political spectrum. The author states that because of the strict, top-down modernisation efforts of the Republic's founding elites who used Turkishness and secularism as the defining points of the new society, individuals who didn't fit the mould that elites had in mind felt isolated and started to utilise identity politics to acquire what they wanted.

In the early 1990s, citizens started to organise around identities other than the one provided by the nation-state. Among these were Kurdish, Islamic and feminist groups. Feminists were among the first to challenge the status quo starting in the early 1980s, and by 1990s the movement became institutionalised and well organised into a legitimate force in Turkish society.

However, although identity politics facilitated women to unite around various causes, it also produced obstacles in the way of participation in the movement. The author, after an in-depth analysis of several ideologically and ethnically different WROs, concludes that women have found different identities within the feminist movement to rally around, and at times these differing identities had conflicting missions.

Therefore, this polarisation within the feminist movement inhibits some women from being active in WROs. In other words, although identity politics fuelled the growth of the feminist movement, introduction of other micro-identities caused women to be less involved in the movement as a whole.

## Level of Organisation Case Study

**Topic:** Effects of the EU Accession Process on CSOs' level of organisation in Turkey

**Methodology and Resources:** Five interviews with CSOs, literature review

**Summary of Findings:** The purpose of the article is to examine how Turkey's European Union (EU) candidacy affected CSOs on an organisational level and changed the way they operate both internally and externally. Additionally, the authors analyse whether the EU has had any substantial influence on Turkish CSOs in terms of organisational democratisation. Firstly, the report looks at CSOs and their level of involvement in the decision-making process in the EU accession, especially in the area of government reforms, and how this involvement is viewed by the government and other stakeholders. Secondly, the authors discuss the ways in which the EU accession affected the organisational makeup and operations of CSOs in Turkey. The study determines its findings by examining three separate issues: (1) the institutional specialities required of the CSOs when applying or utilising EU grants; (2) the ways in which CSOs meet these requirements; (3) the national or international ties or partnerships CSOs form to improve their capacity and operations. The study also discusses the effects of this working partnership between the EU and CSOs on the spread of democratic norms within civil society and how these norms are understood and internalised by CSOs.

The study stresses that within the last decade CSOs grew both in numbers and size. They have become important agents of development due in large part to government reforms during the EU accession process (in which amendments to the 1982 constitution helped to create a more CSO friendly environment). However, although CSOs gained strength in numbers, the authors conclude that they still lack sufficient influence in the decision-making process and CSO's role in the EU accession is not yet well defined or clearly understood. Additionally, bureaucrats are still unenthusiastic about allowing CSOs to join the EU debate in a substantial manner.

Also, the authors point out that many CSOs strive for EU partnership solely due to the grants provided. Because of this, they do not form sustainable, long-term partnerships that could create potential opportunities for CSOs to assert their influence in the reform process. One of the reasons for these short lived relationships, the study points out, is the fact that most EU grants are project-based. After the conclusion of the project, communication between the funding authority and the recipient CSO ceases. Additionally, CSOs have been restricted to operate in areas which the EU deems as important or fund-worthy; many CSOs have designed projects or programmes solely to meet the requirements of EU grants.

However, the authors recognise an important development emanating from this process: because of the availability of EU funds, CSOs have become more familiar with preparing project documents. On an organisational level, they have become better at keeping records and even looking for funding in different sources. However the study stresses that many CSOs find the EU grant process to be too bureaucratic and cumbersome, and given the opportunity they would rather look for funding elsewhere. The study also reports that as EU funds increased, other international organisations decreased their grants. Additionally, CSOs formed partnerships with other international organisations mainly because it was required by the EU in order to be eligible for a grant. The authors stress that although CSOs benefit from these international ties, usually they too are short-term and end with the completion of the project or programme.

In terms of organisational democratisation and capacity building, the study concludes that the EU has not had any substantial affect on CSOs. Although the EU grant process offered a good learning experience for CSOs to develop projects and draft related documents, CSOs failed to acquire other norms or practices from the EU. The authors argue that many of the CSOs in Turkey still have a very hierarchical structure in which most of the decisions are made at the top by one or two individuals in an undemocratic fashion. The study concludes that, even though the EU has been an important source of funding, it has not been an effective agent of change for CSOs in terms of organisational development and democratisation.

## *Practice of Values Case Study*

**Topic:** Status of Accountability in Civil Society in Turkey

**Methodology and Resources:** Six interviews with CSOs, literature review

**Summary of Findings:** The case study seeks to examine the extent to which CSOs in Turkey practice the core value of ‘accountability’ and examines this through its four major dimensions: inclusiveness, transparency, evaluation processes, and complaint mechanisms. A literature review of selected areas was combined with assessments by stakeholders and key informants. A total of six key informants, each representing a different CSO working at the national level, were consulted.

The case study shows that most of the CSOs are transparent and have moved onto dealing with aspects of inclusiveness. Those that are not transparent at least identify transparency as an important organisational issue and want to improve this side of their management. Furthermore, there exists a superficial understanding of evaluation, and this is a sector-wide problem; CSOs only evaluate their projects and fail to do an overall evaluation of their organisational values, goals, mission, etc. Also the existence and quality of complaint mechanisms can be linked to

the level of an organisation’s inclusiveness. Only one of the organisations makes noteworthy attempts to include as many stakeholders as they can in their decision-making processes, and this particular organisation sees the value added in implementing a formal complaint mechanism because it brings them closer to their stakeholders through addressing their concerns and complaints. However, the majority of the organisations rely on very informal means such as being accessible by phone, fax, or email. In short, Turkish CSOs are still going through a transition phase in which they are attempting to identify, connect with and establish closer ties to their stakeholders. The civil society sector in Turkey is still in its infant stages, and the study asserts that there are signs of positive developments towards internalising and practicing the core aspects of accountability.

Moving forward (before attempting to address the issue of accountability), the study suggests CSOs have to identify their stakeholders to see to whom they are accountable. After this formal identification process, a needs assessment would be appropriate to measure the extent to which their programs or projects address the needs of their target population – in other words, their beneficiaries. This will indirectly improve the level of inclusiveness, assuming that the information obtained from the needs assessment is used in project design. Furthermore, a communication strategy better linking organisations to their stakeholders and beneficiaries can be developed. A staff member should be allocated solely for this task and a portion of the budget should be designated to this end. This will not only link organisations to their stakeholders but also to the public, and raise the profile of the CSO. Included in this communication strategy should be a formal mechanism in which complaints are collected and evaluated in a systematic manner. On a different note, CSOs can make additional efforts to share their financial information and other related documents on their websites; this will improve their image in the eyes of their external stakeholders, thus raising their legitimacy. Moreover, government and donors can encourage greater levels of accountability, especially donors through their grant procedures.

## *Perceived Impact Case Study*

**Topic:** Impact of CSOs on Education Policy Areas

**Methodology and Resources:** Five interviews with CSOs, literature review

**Summary of Findings:** The case study argues that education and CSOs have become inseparable and integrated; not only do the two fields have mutual actors operating in them but the two are also recognised as important catalysts of social change. Therefore, analysis of interaction of the two fields becomes important as Turkey faces many challenges and opportunities with regards to social change.

The case study examines the role of CSOs in the education sector of Turkey in the post-1990 framework and discusses some important characteristics and examples from the field. It begins by analysing the educational outlook in Turkey along with the recent reform attempts in the education sector. The author argues that the current situation in education reflects the necessity to focus not just on the need for education but also on defining and critically discussing the nature of the education that is being provided. During the period of reform and social change, CSOs slowly became crucial actors and stakeholders in many different social issues (education being one of them). The author points to recent studies and concludes that quality and equality are among the top concerns of the education agenda in Turkey. Therefore, services provided by CSOs are critical for discussing ‘alternatives’, sustaining participation and demand, and working for a better education environment and opportunities.

The study argues that CSOs have been successful in reaching out to children and young people in various parts of Turkey. Their education programmes target early childhood education, elementary schooling, young people, etc., and these programmes have been sensitive to the contemporary education agenda of Turkey. CSOs have also been active in forming coalitions with the public sector, institutions of higher education, and with other CSOs to implement their projects, propose new ones, undertake research in the field, influence policy-making and raise social awareness and responsibility among the populace. The study points out that some CSOs have unique educational models and have become commendable institutions in their area of specialisation; they have amassed skilled human capital and have successfully developed their organisational capacity to meet the challenges posed by the sector. As significant is the fact that CSOs are also important in promoting values of participation, volunteerism, and corporate social responsibility. They do this by carrying out campaigns and public relations in various ways (e.g. conferences, media relations) in addition to implementing their regular education programmes and training projects. The study concludes with a simple but an important message that CSOs are and will continue to be a significant stakeholder in the development of the education sector in Turkey since they continue to bring new sets of possibilities and alternatives to the area of education.

## External Environment Case Study

**Topic:** Private Sector – Civil Society relations through a CSR lens

**Methodology and Resources:** Five interviews with CSOs, five interviews with companies, literature review

**Summary of Findings:** This case study aims to show how firms establish different structures and pursue different processes in partnering with CSOs to conduct their CSR activities.

Hence, the report reflects corporate and CSO perspectives on CSR and communicates good CSR practices.

The study is based primarily on interviews with managers of five firms and five CSOs, and secondarily on information provided by organisational websites. Firms (namely Eczacıbaşı Group, Isbank, Koç Group, Milliyet and Turkcell) were chosen from ‘Turkey’s Social Responsibility Leaders’ study, which is conducted annually by Capital (a Turkish business magazine) and represents the opinions of Turkish citizens (Bayıksel, 2009). CSOs (namely, Mother Child Education Foundation (ACEV), The Turkish Foundation for Combating Soil Erosion for Reforestation and the Protection of Natural Habitats (TEMA), Private Sector Volunteers Association (OSGD), International Investors Association (YASED) and Sabanci Foundation) are five leading civic organisations that have close relations with corporate Turkey.

It was seen that all these organisations, under the scope of the study, abide by the law and general ethical principles. They live up to international human rights and environmental standards in their business practices. The expectations of both internal and external stakeholders are taken into account and CSR is integrated into corporate strategy. With high level management initiative and motivation, corporate resources are allocated to CSR practices which in turn are put into action both at the employee and societal level. A multiplier effect is highly sought after to communicate the good practices so that CSR becomes widespread and effective throughout the business world. This can also be understood from the fact that most managers contacted for the study work under the corporate communication departments of their organisations. The interviews also suggested that measurement and reporting of CSR practices have become systematised over time and that exemplary CSOs and firms publish their financial statements and annual reports on their websites. Signing the UN Global Compact<sup>37</sup> and providing the required communications on progress are becoming widely adopted practices. Moreover, partnerships with local and international organisations are being developed. All these indicators show that the organisations discussed within this case study seem to take CSR “seriously” (Argüden, 2007). As best practices are adopted by the business and CSO community as a whole, the base of donors will be broadened and thus the flow of resources to CSOs will increase (Bikmen).

The development through time and the cross-cultural differences in CSR initiatives indicate that there are unique factors that influence each country’s corporate-led social activities. The CSR activities of the Turkish business sector have been shaped by its roots in Ottoman *waqf* (foundation) tradition and its encounter with Western best practices through the liberalisation

<sup>37</sup> Please see [www.unglobalcompact.org](http://www.unglobalcompact.org) for more information.

process of the Turkish economy. In the study, CSR and its positive influence on society and environment are discussed by providing CSO and corporate perspectives on partnerships in exemplary CSR projects. Within the same environment, CSR activities diversify with respect to the processes followed and structures formed; their scales vary as well. But all aim to contribute to sustainable development.

This analysis was designed to put forward the current standing of the selected organisations' CSR practices without aiming to make a comparison between them. In addition, the best practices mentioned in the report offer a couple examples selected within the limitations of a case study; hence the report does not attempt to offer a comprehensive picture and further studies would be required. However, these examples show that there are firms and CSOs in Turkey which integrate CSR initiatives into their daily operations and fulfil CSR's notion in line with globally accepted principles. As best practices are communicated at different platforms, they will inspire and act as role models for further business and civil sector partnerships, which will be beneficial for both parties.

## Appendix 4: Foundations and Associations in Turkey

### Associations' Focus Areas

Field	Number of Associations	%
Social Service Activities to Enhance Religious Service	14,898	18.13
Activities of Sporting Clubs	14,341	17.46
Social Solidarity Associations	13,703	16.68
Development and Housing Associations	9,452	11.50
Professional Associations	8,097	9.86
Services to Improve and Support Social Life	5,371	6.54
Friendship Associations	4,114	5.01
Culture and Resort Activities	3,150	3.83
Health	1,870	2.28
Construction Associations	1,471	1.79
Environment	1,347	1.64
Social	876	1.07
Civil Rights and Advocacy	780	0.95
Social Services of Youth Units	588	0.72
Turkish Aeronautical Association	498	0.61
Philanthropy and Volunteering	480	0.58
Kemalist Thought Associations	470	0.57
Other	317	0.39
Student Associations	258	0.31
<b>Total</b>	<b>82,157<sup>38</sup></b>	<b>100</b>

(DoA, 2009)

<sup>38</sup> The number of associations active in Turkey in 2008 is 86,031, yet not all have declared their work areas.



## Foundations' Focus Areas

Field	Number of Foundations	%
Social Solidarity	2551	56.10
Education	2160	47.50
Health	993	21.84
Culture	968	21.29
Religion – Religious Education	754	16.58
Regional Development	378	8.31
Arts	369	8.12
Sports	352	7.74
Social Service	302	6.64
Economic	256	5.63
Science - Technology	209	4.60
Social and Historic Cultural	197	4.33
Environment	192	4.22
Personnel Support for a Certain Group (such as university, hospital...)	162	3.56
Tourism	96	2.11
Democracy–Law–Human Rights	58	1.28
People with Disabilities	47	1.03
Agriculture and Livestock	43	0.95
Child Oriented	38	0.84
Family Oriented	26	0.57
Atatürk's Principles and Reforms	25	0.55
Press-Journalism	23	0.51
Woman Oriented	14	0.31
Maritime	12	0.26
Support for a Certain Organization (such as university, hospital...)	11	0.24
Architecture-Engineering	10	0.22
Traffic	9	0.20
Martyrs and Veterans	8	0.18

Field	Number of Foundations	%
Librarianship	6	0.13
Hunting	4	0.09
Mining	3	0.07
Sonsumer Protection	3	0.07

(GDF, 2009)

## Types of Activities of Foundations and Associations

	%
Social Activities	66.1
Dinner Party for Members	63.1
Meetings with Renowned People	50.1
Meetings with Local Newspapers	41.6
Evening Meals during Ramadan	41.6
Meetings with Parliament Members	39.3
Panel, Conference, Symposium Events	38.3
Meetings with Local TV Channels	33.7
In Kind Donations	32.9
Picnics	31.8
Press Conferences	30.0
Sending Activity Reports to Public Authorities	27.2
In Cash Donations	26.2
Scholarships for Education	25.1
Meetings with National TV Channels and Newspapers	24.8
Sports Activities	24.8
Commemorations	24.6
Activities Related with Nature	24.0
Events Related with Arts	18.9
Scientific Publications	17.7
Scientific Research	15.5
Charity Sales	13.3

	%
Petition Drives	12.3
Diverse Campaigns	12.3
Contests	12.1
Concerts	11.4
Associations for Constructing Schools, Mosques, Parks	10.1
Demonstrations and Marches	9.2
Other Street Events	6.7

(YADA, 2010)

## Appendix 5: *Socio-Economic and Socio-Political Context Indicator Tables*

### *Socio-Economic Context Indicators*

Source	Criteria	Turkey's condition
<b>Social Watch Basic Capabilities Index (BCI) 2008</b>	The Index is comprised from the following three criteria covering health and basic educational provision: the percentage of children who reach fifth grade at school, the percentage of children who survive until at least their fifth year (based on mortality statistics), and the percentage of births attended by health professionals.	Turkey is placed among countries where the basic needs of a large majority (98%) of the society are met.
<b>Transparency International Corruption Perception Index 2008</b>	The index measures corruption through perception of corruption levels in the public sector.	Turkey ranks 61st among 180 countries and exhibits similar levels of perceived corruption to Cuba and significantly higher levels than Western European countries.
<b>World Bank Gini Coefficient 2008</b>	The index measures income inequality in countries where 0 signifies absolute equality and 100 signifies absolute inequality.	Turkey ranks 83rd among 127 countries and exhibits an average level of income inequality.
<b>World Bank Development Indicators 2007</b>	The country's macro-level economic health is measured through the ratio of the external debt to the GNI.	The ratio of Turkey's external debt to its GNI is 35.3% and a constant decrease since 2001 (with the exception of 2006-2007)

## Socio-Political Context Indicators

Source	Criteria	Turkey's condition
Freedom House Index of Political Rights 2008	<b>Political Rights and Freedoms</b> The index measures the state of political rights and freedoms through election processes, political pluralism and participation.	Turkey is classified as “partly free.” While it received a high evaluation for election processes, it received much lower scores for political pluralism and participation. Political party closures, continuing effects of the military on political life and the 10% election barrier <sup>39</sup> were the main reasons behind this score.
Freedom House Index of Civil Liberties 2008	<b>Rule of Law and Civil Liberties</b> The index provides a comparative evaluation of levels of civil liberties through freedoms of religion and expression, rule of law, personal freedoms and autonomy.	Turkey is classified as “partly free,” ranking under the rule of law criteria. Political influences over the judiciary, gender discrimination, violence against women and limitations on minority rights were the main reasons behind this performance.
Freedom House Index of Civil Liberties 2008	<b>Associational and Organisational Rights</b> Placed under Freedom House's Index of Civil Liberties, this indicator examines the state of associational and organisational rights which are vital for civil society.	Turkey received a moderate score under this indicator, mainly due to police intervention in CSO activities and demonstrations, limitations on trade unions and anti-government groups.
World Bank Governance Dataset 2007	<b>State Effectiveness</b> The dataset evaluated state effectiveness in terms of public services, policy-making processes and perception of government attitude towards the rule of law.	Turkey scored better than 63% of the countries that were ranked in the dataset, showing significant and constant improvement since the 1990s.

<sup>39</sup> The 10% election barrier refers to an act of the Election Law which requires at least 10% of the total votes for a political party to enter the parliament. Although similar barriers exist in other countries to ensure stability, this percentage is quite high and presents an obstacle to minority groups representation and diversity.

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