

KNOWLEDGE-SHARING PRACTICES AMONG
TURKISH PEACEKEEPING OFFICERS

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The Turkish National Police (TNP) peacekeeping officers experience poor knowledge-sharing practices before, during, and after their tours of duty at the United Nations (UN) field missions, thus causing knowledge loss. The study aims to reveal the current knowledge-sharing practices of the TNP peacekeeping officers and proposes a knowledge-sharing system to share knowledge effectively. It also examines how applicable the knowledge management models are for their knowledge-sharing practices. In order to gain a better understanding about the knowledge-sharing practices of TNP officers, the researcher used a qualitative research method in this study. Semi-structured interviews were used in data collection. The participants were selected based on the non-probability and purposive sampling method. Content analysis and constant comparison was performed in the data analysis process. The most important knowledge sources of the peacekeeping officers are their colleagues, the Internet, and email groups. The peacekeepers recommend writing reports, organizing training programs, conducting exit interviews, adopting best practices, and creating a knowledge depository. The study uncovers that organizational culture, hierarchy, and physical proximity are significant factors that have a vital impact on knowledge sharing. Knowledge conversion model is substantially applicable for the knowledge-sharing practices of the TNP peacekeeping officer.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This study first aims to identify the current knowledge management practices in the Turkish National Police (TNP). Then, it purposes to build a new knowledge management system (KMS). The qualitative research method enables the researcher to understand hidden and tacit aspects of TNP officers' perspectives about knowledge sharing practices. This study also explores how the knowledge management models are applicable for TNP officers' knowledge sharing practices when they work on United Nation (UN) missions. This study's two strongest aspects are its exploratory purpose and potential to improve a new knowledge management system. Researchers generally aim to explore, explain, describe, and predict phenomenon with their studies (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). The used method can be applied for identifying any organization's KMS, and it can improve them because it offers a general tool to reveal the current KMS. Researchers can apply this study's method to generate a new KMS. Likewise, governmental and public organizations can use the offered KMS to effectively share knowledge.

Statement of the Problem

Problem statements are usually very general expressions in qualitative research (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). A qualitative research does not have a precisely limited problem statement. A briefly reaffirmed general focus of the research, a precisely expressed problem statement, and a well-defined area for exploration are components

of a qualitative problem statement, which are developed from the literature review (Marshall and Rossman, 1989).

The UN, as an international organization that aims to establish permanent peace around the world, recruits from various countries to accomplish its goals. The number of the TNP officers who have been deployed in UN missions is more than 1,500 since 1996. Working for the UN is different from being an officer in the TNP in various ways. The UN's atmosphere is a multinational environment with several differences in rules and procedures. Unsurprisingly, the orientation process takes a long time; therefore, TNP officers try to learn about the UN system and their new task in the field, mostly by themselves. The length of their orientation period limits the effectiveness of their varied missions during their tour of duty, which is limited to one year.

The TNP officers suffer from lack of knowledge before going on UN missions. They need to know about the UN working environment, rules and regulations, organizational and local culture, living conditions, the issues related to safety, health, and transportation (Celik, 2010). They are neither totally aware nor informed of many of the problems inherent to their new positions and environment. Ambiguity is rampant regarding formal and official issues such as job definition, responsibilities, and rights as well as about informal and unofficial topics such as local culture, people's characteristics, and many others. By being uninformed, the officers may make mistakes and cause critical damage. When TNP officers talk to each other, they acknowledge the similarity of their problems, and that the problems are related to the UN's terminology, to the challenges of living in a new country, and about their integration into a culturally diversified new organization.

The officers think how to solve their knowledge needs problems by benefiting from their personal experience, and take action to search knowledge by skimming and scanning resources as well as asking other experienced colleagues (Kuhlthau, 2004). They feel vagueness and ambiguity that prevents them from being confident in their jobs. In other words, the lack of knowledge causes uncertainty among TNP police officers when they start their missions. The lack of knowledge and poor knowledge sharing practices are experienced by many police forces. Bundred (2006) emphasizes the negative effects of knowledge sharing problems in police forces in England by focusing on three following reasons: cultural differences, organizational culture, and lack of trust. Likewise, Holgersson, Gottschalk, and Dean (2008) study knowledge sharing problems between high-ranking and low-ranking police officers in Sweden and concluded that poor knowledge sharing practices cause a decrease in the police officers' performance. In a similar way, Luen and Al-Hawamdeh (2001) conducted research in Singapore Police Forces and concluded that public sources cannot be used profitably because of ineffective knowledge sharing practices. They claim that customers of the public sector have been increasingly demanding of better-quality services, thus forcing the knowledge-intensive organizations to put into practice an effective knowledge management. According to Gultekin (2009), solidarity and isolation are two main features of organizational culture in the Turkish National Police (TNP), which adversely affects knowledge-sharing practices; thus, the TNP has knowledge sharing problems because of its organizational culture.

According to Celik (2010), after returning from the missions, the TNP officers experience reintegration problems due to work place violence, less commitment to the

organization, and lack of the job satisfaction. Celik (2010) also asserts that the TNP suffers from the lack of mechanisms for recognizing, planning, and organizing police officers' experience for UN missions; thereby, the officers cannot share their knowledge after returning to the home country by emphasizing a need of institutional memory. The problems adversely affect the officers' performances' and contributions to peacekeeping missions. Correspondingly, the UN peacekeeping personnel have experienced difficulties with cultural differences, organizational rules and regulations, professionalism, and many other fields (Chappell & John, 1999; Hansen, 2002). Finally, the TNP should deal with the problems of police officers by building a system that helps the officer to reintegrate the organization.

Purpose of the Study

The main goal of this exploratory study is to uncover the current knowledge sharing practices, experienced by the TNP officers who have worked on UN missions, by explaining formal and informal knowledge sharing processes and effects of the organizational structure and culture on knowledge sharing. The study reveals how the TNP officers are satisfied with the current system as well as their recommendations to make a better system to share knowledge effectively. This study also aims to reveal how applicable the knowledge management models are in sharing knowledge for the TNP officers and to understand the extent to which TNP officers use knowledge sharing processes when they work on UN missions. Then, a model will be offered to effectively share knowledge. The new model may be extended to other departments of the TNP.

Research Questions

The questions for a research generally come from real-life problems, issues, or conflicts (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). The researcher will use the knowledge sharing models to gain a better understanding about knowledge sharing practices of TNP officers. The questions this study intends to pursue are follows:

1. What are the current knowledge management practices within the TNP?
2. What kinds of mechanisms and tools would the peacekeepers use to share their knowledge effectively? What would be an ideal knowledge-sharing model for TNP officers?
3. To what extent are knowledge-sharing models applicable for the TNP officers' knowledge sharing practices?

Methods

This study's goal is to reveal the existing knowledge management practice in the TNP, to examine how knowledge management models can be applicable for the TNP, and to offer a knowledge-sharing model for the TNP. The researcher conducts a qualitative research to understand phenomena embedded in the TNP officers' personal experiences. This is a descriptive and explanatory study that aims to better grasp knowledge management practices of the TNP officers and uncover the reasons why the officers prefer these practices. It is also a case study about TNP officers who have worked as the UN peacekeeping staff in various missions around the world. This case study makes use of semi-structured interviews in order to yield a wide range of types of data. It also uses the purposive sampling method selected on the basis of convenience

to people who are members of the TNP. The population of the study is 1,200 police officers. The number of the interviewees is about 20 at the beginning of the study. The researcher follows a flexible method based on theoretical saturation. The content analysis and constant comparison are used to analyze data.

Importance of the Study

Knowledge has become a key resource after the transition from industrial society to knowledge society (Drucker, 1992). Along with the knowledge-based society, organizations have noticed that their knowledge sharing strategies, which are the vital part of knowledge management systems, have a vital importance to their success. The study reveals to what extent Turkish police officers share knowledge in the UN missions. The knowledge sharing process among officers will be investigated in three stages: before going to the mission, during the mission, and after the mission. The study contributes to the literature, practitioners, and policy makers by focusing on knowledge sharing practices. In this exploratory study, the researcher uses qualitative research method and conducts interviews to reveal the current knowledge sharing practices. This methodology can be applied to similar organizations. In addition, there are many TNP officers not only in the UN missions, but also in the other international organizations such as the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), European Union Police Missions (EUPM), and European Union Rule of Law Mission (EULEX). The TNP officers also work for Turkish Foreign Ministry in more than 100 countries. Building a new model can help the TNP officers and policy makers in sharing knowledge effectively in all these organizations.

This study defines and offers a baseline of TNP officers' knowledge management practices. The study is worth doing because it builds knowledge about the TNP's knowledge sharing practices, which have not been uncovered in detail by other researchers. The model is developed to reveal knowledge-sharing practices in this study, which can be generalized by using a transferable guide not just for all units of the TNP, but also for similar organizations such as army, police forces, and many others. This model would provide a huge benefit to the TNP and similar organizations.

The TNP does not know what the Turkish peacekeepers know, or how their knowledge could be utilized. In other words, the organization does not consider what knowledge is being lost. Inherently, the TNP does not notice the consequences of losing each item of knowledge. After returning from the missions, the TNP officers' knowledge stays in their mind, and unfortunately it does not turn into institutional intellectual capital. If experienced officers' intellectual capital is identified and retained, the new TNP officers would not need to experience the same difficulties when they go to the mission. The TNP could take advantage of having globally experienced officers to deal with many problems. As a result, the TNP should generate a knowledge retention program to conserve its intellectual capital against knowledge loss. The pressing need for the TNP is to have a knowledge management system, which has to involve a knowledge retention program.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

A careful review of related literature helps researchers demonstrate evidence for the significance of the study and make contributions to knowledge as well as to improve a conceptual framework (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). Having several bodies of related literature is common for a qualitative research (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). This chapter will provide an overview of existing literature that focuses on key concepts and findings in knowledge sharing, knowledge conversion processes, knowledge loss and retention, and knowledge management practices in organizational environments by identifying some gaps in the previous research and indicating specific unexplored areas.

Data, Information, and Knowledge

Defining data, information, and knowledge and grasping differences between these terms can be helpful to understand the concept of knowledge management. Describing these terms has caused many discussions since the classical Greek era; hence, researchers do not have an agreement about the terms of knowledge and knowledge management (Alavi & Leidner, 2001; Bhatt, 2002). The first essential term is data. According to Taylor (1986), data are basic symbols that stand for an entity at a certain time and in a definite situation. Data are virtually stored records (Buckland, 1991). Similarly, data are defined as basic symbols series, such as digits or letters (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002).

Information is the second key term that is created by designating structures. It also has relations between data according to certain rules (Taylor, 1986). While data is

the essential byproduct, information is a message that informs receiver. However, knowledge has more wide-ranging structure, which is derived from process by using data and information (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Nonaka and Takeuchi (1995) recognize information as a flow of messages that produces knowledge by attaching them to attitudes. They also emphasize that knowledge and information are two similar terms used as synonyms. Information is data that is in relevant situations with the recipient (Wilson, 2002). Information is accepted as evaluated, confirmed or valued data (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002). Information pertains to explanation, classification, or perception and asks the questions of what, who, when, and where. However, knowledge includes policy, practice, process, and approach, and asks the question of how.

Saracevic (1999) asserts that information can be defined in various senses. Information is simply described as some messages or signals. In a broader sense, information can be defined as a transaction process between a mind and a text. In the broadest sense, information comprises not only signals and mental processes, but also includes the situation in which information is processed. According to Saracevic (1999), information should be defined in the broadest sense by considering the context. Dervin (1999) defines information as natural and tangible objects that are “potentially movable from time to time, place to place, and person to person” (p.325). Many things can be called information such as “data, knowledge, or fact, song, story, or metaphor” (Dervin, 1999, p.326). According to Dervin (1999), information is defined as an “ordered reality” (p.327). However, people’s perceptions about information have changed over the time. A transformation has implemented depending on technology, time, space, culture,

power and individual. At the last stage, information is perceived as a “chaotic reality” that is needed to organize (Dervin, 1999, p.326).

According to Buckland (1991), information has different meanings that can be categorized as “information-as-process,” “information-as-knowledge,” and “information-as-thing” (p.351). The course of action of informing can be described as information’s process part. Information helps people to be knowledgeable and reduces the uncertainty, which is described “information-as-knowledge” and it cannot be measured nor be touched (Buckland, 1991, p.351). When information is perceived as thing, it means that information consists of data and documents. In this classification, features of information are tangible or intangible. Information-as-thing focuses on physical things that can be touched or measured such as data and document; however, there are other sources that are not concrete and measurable. Information-as-thing is the main subject of information systems. Information changes people’s perspectives, knowledge, and ideas. People read, listen, see, and experience; thus, people become informed, and their attitudes change (Buckland, 1991).

Another critical term is knowledge. Knowledge is defined as “a dynamic human process of justifying personal belief toward the truth” (Nonaka & Takuchi, 1995, p.58). Davenport and Prusak (1998) define knowledge as an accomplished approach that generates new practices and information. Also, data can be defined as raw numbers and facts; processed data is described as information, and authenticated information is called knowledge (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). In other words, knowledge can be viewed as a state of mind, an object, a process, a condition or a capability (Alavi & Leidner, 2001). Knowledge is more related to principles, faiths, and actions while information is

essential to knowledge (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002). Knowledge refers to more confidence, strength and assurance when compared with information. While information can be seen as records of any pieces of knowledge, knowledge is more dynamic (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002). In a similar way, knowledge can be defined as personalized information that is in human beings' minds (Wilson, 2002). Thus, knowledge is more difficult than information to acquire and share. It also includes a practical perspective.

People can be informed by many sources: data, texts, documents, objects, and events. Data are virtually stored records. Texts are some materials like books, manuscripts, letters and many others. Documents are some materials that convey information similar to texts. Objects are storage areas of information. Objects can also have a value, if they are informative (Buckland, 1991). Buckland (1991) emphasizes that an object can be a document only if it is used for informational reasons. Likewise, events should be informative in order to be evaluated as a source of information. All information sources, such as data, texts, documents, objects or events can be informative in circumstances depending on the type of search and the skills of the searcher. In other words, being informative is a situational phenomenon for information sources. Information reveals important evidence (Buckland, 1991). There is a hierarchical relationship between data, information, and knowledge, which is called "knowledge hierarchy" that classifies for three themes "rare, advanced, and refined" (O'Connor, 1996, p.7). Data, information, and knowledge respectively refers to "know-nothing," "know-what," and "know-how" (Zeleny, 1987).

Knowledge Types and Explicit and Tacit Knowledge

As widely accepted, in organizational environments people encounter two kinds of knowledge that are differently called by different disciplines (Gourlay, 2006). These different names based on the disciplines are summarized in Table 1. In knowledge management, these two different knowledge are called know-how and know-what or tacit and explicit knowledge. Explicit and tacit knowledge are two important concepts in the knowledge management field. Polanyi (1962) expresses people know more than they can tell. People cannot clearly share all of their knowledge, and knowledge stays in the mind as tacit. Nonaka (1994) explains that tacit knowledge is deeply rooted in action, is hard to express, and cannot be found in databases or textbooks. It is difficult to capture in documents, and it is embedded in intellectual models and practices of individuals. According to Hickins (1999), the rate of the corporate knowledge is 12%, which is stored in electronic knowledge bases, 20% in electronic documents, 26% in paper documents, and 42% in individuals' brains. Therefore, half of the corporate knowledge can be defined as tacit knowledge. Steinberg and Hedlund (2002) point out that tacit knowledge can be explained with the concepts of learning by doing, professional intuition, and instinct. Also, they emphasize that tacit knowledge increases with experience (Steinberg & Hedlund, 2002).

In contrast, explicit knowledge could be captured in databases, textbooks, technical reports and many other sources. It consists of formal models, rules, and procedures (Pretorius & Steyn, 2005). Explicit knowledge is learned through open training, and readily transmitted to others. The most common forms of explicit knowledge examples are documents, works of art and product design. On the other

hand, the best way to transfer tacit knowledge is personal communication that is based on confidence and long-term relationships. Although tacit knowledge cannot be easily codified, some processes, such as partnership, apprenticeship, storytelling, and direct observation, are used to share tacit knowledge (Pretorius & Steyn, 2005).

Table 1

Knowledge Types and Names According to Disciplines

Disciplines	Knowledge-how	Knowledge-that
Philosophy	Knowledge-how; procedural knowledge; abilities	Knowledge-that; propositional knowledge
Philosophy (Polanyi)	Tacit knowing	Explicit knowledge
Psychology	Implicit knowledge; tacit abilities; skills	Explicit knowledge; declarative knowledge
Artificial intelligence	Procedural knowledge	Declarative knowledge
Neuroscience	Covert knowledge	Overt knowledge
Management studies, education	Tacit knowledge	Explicit knowledge
IT studies	Knowledge as process	Knowledge as object
Knowledge management	Know-how	Know-what
Sociology of science	Tacit (forms of life)	Explicit/symbolic

Table 2

A Comparison of Tacit and Explicit Knowledge

Characteristics	Tacit Knowledge	Explicit Knowledge
Nature	Personal, context specific	May be codified, written
Formality	Hard to formalize, codify, record, code, or express	Is formalized through the process of explanation or interpretation of tacit knowledge
Location	In the mind of workers	Manuals, reports, drawings, databases, e-communications, charts, films, etc.
Conversion process	Conversion to explicit knowledge occurs in social processes, including externalization in stories, etc.	Converted back to tacit knowledge through personal understanding, absorption, or remembering
IT influence	Difficult for IT to play a role in tacit knowledge; sharing is personal and takes place in social situations	Fully supportable by IT and ICT
Medium	Needs a rich communications environment, a culture of sharing and trust	Can be transferred through normal communications media

The iceberg analogy is helpful to clarify these different kinds of knowledge. Explicit knowledge can be considered as the visible part of the iceberg, while tacit knowledge can be imagined the part of the iceberg beneath the water. The first one can be seen and recognized easily, but the second one is hard to express and transfer (Milovanovic, 2006). Table 2 presents comparison between tacit and explicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge corresponds to know-what, which is about truths, and know-why, which is about natural principles and easily captured from written sources. However, tacit knowledge is related to know-how, which is about the capacity and potential to do some tasks, and know-who, which is about experts and managers and difficult to capture (Hawamdeh & Hussein, 2001).

Knowledge Management

Similar to data, information, and knowledge, knowledge management is defined in numerous ways. Alavi and Leidner (2001) point out knowledge management is an active, multi-facet, and constant organizational phenomenon. Knowledge management is related to information systems, organizational theory, and strategic management. With such a broad perspective, Davenport and Prusak (1998) describe knowledge management as acquiring, creating, storing, and using knowledge. In the same way, according to Darroch (2003), there are four dimensions in the field of knowledge management: capturing, storing, disseminating, and using knowledge. Thus, knowledge management can be defined as a process of managing knowledge that includes creating, storing, and disseminating knowledge as well as using knowledge, which are realized in an organization or between organizations.

Table 3

Knowledge Management

Knowledge Management		
A systematic approach to finding, understanding, and using knowledge to achieve organizational objectives.		
Identifying and Collecting	Storing	Transferring
Knowledge audit/inventory Knowledge mapping Best practices Documenting Processes Experts interviews	Document repositories Document management Systems Databases Warehouses	Apprenticeship Communities of practices Learning games Lessons learned Mentoring Storytelling Data mining

In this definition, there are three main parts of knowledge management: acquisition, dissemination, and usage (Darroch, 2003). Acquisition refers to capturing and storing of knowledge. Knowledge can be acquired from various resources such as employees' abilities, interactions with other firms, and customers. Dissemination of knowledge is a process of knowledge conversion, which can be summarized in four modes: socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization. Usage is called openness to knowledge (Darroch, 2003). It is related to an organization's competence in evaluating the acquired knowledge. Keyes (2006) describes knowledge management as a systematic approach that includes identifying, collecting, storing, and transferring

knowledge. Organizations can achieve their objectives by finding, understanding, and using knowledge. This definition is summarized in Table 3.

Moreover, there are differences between traditional and contemporary knowledge management strategies. While traditional knowledge management strategies perceive knowledge management as a thing, contemporary knowledge management strategies recognize knowledge management as a thing and flow (Garcia & Mitra, 2007). In addition, traditional strategy is based on IT technologies and organizational knowledge resources; however, contemporary strategies depend on individuals' skills and experiences, which help people in sharing tacit knowledge (Garcia & Mitra, 2007). Emerging globalization and shifting information society are two important factors that make knowledge the most valuable focus for public and private organizations (Nonaka, 1994). During the industrial era, people had to manage the means of production, which is an easier task in comparison with managing knowledge. With the transition to the postindustrial era, knowledge has become the most valuable asset, and it needs to be managed (Bhatt, 2002). After the transition from industry society to knowledge society, knowledge took place of "land, labor, and capital" as the primary resource (Drucker, 1992, p.95). This transformation forced the society to have many centers of power, and compelled organizations to change their structure in order to manage knowledge. Therefore, qualified knowledgeable people became the most critical resource in organizations (Drucker, 1992). Accordingly, knowledge management appeared as a new concept and become popular three decades ago.

Bouthillier and Shearer (2002) offer a typology to demonstrate the environment of knowledge management. The typology comprises eight diverse methodologies:

- Communities of practice: These try to share tacit knowledge by bringing employees together from different divisions and using informal networking.
- Questions and answers forums: These strive to solve organizational problems by using virtual networking such as chat rooms and emails.
- Knowledge mapping: Its target is to help people to discover knowledge resources in an organization by developing audits that help employees to find the location of knowledge.

Table 4

Typologies for Knowledge Management is Given Based on Their Particular Emphasis

Particular Emphasis	Methodology employed
Focus on Communication	Communities of Practice Question and Answer Forums
Focus on Storage and Retrieval	Knowledge Mapping Expert Databases Knowledge Databases
Focus on selected dissemination	News Information Alerts Organizational Learning
Focus on Action	Virtual collaboration

- Expert databases: These describe knowledge the profiles of each expert from the employees within an organization.
- Knowledge databases: These store explicit knowledge to simplify the sharing of explicit knowledge.

- News information alerts: These facilitate the dissemination of selected knowledge.
- Organizational learning: Its goal is to provide employees new knowledge through training and education.
- Virtual collaboration: This enables employees from different geographical areas to work together. A list of the typologies is given based on their particular emphasis in Table 4.

Knowledge Management's Place in Information Science

Some information scientists assert that everything about this concept has been spoken, and others just repeat the same things. Wilson (2002) states the viewpoint of information scientists about knowledge management by clarifying the concept of knowledge management. According to Wilson (2002), some concepts become popular, and people show interest in these concepts for a time. Present concepts' names are changed due to the need of new different terms and tendencies to offer the same products with a new name. To illustrate, "benchmarking," "organizational learning," "total quality management," and many other terms have arisen in the last four decades as popular concepts (Wilson, 2002, p.2). These terms were popular when they emerged; however, they faded with time. Similarly, knowledge management became known in the 1980s. Even unconnected activities, such as personnel management, work practices, and organizational learning, have been introduced as knowledge management.

Wilson (2002) found that researchers had conducted few studies about knowledge management before 1996. Nonetheless, after 1997 knowledge management has become a focus, and a huge amount of research has been conducted

about it. Wilson (2002) examined numerous studies by focusing on concepts, journals, subjects, and authors to clarify the notion of knowledge management. None of the concepts that are introduced in knowledge management framework are new terms. For instance, “knowledge” and “knowledge specialist” were used as a synonym of “information” and “information officer.” Likewise, “distributed knowledge management systems,” were preferred instead of “inter-organizational information systems.” Similarly, “knowledge system” was utilized instead “information system” (Wilson, 2002, p.2).

Wilson (2002) asserts that management of knowledge is impossible even if data or information may be managed. Whereas knowledge means messages that people know, information means messages that people share and transfer. People do not know what they know exactly, and how much knowledge they have. When people need knowledge as a mental process, they have and use it (Wilson, 2002). Briefly, discussed topics and concepts were known and expressed by information scientists. “Explicit knowledge” refers to “information”; similarly “tacit knowledge” represents “knowledge”; and “knowledge” takes the place of “information” in Nonaka’s (1994) knowledge conversion model (Wilson, 2002, p.6). Knowledge management will fade like other popular concepts, because knowledge management is a polished form of information management (Wilson, 2002). In a word, although knowledge management is perceived as a new concept, basically it stemmed from information management. In fact, Wilson does not criticize the content of the knowledge management; conversely, he just critiques its usage as if it is a new notion. Therefore, information scientists should know that knowledge management is their central property, and should focus on this area

assertively. In spite of its new terms and concepts, knowledge management has a significant place in information science, which has been receiving a great deal of attention by academics, business people, and public sector employees, who have different reasons to concentrate on knowledge management.

Knowledge Sharing

Knowledge management usually refers to enable knowledge sharing, especially sharing of tacit knowledge (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002). Although knowledge management consists of acquisition, creation, storage, sharing, and usage of knowledge, knowledge sharing is superior of all the other knowledge process.

Accompanied by the knowledge-based society, organizations have noticed that their success depends on their knowledge sharing strategies as a critical part of knowledge management systems and their effective executions. Knowledge sharing is a key component of knowledge management (Liebowitz & Chen, 2003). According to Chih (2004), knowledge sharing has been more important in today's competitive business environment. In public sectors many organizations, which need to increase organizational performance by improving knowledge sharing activities, have started to invest in knowledge management. Achieving a high level of knowledge sharing provides financial benefits and service quality to the organizations.

Kayworth and Leidner (2004) point out that knowledge management initiative mostly conflicts with organizational culture. Bock, Zmud, Kim, and Lee (2005) emphasize that people do not want to share knowledge in an organizational atmosphere; in contrast, they tend to hoard knowledge. Organizational climates with fairness, innovativeness and affiliation positively affect the knowledge sharing practices

(Bock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005). Chih's (2004) work indicates that a competition between employees adversely affects the knowledge-sharing process. The findings show that the self-interests and ethical concerns have an implication on knowledge sharing. Knowledge sharing is a major challenge in many organizations because of organizational culture. Milovanovic (2006) highlights the importance of trust in sharing knowledge. Organizational culture is relevant to distributive, procedural, and interactional justices, which are the types of organizational justice. These three kinds of organizational justice have an impact on individuals' knowledge-sharing attitudes (Ibragimova, 2006). Also, organizing informal meetings and practicing brainstorm sessions can be useful in sharing knowledge.

Furthermore, Hedlund (1994) designed a knowledge-sharing model, which includes a transformation process between explicit and tacit knowledge at four different stages: "individual, the small group, the organization, and inter organizational domain" (p. 73). The model emphasizes the differences between Western and Japan knowledge management strategies. Hedlund (1994) improves an ideal knowledge management system called N form, which includes the following characteristics: combination of knowledge elements, temporarily organizational structure, dialog with lower level staff, lateral communication, catalyst role of managers, and less hierarchy. According to the model, encountered information is exposed to the following steps: articulation, which represents a conversion from tacit to explicit knowledge; internalization, which means a transition from explicit to tacit; reflection, which means interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge; extension, which represents a transfer of knowledge in a tacit or explicit form; appropriation, which means sharing knowledge in a training process;

dialog, which represent an interaction between extension and appropriation. According to Hedlund (1994), N form leads to an effective knowledge management system in organizations.

Knowledge-Sharing Techniques

Technology is a crucial instrument in knowledge sharing. In particular, for tacit knowledge sharing, which is a complicated task, it supports knowledge sharing and creating by facilitating interaction between people. In the knowledge conversion process individuals should be part of this course of action, regardless of whether the process is from explicit to tacit or vice versa. Thus, new generation collaborative technologies are required to help people in knowledge sharing, such as video conferencing, groupware, intranets, and emails. As a selective activity, regular communication, personal acquaintances, and meetings determine knowledge sharing. In other words, regular communication, which includes status reports, emails and phone calls, positively affect to knowledge transfer; personal acquaintances foster knowledge transfer; weekly or monthly meetings are positively related to knowledge transfer (Epple, Argote, & Darr, 1995). Storytelling, mentoring, online communities, and knowledge-sharing forums, video conferencing are mainly applied techniques to transfer knowledge.

Storytelling

Stories are very effective vehicles for transferring knowledge about organizational events, management issues, or employee relations. As narrative and informal communication tools, stories are easily learned, and remain longer in memories that increase organizational learning and knowledge retention. Storytelling can help employees to understand former knowledge and routines and apply them in the present

and future. Therefore, they can be called “organizations’ oral histories and potential change agents” (Liebowitz, 2009).

Storytelling has to “share and values, develop trust and commitment, share tacit knowledge, facilitate unlearning, and generate emotional connection” in order to reach people and to encourage them in numerous fields (Sole & Wilson, 1999). If a leader uses stories as a medium, keeps it clear and simple, and observes the employees’ perception about stories, storytelling can be used as a leadership tool (Sole & Wilson, 1999). A good story should have a happy ending, a hero, and a usual plot by focusing on the positive (Denning, 2000). Management can collect stories by asking employees to share their success stories as a formal and influential technique (Hester, 2011).

Mentoring

As an experienced person, a mentor has much tacit knowledge and helps to enhance organizational knowledge by transferring his/her tacit knowledge to newcomers in an organization (Hildreth & Kimble, 2002). A mentoring system is a key process to transfer tacit knowledge from an expert to a mentee; this helps organizations to transfer tacit knowledge and to retain expertise. The relationship between mentor and mentee can be formal or informal. A formal mentoring program includes mentor trainings, meetings, assignments, and assessments. Informal programs help newcomers to make a smooth transition into the organization (Liebowitz, 2009).

Mentors supervise, motivate, and guide their mentees to have them succeed in their professional goals. Mentoring is an invaluable practice for mentees, mentors, and organizations. Mentees can improve themselves personally and professionally and can become a recognized member of the organization. Mentors give to their communities by

transferring organizational values and visions to mentees and turn into more valuable sources of human capital for their organizations. Likewise, organizations can retain their knowledge by investing in organizational knowledge stock (Clutterbuck, 2001). An ideal mentor should have expertise, desire to guide and motivate self-awareness, communication skills, and familiarity with the organization, as well as an ability to remain professional in any workplace situation (Heathfield, 2011; Clutterbuck, 2001).

Online Communities

People with similar interests in a given field come together to solve problems and share to their experiences and knowledge. Online communities provide many different virtual environments, including discussion boards and market research survey. Some organizations that use online communities include Best Buy, NASA, and Hallmark (Liebowitz, 2009).

Knowledge Sharing Forums

In these forums, people come together to discuss their projects with their colleagues. This discussion involves knowledge fair and knowledge exchange, and it is similar to poster sessions. Johnson & Johnson and World Bank use this approach to leverage and transfer knowledge (Liebowitz, 2009).

Video Conferencing

Video conferencing involves varied computer applications, audio clips, and animations. It conveys mental models, values, and complex idea scan increase retention of valuable tacit knowledge when it is combined with narrative and storytelling. Videoconference can work better when storyteller is capable, (Hawamdeh & Refai,

2008). The video conferencing make possible one-on-one interaction more effectively. John Hopkins uses this method for educational program that includes more than 200 topics (Hawamdeh & Refai, 2008).

According to Keyes (2006), the following knowledge transfer techniques are also used to acquire knowledge from individuals or groups:

Interviews and Questionnaires

Interviews are helpful in conversion of tacit knowledge into explicit form. Exit interviews are good examples, which are applied to experienced employees before retirement. Sometimes, the interviewer can clarify or validate interviewees' answers. For large groups, questionnaires are used as a first step before individual interviews. Questionnaires can include both open-ended and close-ended questions that attract more detailed answers about subject matters.

Observation

Observations are excellent tools to obtain rich content knowledge. In particular, silent observations are more efficient to capture organizational processes and procedures.

Focus Groups

In focus groups, a group of people is asked to share their views and perceptions about a problem, idea, or service in structured sessions.

Brainstorming Sessions

During these sessions, ideas are shared without criticism in a stimulating and focused environment. Such sessions can be arranged as face-to-face meetings or in virtual atmospheres.

Simulations

Simulations are used in many contexts, which are effective in acquiring knowledge, processing, validating, and completing the knowledge obtaining procedures.

Best Practices

Best practices are based on common sense and successful informal techniques. Best practices are generally applicable by other organizations because they describe a process to follow standard ways. An employee, who took part in it, explains a systematic review of success to do things.

Task Analysis

Task analysis includes all of the factors such as descriptions, elements, and allocations of task that are relevant to a task, which can be a process or an activity, or to the performer of the task.

Participation

Experienced employees transfer their knowledge to newcomers by using internship, traineeship, and apprenticeship mechanisms. Participation encourages on-the-job-training and learning-by-doing to obtain knowledge that establishes casual links between processes and outcomes.

Learning from Others

Learning from others involves implementing benchmarking, joining conferences, engaging in workshops and expositions, and inviting guest speakers, which helps to bring a new viewpoint to the organization.

Documentation

Documentation can include a variety of written materials, such as manuals, meeting reports, archival information, regulations, and many others.

According to Lesser and Storck (2001), the following technologies are commonly used in sharing knowledge:

- Face-to-face conferences
- Expert and panel presentations
- Online discussions
- Chat rooms
- “Brown bag” luncheon presentations
- “Water cooler” meeting areas
- In-agency coffee houses
- After-work social events
- Teleconferences
- Special projects
- Informal one-on-one interactions
- One-on-one interactions by phone and e-mail
- Intranets
- Web sites

By applying metaphors, analogies, and repertory grids, knowledge exchanges or action protocols can be used for harvesting tacit knowledge (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009). Knowledge sharing techniques should be selected based on the organizations' needs. For example, online communities, knowledge fairs, unofficial meetings, and poster sessions can be used to increase collaboration. Likewise, if an organization aims to prevent knowledge loss, mentoring programs, best practices, and knowledge sharing forums are techniques that can be implemented (Liebowitz, 2009).

Knowledge can be found in different forms such as experiences, competencies, behaviors, and skills, all of which are called tacit or actionable knowledge. Another kind of knowledge, also known as implicit or articulated knowledge, can be described as personal language use and ideas. Although both actionable knowledge and articulated knowledge are viewed as tacit knowledge, articulated knowledge can be easily transferred by using chat rooms, discussion boards, emails, and teamwork instruments; on the other hand, actionable knowledge needs more complex tools, such as video and multimedia technologies, to be transferred (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009).

Knowledge Loss and Retention

Knowledge helps organizations to make better assessments, to develop deeper understandings about the needs of employees and clients, and to devise better work procedures (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). Knowledge is lost as it is created, stored, shared, and utilized. Knowledge loss, defined as "the death of knowledge," is a reality that has been experienced by human beings for ages (DeLong, 2004, p.20). Most of the knowledge gained cannot be preserved, even if some knowledge may be kept by being stored in written, video, audio, or digital form (Housel & Bell, 2001). Personal knowledge

is lost with the death of individuals. Likewise, organizational knowledge is lost with the downsizing of companies or with employee layoffs if the companies do not have an action plan for knowledge retention, the company will experience a decrease in the decision making process and effectiveness of the organization (Housel & Bell, 2001).

There are many external and internal processes, such as resignations, retirements, and outsourcing that cause knowledge loss in organizations. Early retirements of experienced employees can also cause knowledge loss. Organizations can implement several strategies, such as modeling, exit interview process, apprenticeship, gap analysis, and knowledge recall, in order to prevent knowledge loss derived from the retirement process (Stam, 2010). Besides downsizing, layoff, and early retirement, the other causes of knowledge loss are exaggerating of new knowledge by ignoring old knowledge, memorizing knowledge without practicing, and inflexibly overstating knowledge to prevent new opportunities (Housel & Bell, 2001).

Knowledge retention is prevention against knowledge loss. Knowledge retention is an effort to create organizational memory that includes an organization's archives and employees' memories. Three different knowledge processes are applied to building an organizational memory: knowledge acquisition, storage, and retrieval (DeLong, 2004). Organizations cannot be satisfied with doing what they know; they need to retain what they know organizationally in order to stay competitive (Paladino, 2007). Knowledge gained through learning by doing is lost rapidly. Knowledge is depreciated through turnover of employees, misplaced instruction manuals, and individual forgetting. Technology usage can prevent or reduce knowledge loss (Epple, Argote, & Darr, 1995). Developments in information technologies, in efforts for retaining knowledge from

retiring baby boomers, and in the awareness of using intellectual capital efficiently have increased interest in knowledge sharing, knowledge discovery, and knowledge management (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009). The biggest difficulty for knowledge retention is to identify sources of knowledge. In fact, in comparison with information that can be collected by using information systems, knowledge, which is mostly located in employees' minds, is difficult to capture. Encouraging, capturing, and re-using knowledge effectively is helpful to ensure knowledge retention.

Organizational Knowledge Creation Theory and SECI Model

Knowledge management is a multifaceted area; thus, researchers have built many models to facilitate the knowledge-sharing process and to use knowledge effectively in organizational environments. One of the most well known models is Nonaka's (1994) organizational knowledge creation process. According to Nonaka (1994), in the first step people enlarge their individual knowledge. Second, they share their tacit knowledge with others. Third, people experience the conceptualization and crystallization processes to clarify their knowledge. Next, the justification process is practiced. The final step is networking knowledge. Then, people continue to acquire knowledge and gradually experience the same transformational steps. The organizational knowledge creation process is summarized in Figure 1.

Organizational knowledge creation makes knowledge available for individuals and organizations by fitting it into a knowledge system (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009). It focuses on retention of tacit knowledge in organizational environments rather than organizational change, innovation, and creativity. Tacit and explicit knowledge are two important concepts in this process. Interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge is

clarified in the knowledge conversion process. Knowledge creation theory hones knowledge assets and strategies by explaining knowledge creation processes and emphasizing the importance of change, innovation, creativity and learning processes in organizations.

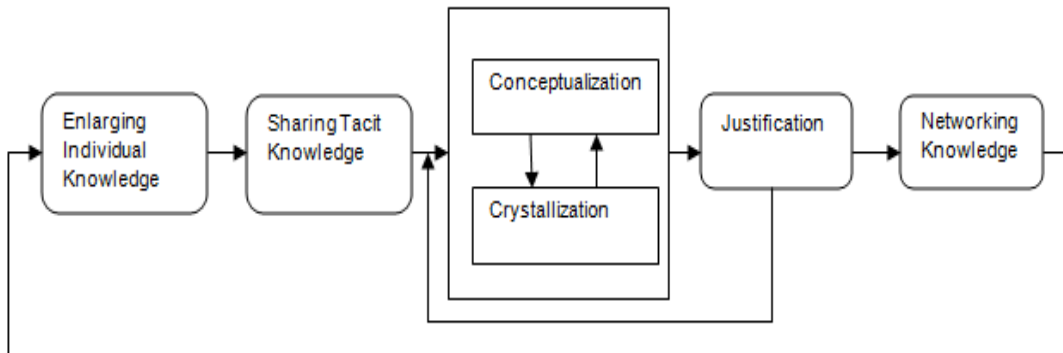


Figure 1. Organizational knowledge creation process (Nonaka, 1994).

Reward systems, organizational culture, leadership approaches, and structures of organizations are factors that constitute a social context called *ba* in Japanese, which means a place to share knowledge; and this serves as a basis for knowledge creation (Nonaka & Konno, 1998). Virtual communities, project teams, social practices, and small networks are instruments to rely on the social context. Leaders build up *ba*, and knowledge creation is affected by the *ba* (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009). In addition, use of technology, proximity, and timing of activities are factors that have an important influence on organizational knowledge creation (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009). Nonaka and Konno (1998) present the concepts of knowledge conversion and *ba* in Figure 2.

There are four types of *ba* related to knowledge conversion modes. Originating *ba* is the place where knowledge creation process starts and corresponds to

socialization. In the originating *ba*, people share their wisdom and knowledge in person. Interacting *ba* is related to externalization mode and represents a place where people cooperate with each other to share their knowledge. Cyber *ba* is parallel to combination and refers to a place where people use virtual mechanisms to share knowledge. Exercising *ba* matches internalization and represent a place where people use life-long learning approaches (Handzic & Zou, 2005).

Knowledge consists of three complementary parts: “justified true beliefs, the actuality of skillful action, and explicit and tacit [knowledge] along a continuum” (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009, p.636). In fact, knowledge is created by individuals’ justifications about the truthfulness of their beliefs. Thus, knowledge creation can be called a process seeking true belief. Beliefs are perceived as truths over time if they are justified and shaped by individuals or groups. Individuals use knowledge to solve their problems or to complete their tasks. High performance is attributed to being knowledgeable. Explicit knowledge is common and can be captured through consciousness. However, tacit knowledge is based on rules of thumb, experiences, and insights, which is a central concept to knowledge creation theory. Also, tacit and explicit knowledge are not independent from each other; on the contrary, they are complementary part of a continuum (Hildreth & Kimble, 2002).

In an organizational environment, interaction between tacit and explicit knowledge leads to knowledge creation in two ways. First, individual knowledge is justified by the society, thus causing the expansion of knowledge. Second, people change the tacit or explicit forms of their knowledge by producing new knowledge (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009). This conversion occurs in socialization, externalization,

combination, and internalization, which are collectively called knowledge conversion or the SECI process. In the SECI process, explicit and tacit knowledge reciprocally improve each other. The SECI process has individual and social features. A continuous transformation is practiced between these two different kinds of knowledge. The transformation is realized in four forms: socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization. While the socialization and externalization processes are related to knowledge creation, the combination and internalization processes emphasize the use of knowledge.

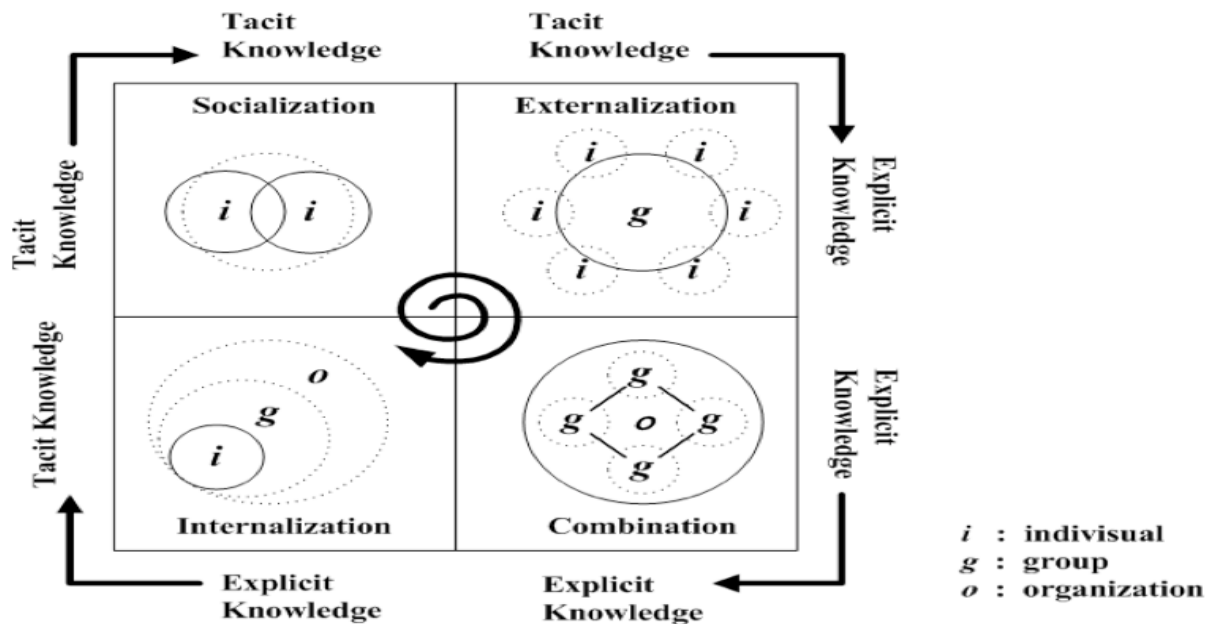


Figure 2. Knowledge conversion model and *ba* (Nonaka & Konno, 1998).

Socialization is defined as a process in which tacit knowledge is captured through sharing experiences (Choo, 2003). In this process tacit knowledge is exchanged through social interactions. Living in the same environment, working in the same organization, and spending time together provide experimental access to tacit knowledge. The socialization process helps newcomers to adapt an organizational

atmosphere. For example, a mentor can guide a group of people to acquire knowledge through socialization. Apprentices who learn by imitation and practice are another well-known example for the socialization process (Nonaka, 1994). Team members' meetings and discussions also exemplify socialization process.

Externalization is a conversion process from tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. In this process, tacit knowledge is transformed into an understandable form through diagrams, metaphors, and analogies. Ideas and images are captured from individuals' minds and converted into visual documents. In the externalization process, knowledge becomes more explicit thus leading to the expansion of knowledge. The more knowledge becomes explicit by the means of concepts and words, the more it enriches. Although expert knowledge tends to become explicit, it can never be acquired by software systems because of its tacit characteristic. During the transformation from tacit to explicit, using images, metaphors, and analogies is useful (Nonaka & Krogh, 2009). When team members discuss daily issues with each other and offer solutions within the groups, they experience the externalization mode.

Combination is a process in which explicit knowledge is converted into more organized and comprehensive explicit knowledge by means of many resources (Choo, 2003). In the combination process, explicit knowledge is transformed into a more general form through categorization, classification, and collocation; thus, it can be easily shared. Knowledge is replaced and reorganized through meetings, written documents, and network communities. For example, an employee searches in databases by using the data mining method and shares their findings via a written report (e.g. email) with his/her colleagues.

Internalization is a transformation process from explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge (Nonaka, 1994). Explicit knowledge can be easily shared by individuals due to the fact that it is embedded in written document, databases, and so on. Explicit knowledge is transformed gradually into new tacit knowledge throughout an organization. People experience internalization by doing, which is both an individual and psychological process. Explicit knowledge starts slowly, becomes tacit over time, and later becomes more important for completing tasks and solving problems (Nonaka & Takeuchi, 1995). When a newcomer searches using a query by looking into written reports, the internalization mode is experienced (Keyes, 2006). Modes and examples of knowledge conversion are summarized in Figure 3 (Nonaka, 1994; Keyes, 2006).

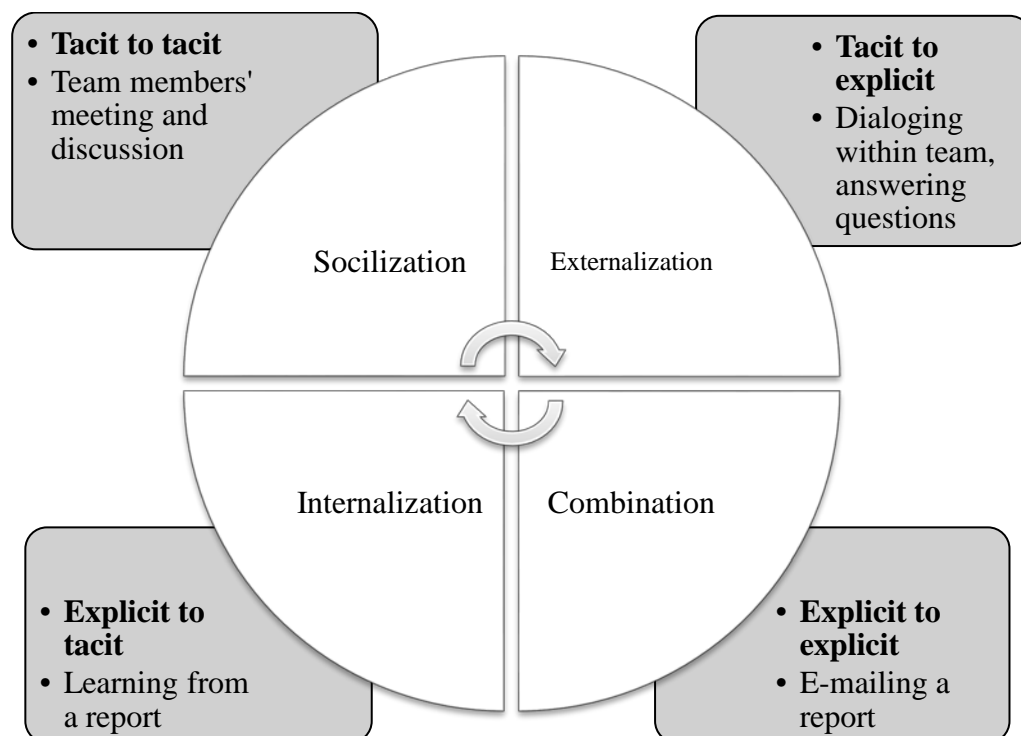


Figure 3. Modes and examples of the knowledge creation (Nonaka, 1994).

Table 5

Examples of Knowledge Creation Process

Process	Example
Socialization	Giving a call to a colleague to get information about the mission (everyday comradeship)
Externalization	Dialoging with other colleagues who will go to the mission (formalizing a body of knowledge)
Combination	E-mailing the combined information (combining existing a body of knowledge)
Internalization	Learning from others' emails and reports (translating theory into practice)

Knowledge can be categorized based on several credentials. According to the content area and domains, 40 different types of knowledge are classified in four main areas: basic knowledge, innovative knowledge, emotional knowledge, and experimental knowledge (Byosiere & Ingham, 2002). Knowledge conversion processes relate to different areas of knowledge. Emotional and experimental knowledge have an influence on three knowledge processes: socialization, externalization and internalization. These three knowledge processes have tacit components. Emotional and experimental knowledge have individual and unique characteristics that correspond to tacit knowledge. On the other hand, basic knowledge contains explicit components, and

relates to combination process that has an explicit feature. Furthermore, internalization strongly impacts innovative knowledge, which means tacit and explicit features of innovative knowledge can be used to solve problems and generate new strategies (Byosiere & Luethge, 2008). The examples of knowledge creation process are given in Table 5.

A Holistic Knowledge Management Model

Transferring tacit knowledge is always one of the most challenging processes for knowledge management systems (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009). In the first step, explicit knowledge is stored by means of web crawlers, text mining and search engines in databases, data warehousing, and on the web. In the second step, a knowledge broker helps users to articulate implicit knowledge by using discussion boards, emails, and chat rooms. In the last step, an actionable knowledge is extracted by means of more complex processes such as face-to-face interaction (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009). A holistic knowledge management system enables users to capture available data and information by using manual and computerized sources. Also, it provides mechanisms and tools to obtain knowledge with the help of subject experts and human experts. In this system, different kinds of knowledge can be captured. First, users submit their inquiries. The system tries to match the inquiries with previously answered queries in the knowledge repository. If a match accrues, the satisfaction levels of the users are discussed. For a satisfied user, the inquiry can be ended. If there is no match or satisfaction with inquiry, the next step will be consulting a human expert. The human expert within the system is called the internal expert, and the expert outside of the system is called external expert. Human experts' answers are captured and made

available for future queries in the knowledge repository. The cost of human experts is higher than the cost of the database. Since this system considers the cost of knowledge service, it starts the inquiries with the database and the web, and then refers to human experts (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009). The Figure 4 summarizes the posing of a query process.

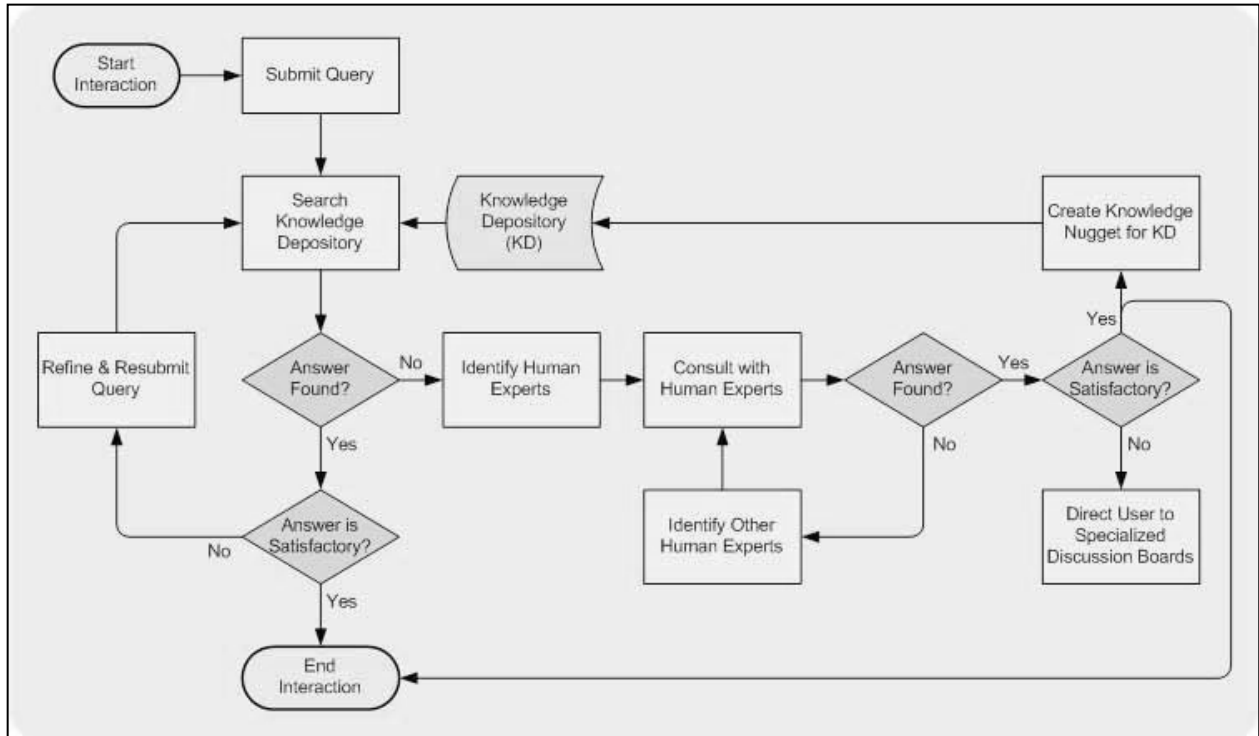


Figure 4. Workflow for posing a query or an unstructured question to the system

Knowledge Management Practices in Public Area

Organizations either support or threat knowledge sharing practices that means if an organization does not have a reward system for knowledge sharing, in some way it supports the hoarding knowledge (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). A knowledge management system's success is measured by looking at the developments in the organization's budget, knowledge content, and personnel as well as return on investment (ROI) (Davenport & Prusak, 1998).

A knowledge worker is in charge of identifying, collecting, storing and transferring knowledge in organizations. As knowledge has been becoming a key asset in business world, correspondingly knowledge workers will become the most valuable assets for their organizations. Thus, they should be knowledgeable about new technologies and their business enterprise. Flexibility and adaptability can help them to accept new technologies. To develop and execute knowledge management strategies effectively, they should have good communication skills (Hawamdeh & Hart, 2002).

Technology is a crucial tool for knowledge management. For instance, web-based tools and Lotus Notes are very helpful and successful implements for knowledge management; however, technology alone is not adequate. Technology has to be aligned with rewards, individual attitudes, and organizational culture as well as other factors in order to manage and leverage knowledge effectively (Davenport & Prusak, 1998). A successful knowledge management system should have a certain degree of balance between information, technology, and people (Delen & Hawamdeh, 2009).

A successful knowledge management implementation has the following attributes:

- Recognizing the benefits of knowledge management to the organization
- Ensuring organization-wide support for knowledge management
- Appreciating cultural barriers to knowledge management success
- Building knowledge management communities
- Using information technology in knowledge management (McNabb, 2007).

In both business and public sectors, large organizations have noticed that knowledge is the most precious asset for employees and the organizations, and they

have focused on knowledge management. Business companies have begun to realize the significance of having a good knowledge management system by enforcing a competitive business atmosphere three decades ago; nevertheless, in the public sector, importance of knowledge management has only been understood recently (Bundred, 2006). While the public sector shares knowledge both externally and internally because it should serve the public, the private sector focuses on internally knowledge sharing because it has to preserve their knowledge resource to stay competitive (Bouthillier & Shearer, 2002). Knowledge management systems generally aim to increase organizational performance by developing acquisition, transfer, and use of knowledge by means of various tools and mechanisms (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2010). There is a positive relationship between having an effective knowledge management system and staying competitive.

Hickins (1999) conducted a research about the Xerox, and found that as the most critical part of the knowledge management process, knowledge sharing determines organizations' success. The company has achieved their goals by building a knowledge sharing culture. Davenport, De Long, and Beers (1998) try to find an answer the following question: "When are knowledge management projects successful?" (p. 48). The researchers focus on conversion of tacit knowledge and use of effective knowledge by benefiting from knowledge management as a valuable tool in organizational success. They conclude that knowledge sharing has a significant role in organizations' success (Davenport, Long, & Beers, 1998). Steinberg and Hedlund (2002) explain practical intelligence by focusing on tacit knowledge. Their study's

findings show that knowledge management has an important influence on job performance.

Kasim (2008) examines the impacts of knowledge management practices and competencies on organizational performance by measuring levels of knowledge management practices, competencies and performance. The findings of the study show that knowledge management practices and competencies have an important effect on organizational performance. In addition, competencies are the best predictors of organizational performance (Kasim, 2008). Technological developments and efforts for increasing performance caused a growth in people's expectations from the public sector. Similarly to the business sector, the public sector had to create knowledge management systems to meet these expectations. Consequently, knowledge management has developed throughout the public sector over the last two decades. Hauk and Chen (1999) stress the critical role of knowledge management systems in preventing crimes, foreseeing criminal events, and fighting criminal activities. Researchers focus on implications of using Coplink Concept Space (CCS), which can be defined as an effective electronic knowledge management tool in law enforcement investigations and police work. According to findings of the research, CCS generates new knowledge building links between locations, people, vehicles, and objects. In addition, it provides access to required information in a short time.

Successful organizations aim to achieve not only to stay competitive in their current business, but also accomplish a better preparation for the difficulties of the future (Tushman & O'Reilly, 1996). The organizational knowledge creation theory enables organizations to adjust their structures according to requirements of a changing

environment. After World War II, the public sector developed in the whole world. However, poor service delivery was experienced due to economic challenges. Therefore, many internationally reform movements improved. These movements forced the public sector to adapt fast changing technological and market circumstances and operate like the private sector organizations (McNabb, 2007).

NASA is a project-base and technically oriented organization that appreciates engineering and technical superiority. It experienced the Challenger tragedy in 1988 and the Columbia tragedy in 2003, which has affected the organization's structure and approach to all of its competencies, especially its knowledge sharing perspective. The main obstacle that prevents NASA from efficiently sharing knowledge was organizational culture that supports individual success and competition between employees for decreasing resources. NASA has implemented four different generations of knowledge management systems since 1988 to manage knowledge and increase performance.

Importance of understanding and managing tacit and explicit knowledge is emphasized in the system. The KMS in NASA focuses on sharing knowledge across the organization rather than hoarding knowledge. Also, this approach makes knowledge sharing an essential part of employees' work. The system includes some sort of sharing tools and mechanisms to retain valuable knowledge and expertise and prevents knowledge loss arising from employees' retirement process. In fact, 25 percent of the senior-level managers will retire in 5 years. These are the system's critical feature: enhancing open communication, bringing institutionalized knowledge management approach to the organization, managing projects in a "faster, better and cheaper" (FBC)

framework, and transforming tacit knowledge into explicit knowledge (McNabb, 2007, p.213). In the NASA's knowledge management system, experienced employees serve as expert guides, counselor, mentors, and coaches who pass their wisdom and knowledge to newcomers in order to give back to organization, which help the organization to develop its intellectual capital.

In this system, project practitioners are the central sources of the knowledge creation and sharing. Then, best practices are compiled by using storytelling, mentoring, and many other techniques. Senior-level employees are appropriately appreciated because of their contributions to the knowledge sharing process. Formal classrooms, on the job trainings, online computer supports, courses, and certifications programs are best mechanisms, which serve as a catalyst. The NASA also implements Transfer Wisdom Workshops, which are one day workshops based on small group discussions of case studies. All of these efforts help NASA to improve leadership skills, to make better decisions, and to constitute a secure and innovative organizational atmosphere as well as to use existing knowledge in timely manner (McNabb, 2007). NASA diminished its workforce by 26 percent between 1993 and 2000 in the civil service. Similarly, in the same period, its number of staff was decreased 50 percent. The supervisor-to-employee ration decreased 40 percent by the means of this effective KMS by means of the new knowledge management system (McNabb, 2007).

Police forces have gradually understood the importance of applying knowledge and managing knowledge sources to increase organizational performance. Luen and Al-Hawamdeh (2001) conclude that people have been increasingly demanding better-quality services from the public sector; therefore, governmental organizations should

implement an effective knowledge management system. Collier (2001) investigates intellectual capacity and knowledge management in police organizations. Intellectual capacity consists of skill-based and intangible knowledge. Training and experience, knowledge sharing, organizational knowledge structures, hierarchical redundancy, and amortization are mechanisms to gain and maintain intellectual capacity. Managing and measuring intellectual capacity are critical processes. Intellectual capacity is more important than financial and other tangible assets. Organizations can use intellectual capacity to increase organizational performances in law (Collier, 2001). Wiig (1997) also emphasizes the importance of intellectual capital in the public area. Knowledge management has many kinds of roles in public area, such as and building intellectual capitals, developing the competitive work force, and improving public decision-making (Wiig, 1997).

Moreover, Collier, John, and Duncan (2004) emphasize the importance of knowledge management, which comprises capturing, sharing, storing, and using knowledge in police work. The researchers conduct three different workshops with internal staff, external shareholders, and police chiefs to collect data. The findings show a positive relationship between organizational performance and knowledge management. It also points out that three stakeholders have important roles for effective knowledge sharing and high performance, and using more technology in police work increases performance. Lee, Foo, Chaudhry, and Hawamdeh (2004) claim that although knowledge sharing has gotten much attention, a well-designed and functional knowledge-sharing theory has not been developed. In their study, the researchers attempt to develop a theory of knowledge sharing in an academic environment. The

academic environment comprises seven different social settings. The voluntary informal knowledge sharing (VIKS) theory consists of serendipity, spontaneity, and improvisation. According to results of the research, VIKS can be defined as a social interaction process, an adventurous enterprise, and an opportunity to satisfy one's desires, as well as learning and teaching opportunity.

Bundred (2006) points out knowledge management systems need to be innovated. In addition, he highlights the importance of performance assessment tools, information technology networks, supportive organizational culture, and servant leadership approach. The findings of his study show that cultural differences, uncooperative organizational culture, and lack of trust cause poor knowledge sharing. As far as tacit knowledge is concerned, information technology has a limited role in sharing knowledge. In the public sector, there is a hierarchical system, and people tend to hoard knowledge instead of sharing because they believe keeping knowledge brings them power, promotion, and money in this system. Providing appropriate atmospheres to discuss problems, innovating information technologies, building trust between people, and using knowledge brokers can be effective to solve knowledge sharing problems (Bundred, 2006). If these kinds of strategies are not implemented, knowledge management projects will fail in organizations (Milovanovic, 2006).

Holgersson, Gottschalk, and Dean (2008) classify sharing knowledge in law enforcement as theoretical knowledge and practical knowledge. Theoretical knowledge can be acquired and shared by formal education while practical knowledge can be obtained and shared by experience or informal ways. The study points out that theoretical and street-level perspective can be observed in law enforcement practices.

People from these two different perspectives cannot communicate with each other, and they do not understand each other's viewpoint, which causes a polarization. To effectively share knowledge, people from a theoretical perspective should work on the streets with others. People from street-level perspective are advised to join in-service trainings (Holgersson, Gottschalk, & Dean, 2008).

Measurements for Knowledge Management Effectiveness

Information scientists need to improve their measures and parameters for their area, instead of borrowing from other fields (Bates, 1989). Liebowitz and Chen (2003) stress the significance of measuring knowledge sharing effectiveness, and offer a knowledge sharing effectiveness inventory. In most cases, governmental organizations do not have an awarding system and competitive atmosphere. Choy, Yew, and Lin (2006) aim to build a measuring system for knowledge management practices in organizations by claiming that there is a gap within knowledge management measurement. The research is helpful in measuring the effectiveness of knowledge management practices. It shows the influences of knowledge management practices on organizational performance.

Feng-Kwei (2006) aims to increase organizational performance by merging the knowledge converging model and concept of case-based reasoning (CBR). As a problem solving approach, CBR consists of five components: presentation, retrieval, adaptation, validation, and update. Problems are stated in the presentation step. Retrieval is a practice of finding similar problems and solutions. When similar cases cannot be found, people try to develop an appropriate solution. The solutions are

confirmed in the validation step. Confirmed solutions make a match with the problems and stored for next possible cases in the update step.

Darroch (2003) has built a scale to measure the effectiveness of knowledge management practices. Although knowledge management has received a great deal of attention, little research has been conducted to improve a measurement process. Darroch (2003) investigates the factors that determine the effectiveness of knowledge management practices. The study's results show that knowledge acquisition and sharing and openness to knowledge are the variables that positively affect organizational performance (Darroch, 2003).

Research Site: United Nations

United Nations (UN) has implemented 64 peacekeeping missions since its foundation in 1945 by financing \$54 billion. The UN currently executes fourteen peacekeeping missions with the help of 120,778 personnel - from 115 countries - that include military, police, civilian personnel as well as volunteers. Police forces have started taking responsibilities in international arenas and are deployed in foreign countries because of new types of emerging conflicts since 1960, though policing is a local function (Berkow, 1998). In 1996, the UN Secretary-General announced the deployment of 1721 International Police Task Force (IPTF) officers, who were from 34 countries, in 53 operational stations (Chappell & John, 1999). The number of the police officers is 14,701 (United Nations, 2011a).

Deployment of law enforcement forces has been perceived as more beneficial in comparison with military forces. In fact, military forces take after each other because they have similar hierarchical systems, arms, and instructions. While military forces are

trained to handle enemies by maximizing force to deal with enemies, the police forces have to minimize using force to respect human rights. In spite of these advantages of police forces, they are not identical worldwide; their structures vary from country to country based on countries' political, historical, cultural and economic features. In other words, the police forces represent the level of democracy in countries. The police forces adequately use their authorities and forces in favor of the whole society in developed countries. However, as a reality, the police forces serve powerful elite by controlling over the public in developing countries (Chappell & John, 1999).

UN has 193 member countries; thereby, law enforcement forces from various countries create the UN police force, which is called civilian police (CIVPOL). UN officers have culturally and a legally different background that makes it difficult to standardize operation processes for the UN. It is difficult to set up a police force that has unique organizational values. The UN officers should be multitasked because they move around in the mission field to complete multi-dimensional missions and various tasks (Chappell & John, 1999). These challenges adversely affect UN's efforts in providing international security and peace. In order to perform standardized operations, UN implements training programs before the deployment process (Marotta, 2000). In spite of the UN's efforts, training programs are not sufficient to create well-prepared officers for the missions (Neild, 2001). Duration of tour of duties is normally twelve months from the beginning date of the mission duty. However, the duration can be extended by recommendation and approval of the Force Commander.

In order to fulfill to minimum criteria, the CIVPOL members proposed:

- A minimum of five years of regular police service experience

- Ability to speak English fluently and to read and write English
- Vehicle driving experience
- Ability to use firearms (Hansen, 2002).

Because of the lack of qualified personnel, various problems are experienced in most missions. The selected CIVPOL officers suffer from the lack of operational experience, insufficient law enforcement training, language barriers, inadequate vehicle driving experience, unacceptable behaviors, disrespectful attitudes against human rights, insensitivity to religious, cultural, and ethnic topics, and a lack of professionalism (Chappell & John, 1999). Likewise, Hansen (2002) indicates that in most of the UN missions, 15 percent of the deployed officers did not satisfy the criteria to be a UN officer capable for their jobs in 1990s; thus, they were not capable to do their jobs.

The TNP Officers in the UN

Although some research has been conducted on knowledge management practices and performances about the UN peacekeeping officers (Chappell & John, 1999; Neild, 2001; Marotta, 2000; Hansen, 2002) and national police forces (Luen and Al-Hawamdeh; 2001 Collier, John, and Duncan, 2004; Bundred, 2006; Holgersson, Gottschalk, and Dean, 2008), little research has been made about the TNP peacekeeping officers who have worked at the UN (Celik, 2010). According to TNP SWOT Analysis (EmniyetGenelMudurlugu, 2010), the organization has 218,225 personnel that comprise ranking officers, non-ranking officers, neighborhood watchmen, and civil servants. 85 percent of the TNP personnel have either an associate degree or higher level of education (EmniyetGenelMudurlugu, 2010). The TNP officers have been deployed since 1996 in United Nations peacekeeping missions. Deployed TNP officers

hold high or middle level managerial positions in the TNP hierarchy. As a one of the biggest contributors, the TNP has sent more than 1,200 officers to the UN missions (Celik, 2010). The number of the high-ranking officers in the TNP is 16,426.

Approximately eight percent of the high-ranking officers have worked in the UN missions. The current number of the TNP officers in UN mission is 134 (United Nations, 2011).

The officers who have passed exams, mainly based on skills of language, driving, and shooting, can be eligible to join the UN missions. According to the TNP regulations, an officer is not allowed to stay more than two years. Generally, the officers serve one year per mission. Also, the officers can participate in the mission duties several times. However, after finishing any tour of duty, the officers should serve at least one year in the TNP (Celik, 2010). Therefore, after completing their mission duty, the officers should return to Turkey, which provides an opportunity to share their experiences and knowledge. The TNP officers perceive working for the UN missions as a contributor to their career in the organization. The TNP officers mainly attribute “having career advancement, improving language skills, building network, and knowing different cultures” as their preferences to join the UN missions (Celik, 2010, p.95)

According to Celik (2010), after returning missions, the TNP officers encounter several problems due to lack of knowledge that would help them to make a smooth transition into home organization. The problems adversely affect organizational functions and contributions to peacekeeping missions. Therefore, the TNP should deal with the problems of police officers by building a system that helps the officer to reintegrate the organization. The TNP officers experience reintegration problems due to

work place violence, less commitment to the organization, and lack of the job satisfaction after returning the missions (Celik, 2010). Distribution of the TNP officers' deployment is presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Distributions of the TNP Officers' Deployments According to Years

Year	Number of the TNP officers at UN missions
1996	30
1997	30
1998	30
1999	80
2000	159
2001	146
2002	159
2003	146
2004	259
2005	154
2006	206
2007	132
2008	118
Total	1649

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A research design should verify that there is a link between the presented model and the research questions. Research can be defined as a process including all of the efforts such as the explaining, describing, and exploring to understand the complexities of the chosen phenomenon (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). Researchers in social sciences have gradually applied to certain qualitative research methods that can help to genuinely understand complicated social contexts (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). The present study aimed to uncover TNP officers' current knowledge-sharing practices and solicit the officers' recommendations for an effective knowledge-sharing system, as well as to the applicability of the knowledge management models to the TNP context. This chapter discusses the role of the researcher, research design, data collection, data analysis, instrumentation, population and sample, validity and reliability, and ethical issues.

Research Questions

In this study, the researcher wanted to understand first and foremost the knowledge-sharing practices among Turkish peacekeepers. Additionally, the researcher wanted to look for the peacekeepers recommendations for effective knowledge sharing. Finally, the study aims to determine in what way knowledge sharing models were applicable for the peacekeepers' knowledge-sharing practices. The researcher carried out the study to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the current knowledge management practices within the TNP?

2. What kinds of mechanisms and tools would the peacekeepers use to share their knowledge effectively? What would be an ideal knowledge-sharing model for TNP officers?

3. To what extent knowledge-sharing models are applicable for the TNP officers' knowledge sharing practices?

Role of the Researcher

Qualitative studies have interpretive characteristics and apply expressive language. They depend on researchers and focus on fieldwork (Janesick, 1998). According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), a researcher, is defined as the research instrument in qualitative research, should be familiar with the inquiry context and get along with the participants, which can be helpful while collecting and analyzing data. Having theoretical sensitivity - which means being knowledgeable enough to understand and comment on the data and being skillful and ready enough to conduct qualitative research - helps people to be qualified qualitative researchers (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Qualitative methods focus on participants' perceptions, search their perspectives in the real world settings, and accept participants' viewpoints as primary sources; therefore, it helps to build an interactive relationship between the researcher and participants (Marshall & Rossman, 1989).

Understanding this framework, which includes the factors affect that the TNP officers' ideas, emotions and actions, was a requirement for knowing their behaviors (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). In this study, the researcher was acquainted with informants' and their organizational cultures, backgrounds, structures and perspectives. This acquaintance enabled the researcher a more competent research instrument in

going through with this study. According to Hoepfl (1997), researchers who have known related literature and had personal and professional experience in the field most likely act more sensitively to data and decision-making processes. There was a parallel between the theoretical sensitivity of researchers and credibility of the research. In this study, the researcher had insight about the literature and relevant domain knowledge about police work, which facilitate the research process.

Characteristics of Qualitative Research

Qualitative and quantitative research methods are different from each other in their objectives, data collection and analysis methods, and levels of flexibility (Mack et al., 2005). In fact, quantitative and qualitative research paradigms employ different research design processes, apply dissimilar methods to address issues, and depend on distinct terms to evaluate validity (Kelley, 2009). Quantitative research aims to test theoretical generalizations by employing experimental methods and quantitative procedures, classifying results according to predetermined answers, and building causal relationships between variables. However, qualitative research does not use statistical procedures or quantifications; instead, it uses a “naturalistic approach” and aims to understand “similar situations” (Golafshani, 2003, p.600).

Moreover, qualitative research allows researchers to analyze individuals and groups and gain insights by designing particular questions (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). As a general framework, it explores or describes phenomena by using flexible instruments and semi-structured methods. It also helps the researcher to identify people as well as their behaviors, attitudes, status, roles, social norms, and context, which are called intangible aspects. In addition, it concentrates on narratives, features, notions,

and analogies and uses the researcher's verbal and written expression more than quantitative symbols (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). According to Nelson, Treichler, and Grossberg (1992), qualitative research is an interdisciplinary field that is related to physical science, social science, and the humanities; therefore, using qualitative research methods for a study in the information science field could be a good match.

The need of qualitative research is often mentioned in the literature. Knowledge management comprises obtaining, organizing, and applying of knowledge. Knowledge obtaining is confused with organizational learning; thus, knowledge obtaining in organizations needs to be studied (Niu, 2008). A great need for additional studies in the literature concerning knowledge sharing, especially regarding the conversion between tacit and explicit knowledge, may be met by qualitative research (Hall, 2005). According to Ibragimova (2006), in order to yield rich content data regarding knowledge sharing practices, there was a pressing need to conduct qualitative case studies with interviews.

Furthermore, qualitative research is appropriate in clarifying people's experiences and understanding more fully the complex reality of a given situation. Thus, in this study, the researcher provided multifaceted written explanations about the TNP officers' recommendations to share knowledge effectively and applied the knowledge management models in the organizational context by using qualitative approach. Obtaining in-depth phenomena that were embedded in the TNP officers' personal experiences depends on conducting primarily qualitative methods. There was a pressing need to understand how the officers shared their knowledge. Describing the current knowledge sharing process was a complex phenomenon because this process did not follow predetermined rules. The researcher had to understand the TNP officers'

values, behaviors, and social contexts. The researcher used qualitative research method in order to meet aforementioned requirements in this study.

In addition, a descriptive study helps researchers to describe and gain insight into what they try to know (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). Likewise, an explanatory study allows researchers to understand the reasons behind the happening events (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). This study had descriptive and explanatory features because the researcher did not only try to gain a better understanding about knowledge-sharing practices of the TNP officers, but also sought the causes why the officers preferred these practices. In this exploratory and descriptive study, a qualitative research design was used, which focused on words and explanations that could not be quantified (Glesne, 2010). This study aimed to reveal the existing knowledge-sharing practices throughout the TNP by describing group norms, individual experiences, and relationships between the officers. Then, it started an in-depth exploration of how the knowledge management models could be applicable to the TNP officers. Finally, it hypothesized a knowledge-sharing model for the TNP by providing the appropriate tools and mechanisms.

Case Studies

As significant inquiry methods in the qualitative research, case studies help researchers to develop knowledge by collecting and analyzing data systematically (Padgett, 2008). Case studies aims to define and analyze a particular case. A case study can focus on an individual, a group of people, or some incidents in the real-life context. Case studies are conducted to reveal decision-making processes, and they have a significant impact on program evaluation (Greene, 2000). In-depth interview is

one of the most common methods in case studies (Alpert & MacDonald, 2001). In this research, the case study focused on the TNP officers who have worked at the UN missions. Case studies were used to make total analyses and generate rich descriptions by asking general questions. Also, in order to get rich, deep and pertinent explanations and descriptions, applying qualitative case study methods was of critical importance (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Hence, the research aimed to obtain numerous explanatory factors and ranked them according to their significance by using the case study method.

Researchers apply for definite concepts and recognized relevant variables to survey and experimental research. However, when a researcher aims either to find the relations between unclear variables or to explore unfamiliar domains, the most appropriate approach is qualitative research (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). This study was the first to apply the knowledge management models and informal organizational processes for knowledge sharing in the TNP without using particular hypotheses. Thus, the researcher used the qualitative research approach in this exploratory study. Flexibility is a preferred characteristic for a qualitative research design (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Qualitative research aims to discover significant questions, interactions, and processes rather than having precise hypotheses and testing them (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). Therefore, this case study was combined with semi-structured interviews in order to yield a wide range of types of data. In this study, the researcher was flexible regarding the research design because flexibility of research helped the researcher to reveal and develop the field of inquiry (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When researchers design a qualitative study, they should clarify the overall purpose of

the study, identify the problem(s) and research questions, address the theoretical framework, and decide on a research approach, as well as define any limitations and validation issues (Creswell, 1994).

Population and Sample

Qualitative research has different logic in sampling from quantitative research (Flick, 2007). Rubin and Rubin (2005) recommend a flexible and iterative sampling approach in qualitative research, which helps the researcher to modify sampling plan according to new knowledge arising from data collection. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2000), qualitative studies commonly start with a general idea about research population. Then, the researchers based on accessibility select a sample unit. Researchers apply the knowledge of the informants to expand the sample. If needed, the sample can be modified. When theoretical saturation is succeeded, sampling is stopped. In a qualitative study, quota sampling, purposive sampling, or snowball sampling method can be used based on features of the research population and the study's goals (Mack et al., 2005). The qualitative research should also be flexibly designed in determining sample and site to answer refined research questions (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). A flexible research design can be useful to make required changes during the research process. Unlike quantitative research, particular sample size rates are not relevant in qualitative research. As the study progress, the number of needed samples generally becomes apparent (Marshall, 1996). The research focused on the officers' knowledge management practices before deployment, in the mission, and after deployment periods. It also examined how the knowledge management models were applicable to explain the officers' knowledge sharing. From this point, the research site

had rich structure, staff, and interaction processes to be investigated. On one hand, researcher's organizational background was helpful to entry into the field and to build relationships with participants. On the other hand, the researcher tried to be unbiased and objective because he has never been deployed as a peacekeeper at the UN missions.

In this study, the purposive sampling method selected based on accessibility to people who are member of the target population. The purposive sampling is the most popular method among the non-probability samples and brings together flexibility and openness (Flick, 2007; Sullivan, 2001). In the purposive sampling method, researchers determine criteria regarding a particular research questions; then, they separate participants into groups based on the criteria. According to this method, needs of the research and capability, assessment, and skill of the researcher are critical factors to determine the sample. In the first step, sample sizes were determined before data collection according to the research's goals, deadlines, and resources and 20 TNP peacekeeping officers made up the sample population. After starting data collection, sample sizes were determined as 19 based on theoretical satisfaction. In other words, the researchers stopped collecting data because he noticed that new participants' answers were iterative and did not contribute to the research. Data review and data analysis were done simultaneously in order to implement a successful sampling strategy. In this study, the researcher thought that the selected sample fitted the requirements of the research. The TNP peacekeeping officers can be classified according to gender, age, and marital status, as well as education, rank, and years of service as shown in Table 7 (Celik, 2010).

Table 7

Demographics of the Population

Features	Attributes	Percent
Gender	Male	99,1
	Female	0,9
Age	21-30 Years Old	0,4
	31-40 Years Old	79,1
	41-50 Years Old	20,4
Marital Status	Single	4,7
	Married	95,1
	Divorced	0,2
Education	Higher education	51,9
	Master degree	37,4
	Doctoral/JD Degree	10,6
Rank	Line officer	3,0
	Lower Level	19,8
	Manager	72,1
	Middle Level	5,1
	Manager	
	Upper Level	
Years of Service	5-10 Years	9.8
	11-20 Years	77.7
	21-30 Years	12.6

The population can be summarized as 99.1 percent male, 99.5 percent between 31 and 50 years old, 100 percent highly-educated, 97 percent managerial level officers, and 90 percent 11-30 years of service. The whole population is defined as a homogenous group. The sample was chosen based on their education backgrounds, gender, work experience, and age. In this research, the research site was the TNP personnel who have worked as peacekeeping officers at the UN. The number of the TNP officer in this category is approximately 1,500. The researcher was flexible about the sample size; theoretical saturation was a key concept about the number of samples. Therefore, the sample consisted of 19 TNP peacekeeping officers who are between 31

and 50 years old, have 11-30 years of service, and are highly educated male managers. As it can be seen in Table 7 and Table 9, demographics of the participants represented the population, and it had many parallel components of the population.

Data Collection

The researcher had a plan for categorizing and recruiting potential participants on the basis of the features of the research population and the number of the interviews. Flexibility was the key concept for data collection. In fact, the selection criteria, sampling method, and research questions could be changed if needed (Mack et al., 2005). The pilot study was helpful to determine all of the mentioned characteristics of the study. The related offices in TNP headquarters helped the researcher to reach out to the TNP peacekeeping officers who had the predetermined characteristic.

The researcher informed participants before the interviews by using a guideline that not only demonstrated the researcher's enthusiasm about the study, but also explained the study's objectives to the participants (Mack et al., 2005). In addition, the guideline was carefully prepared such that it did not include expressions that forced the officers to join the interview. It also stressed and clarified that their participation was a voluntarily activity. Official informed consent was a requirement for all qualitative research methods, no matter which sampling method was applied. Therefore, both oral and written informed consent was obtained from participants, which obviously explained the research objectives and implications of participation. Also, the researcher informed participants about estimated social and psychological risks and benefits, confidentiality issues, and autonomy of the participant to withdraw.

The researcher collected data by using semi-structured interviews that included open-ended questions. The interviewees' answers affected and shaped the interviewer's next questions. The interviews were recorded and collected as audio records; thus, the data format was called textual. Then, they were transcribed verbatim. Data collection took about 2 months. In-depth interviews were conducted with each interviewee, each lasting approximately 45 minutes. In the interviews, open-ended questions were asked to reveal the knowledge sharing process. According to Milinki (1999), if needed, additional interviews could be conducted to validate knowledge and comments, which can help the researcher to acquire any missing information, but the researcher did not need additional interviews in this study. Interviews were conducted in an appropriate atmosphere, where the interviewer and interviewee were alone and could communicate clearly. In the first part, questions were related to demographic data, such as age, ethnicity, work experience, educational background, and place of residence. In the second part, open-ended questions were asked, regarding current knowledge sharing practices, organizational culture, reward system, perspective of officers about knowledge sharing processes, as well as knowledge sharing tools and opportunities, and participants' recommendations for an effective knowledge management system. The interview questions covered three periods: before deployment, during the mission, and after the mission.

The Process of Data Collection

Researchers are active participants in data collection process for qualitative studies. Data collection and data analysis processes are as significant as the conclusions of the research in qualitative research. Therefore, the researcher explained

the data collection process in this study. During the data collection process, the researcher pursued the following steps:

- The researcher determined who would the potential participants be based on the pre-determined selection criteria.
- After determining about potential participants, the researcher tried to access the potential participants in person and invited them to join the study based on physical proximity. 8 participants accepted to conduct an interview face to face.
- In the end of every interview session, the researcher asked participants if they recommended their colleagues who could contribute to join the study.
- Three participants accepted to join the study in the basis of their colleagues' recommendations.
- Then, the researcher sent invitation emails to virtual groups, and rest of the participants were recruited by emails.
- As the data collection continues, the researcher simultaneously carried out data analysis. In other words, the researcher follows a flexible method to conduct interview sessions as it progresses alongside transcribing. Transcribing process gave an opportunity to generate conceptual clusters.
- After interviewing 15 participants, the researcher noticed that interviewees started repeating similar ideas, and they did not produce new conceptual insights. Therefore, the researcher decided stopping the interview sessions after completing 19 interviews.

Interview Process

In a qualitative study, the type of research is determined based on research goals and the information sources (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). This study aimed to gain a better understanding about the TNP officers' knowledge management practices by applying their experience and knowledge. Thus, interviewing was the best fit with the source of the information and goals of the study. An interview can be defined as an interaction process between interviewer and respondent to reveal participants' views in order to obtain reliable and valid information (Marshall & Rossman, 1989). In this study, in-depth interviews were used to understand more fully the TNP officers' perspectives, knowledge, and experiences about their knowledge sharing practices, recommendations on a new KMS model, and comments on applicability of KM models, which are sensitive subjects.

After developing criteria, the researcher started asking potential interviewees in person or by phone to join in the research and arranged a meeting for the interview. The researcher conducted 19 interview sessions. The interviews were planned as one meeting; however, it was expressed that if needed, the researcher could request second interview with some interviewees. But the researcher did not need to conduct additional sessions. Because in-person interviews allow the interviewer to record not only verbal expressions but also nonverbal cues and environmental influences, face-to-face interviews have more potential to get higher response rate and minimize the misunderstandings (Alpert & MacDonald, 2001; Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). Thus, the researcher aimed to arrange the interviews as face-to-face meetings implemented with one interviewee by asking a bunch of open-ended questions. However, interview

sessions were conducted based on availability of the participants. Therefore, the researcher conducted 8 interviews face to face, 6 interviews via Skype, and 5 interviews by phone. The first three interviews lasted around 60 minutes while the following interviews lasted approximately 40 minutes. During the two-interview sessions via Skype, the Internet connection was interrupted. It caused delay, but it did not prevent from completing of the sessions. As a result, telephone and the Internet were used to interview with some of the participants who are located in distant places. At the beginning of each interview session, the researcher briefly explained the goal of the study and interview questions. After getting interviewees' consents, the researcher recorded all interview sessions by using iPhone 4, which was so practical in recording interviews.

Although the researcher had a particular plan for interviewing, it was a flexible and iterative plan that was adapted the needs of the research based on accessibility of interviewees and emerged of new questions in the progress of the research process. Flexibility in qualitative method helped the researcher to interact effectively with participants. The researcher asked open-ended questions spontaneously; likewise, the participants answered the questions in their own expressions in interview sessions. The open-ended questions allowed the researcher to get rich-content, unexpected, descriptive, and significant answers by asking additional how and why questions. In this study, the researcher needed spontaneity and freedom to understand the TNP officers' approach on knowledge sharing and to reveal current knowledge sharing practices as well as to encourage the officer to share their ideas for a better knowledge management system. The researcher took advantage of having a less formal relationship with

participants by requesting more detailed answers and adjusting potential misunderstandings. In particular, the researcher did not force the participants to use some particular expressions to answer the questions. If required, the researcher tried to clarify some questions by paraphrasing the questions or providing examples.

In this study, the semi-structured and in-depth interviews were used as a qualitative research strategy. The semi-structured interviews allowed the researcher to probe for more details by going beyond the answers to deep into respondents' approach and experiences. Accordingly, in-depth interviews enabled the researcher to probe why the respondents answered questions in particular ways by asking immediate follow-up questions. In this study, the interviewees' responses were not assigned to predetermined categories; instead, they were recorded with the interviewees' own words as stated. Researcher can find a part of the produced knowledge in a given situation by interaction with research topic (Flick, 2007). The researcher focused on the TNP officers' individual experiences that provided insights to understand experience of other TNP peacekeeping officers' experiences in a similar context.

Besides flexibility and emic approach, an interview's success depends on asking right questions. Being familiar with interviewees' educational backgrounds, organizational cultures, and values are important factors that help the researcher to get sought information (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). In this study, the researcher was knowledgeable about the respondent's backgrounds, cultures, and values because he was a member of the same organization. Also, the researcher managed semi-structured and in-depth interviews because he had similar experiences in conducting interviews in his background. In addition, the researcher conducted emic interviews because an emic

approach provided opportunities to deeply understand the participants' viewpoints. The emic approach is the informants' perspectives about events. The emic approach includes the participants' descriptions about circumstances and activities. For that reason, its place is described at the center of the qualitative research (Boyle & Morse, 1994). When interviewers conform to their informants, they can get more pertinent information. The emic approach provided an appropriate atmosphere to understand the informants' perspectives in this study.

Pilot Study

The researcher administered a pilot study to test out his approach and identify potential problems before the final interviews were conducted. During the pilot study, the researcher interviewed with three participants. These participants joined the final research, as well. The pilot study was helpful to devise interview questions and determine the criterion in selecting interviewees. The researcher became gradually more knowledgeable about the UN peacekeeping missions, the officers, and their knowledge management practices by the means of pilot study. Thus, the researcher made some adjustments along the progress of the study about the research design, interview questions, sampling methods, and many other aspect of the study based on the emerging knowledge. In particular, the participants recommended asking open-ended questions about information sharing techniques and tools. The researcher decided asking an open-ended questions instead of mentioning the pre-determined categories including mentoring, best practices, lessons learned and so on. Also, the researcher noticed that some interview questions have redundancy; similarly, some questions are comprehensive and cover other questions' domains. After conducting the

pilot study, not only the researcher eliminated some interview questions, he also modified the research questions based on new knowledge. The pilot study helped the researcher make the necessary adjustment on the interview questions.

Interview Questions

The Table 8 demonstrates periods of the TNP officers experience and related question that aims to reveal current knowledge-sharing practices, examine the applicability of the knowledge management models to the TNP context, as well as entail the officers' advice to generate an effective knowledge-sharing model. Table 8 presents interview questions.

Table 8

Interview Questions

Before	1	After learning that you passed the exam and your mission deployment was clarified, what kinds of knowledge did you need?
	2	How did you collect knowledge? What kinds of tools and mechanisms did you use to acquire knowledge?
	3	Before starting the mission, what kinds of training programs did you join?
	4	What would make knowledge sharing among TNP officers more effective and useful before the mission?
During	5	How useful did you find the knowledge you acquired before going to mission while you were in the mission?
	6	How was the knowledge sharing when you were at the mission -on formal or informal occasions?
	7	What do you think the ideal systems, mechanisms and tools to share knowledge would be?
After	8	How did you share your experience after returning from the mission?
	9	To work up new concepts, what kinds of mechanisms and tools would be used for effective knowledge sharing? How would the experienced officers' knowledge be collected, organized, and disseminated after the mission?

Data Analysis

The researcher tries to find an appropriate mechanism to explain phenomena and events in a qualitative analysis. A well-designed qualitative analysis can make the research more scientific (Crow & Semmens, 2008). First, a researcher summarizes the descriptive data as notes before creating structure analysis. Second, diagrams and networks are used to demonstrate interactions between individuals, groups, organizations, and different concepts as well as incidents. Then, using flow charts reveals decision-making processes. Similarly, a researcher can apply cognitive maps and diagrams to understand individuals' mindsets and split the subject matter into concepts (Crow & Semmens, 2008). Researchers start data analysis after finishing data collection process in the quantitative research. However, the qualitative analysis simultaneously begins with the process of data collection and continues throughout the process of the study (Crow & Semmens, 2008). The qualitative data analysis process is flexible and consists of coding and fragmentation of the data (Crow & Semmens, 2008).

Coding is the most common approach for data analysis in the qualitative research. The researcher assigns the ideas reflected in the data to categories created earlier or during the data analysis (Richards & Morse, 2007). Coding allows the researcher to break the data into different sections by using chunks or quotations of text (Padgett, 2008). These chunks and quotations are represented in the original transcripts and the interpretation fields. Producing code is an ongoing process. At the beginning, the researcher needs to read repeatedly to discover recurring and salient expressions. Therefore, by the time of processing the researcher grasps the descriptive expression by the means of coding (Charmaz, 2006). Qualitative researchers mostly start with

open coding that requires the use of some preconceptions at the beginning of the study. Preconceptions help the researcher to make a faster data collection and analysis (Charmaz, 2006).

A qualitative coding method, which means separating data into different subjects and patterns to compare them, was used to set up systematic conclusions, and similar statements were classified (Glesne, 2010). A list of codes is established before starting the analysis, depending on organizational culture, organizational policies, officers' attitudes, and knowledge sharing tools and opportunities. The transcripts are classified by using the predetermined codes, and then the classified parts of the transcript is analyzed to understand the relationship between knowledge sharing practices and organizational culture, policies, attitudes, and tools. The researchers follow several different lines of the ideas and modify the index of the concepts (Bryman, 2004). The researcher followed the abovementioned rules in order to code the transcripts effectively.

The Process of Data Analysis

According to Baron (2008), researchers can flexibly approach to data analysis, and they are allowed to be subjective in the qualitative studies. However, these features of the qualitative studies enforce the researchers to describe cautiously used methods and to verify all of the taken steps and selected procedures. Thus, the researcher provided a detailed explanation on how data analysis process was conducted step by step:

- The researcher conducted interviews in Turkish. Each taped interview was transcribed verbatim. After transcription, the interviews were translated

into English. A team consisting of three people implemented the translation process. One of the team members was the researcher. Other team members were doctoral students at the UNT, whose English and Turkish language proficiencies were enough to examine these translations. Then a qualified editor proofread the translated documents to see if the expressions and phrases conveyed the desired meaning.

- The researcher simultaneously started conducting interviews and data analysis process. The data analysis process continued throughout the progress of the research.
- All transcripts were put into an Excel table to see and compare all of the interviewees answers on one page. The researcher read the answers of the each interviewee from Question 1 to Question 9 to enhance theoretical sensitivity. During analysis process, he asked “what, who, where, when, why, how?”
- The researcher used open-coding method for developing categories of information:
 - First, the researcher chose out one word that seems important, so the salient categories examined in the transcripts.
 - Second, the researcher labeled phenomena assigning codes to the transcripts. The researcher continued coding process by describing the codes clearly and briefly.

- Third, the researcher constantly compared until saturation emerged. In other words, he continued looking for salient ideas until new data did not contribute into the category.
- This process was used for three different periods: before the mission, during the mission, and after the mission. Before the mission period covered of the first four questions. During the mission period consisted of Questions 5, 6, and 7. After the mission period comprised Questions 8 and 9.
- As the coding process progresses, the researcher built close links between categories and data and compared data in the same category; thus, some codes were eliminated, and similar codes were combined in a single code.
- Based on these codes, the researcher made a code list. The researcher investigated interviewees' answers by using these code lists. Thus, the researcher figured out which codes took places in each interviewee's answers. The researcher counted the salient codes. Then, a table and a graph were designed for each question. These tables demonstrated the prominent topics and concept for individual interviewees and whole sample.
- Then, the researcher broke down the transcripts into concepts in order to produce an index of concepts. In the next step, the researcher made a concept file to improve the initial concept list. Finally, the researcher will

combine the concepts to generate categories; and wrote the narrative parts.

Validity and Reliability

Although both qualitative and quantitative researchers have to test and verify their research credibility, they need to use different methods. While credibility is based on instrument structure in quantitative research, in qualitative research “the researcher is the instrument” (Patton, 2001, p. 14). Therefore, researchers’ proficiency and hard work are keys to determine a study’s credibility in qualitative research (Golafshani, 2003). On the contrary, Stenbacka (2001) claims that reliability is a concept only for quantitative research; regarding qualitative research, reliability cannot be relevant issue. According to LeCompte and Goetz (1982), although quantitative research relies on internal validity, external validity, reliability, and objectivity, qualitative researchers use credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility is measured by providing information regarding subjects, inquiries, and causal and substantial factors. Transferability is measured based on identification of theoretical parameters, research methods, and characteristics of groups. Dependability is measured relying on definitions of relationships between researchers and participants, descriptions of social and physical contexts, and identification of changing situations. Confirmability is measured depending on representation of finding data (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982).

Generally speaking, the main goal of qualitative research is to understand deeply a phenomenon rather than to test its characteristics (Golafshani, 2003). Validity and reliability concepts are different in qualitative research from quantitative studies. Stenbacka (2001) emphasizes that in a qualitative study, reliability cannot be discussed

as a standard. Reliability in qualitative research is directly related to “generating understanding” (Stenbacka, 2001, p. 551). Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 300) prefer using “dependability” that represents the concept of “reliability” in qualitative studies.

Trustworthiness of a study demonstrates its reliability and validity in qualitative studies (Seale, 1999). Reliability depends on the researcher’s competence, and validity comes with reliability in qualitative research (Patton, 2001).

Validity is a measurement process that shows the extent to which the concept is represented by what it means (Dantzker & Hunter, 2006). Validity can also be defined as a degree of representation of the social fact to which it proposes (Silverman, 2006). According to Creswell (1998), validity is a prejudiced concept in qualitative research that is embodied in the terms of trustworthiness, quality, and rigor. Generalizability is a key term to get trustworthy and justifiable results, which shows a study’s validity (Stenbacka, 2001). In other words, validity of a study depends on a study’s quality and generalizability. Triangulation can be defined as a strategy that uses multiple methods to increase a study’s validity and reliability. Triangulation is implemented by applying either different methods, such as content analysis, observation, and interviews or accepting other researchers’ helps to collect and analyze data (Johnson, 1997). Triangulation is a strategy used for testing a qualitative research’s validity and reliability and for assessing the research’s findings. Triangulation strategy helps the researcher to establish valid proposition and control biases (Golafshani, 2003).

In this research, detailed information regarding the settings of the study was provided; subjects were adequately identified and described; all factors that had an influence on subjects were examined; all of required terms were specifically identified

with all features. The researcher requested other researchers' helps to analyze data by applying triangulation. This research's method and design could be used to conduct studies about similar organizations and groups. The researcher had same educational background with the participants, which led to some advantages to understand the participants' viewpoints and organizational culture. Also, since the researcher never worked on the UN field missions, he was able to stay as an objective outsider during the research. These characteristics of the researcher and his perspective hopefully allowed him to increase the study's credibility, accuracy, and quality.

Reliability of Transcribing and Translating

Qualitative research has previously been perceived as an "English-only enterprise," and many researchers have neglected translation issues over time (Padgett, 2008, p.119). However, according to Flick (2007), qualitative researchers can make remarkable studies in different languages, as well. While anthropologists trust translators, ethnographers approach translation processes with doubts (Padgett, 2008). Translating from a text based on the meaning is an accepted method in qualitative research. In particular, after transcribing verbatim, qualitative researchers trust translation. Also, bilingual interviewers can present another effective solution for translation issues (Padgett, 2008).

In this study, although the researcher and participants were able to communicate in English, the researcher preferred using his native language - Turkish - because the participants can express their experiences and knowledge more deeply and effectively in Turkish. Had the researcher used English, the study could have been fruitless because of the lack of in-depth knowledge. The researcher brought together as a

research-analysis team of bilingual people for data analysis for this study. The researcher described all details of the study in order to help translators to grasp a deeper understanding about the research in order to decrease of the potential translation errors and misunderstandings.

Interviews sessions were conducted in Turkish by the researcher. The researcher explained each participant that these interviews sessions would be transcribed verbatim. If they wanted to extract any part of the interviews, they could do. If they wanted to tell something out of the record, it was possible. None of the participant requested censoring, which means that they confirmed the content of the interview sessions. After transcribing the audio-recorded interviews, the Turkish transcripts were translated into English by the bilingual research team. Then, a qualified proofreader edited the English translations with the researcher to check if the transcriptions retained same meanings. The researcher was aware that qualitative analysis was a demanding, time consuming and complex process that included transcribing, translating, coding and analyzing of data. Interview sessions averagely lasted 45 minutes. It took 7-8 hours to transcribe each interview. The translation process took more time than the transcribing process. However, the researcher had some help from the research team to deal with all parts of the research.

Inter-Rater Reliability

Reliability can be defined as a degree of consistency in the outcome of results is determined to be the same by varied researchers at different times (Hammersley, 1992). Reliability can be tested based on different researchers' categorizations in the same way. In other words, two researchers can analyze the same data, and their results

are compared, which is called inter-rater reliability (Silverman, 2006). Researchers get some helps for analyses of the data from different researchers to increase reliability of the study. Equally important, researchers can test if the interview questions can be understood and evaluated in the same way (Silverman, 2006). In this study, a team including the researcher and two coders examined the coding process. They separately looked for salient ideas, and made their code lists. After creating these individual code lists, data coded was elaborately compared and discussed for each text to validate against the transcripts. During these discussions, the coders do a flip-flop, which helped them see all dimensions of phenomena. Finally a mutual list was created for each text. For example, the peacekeepers mentioned some feature of their daily lives in the field missions. The researcher called it “atmosphere,” while one of the coders defined it as environment. After discussions, “social settings” was found as a mutual code. These discussions helped to create validated connections among categories, as well.

Ethical Considerations

Giving autonomy to the participants, decreasing the potential risks for them, sharing benefits with them, and being respectful of their values and interests are primary ethical principles (Marshall, 2003). Establishing trust between participants and researchers is a key concept in qualitative research. A researcher can follow ethical rules by considering participants’ needs and vulnerabilities. For example, a researcher cannot allow the study to threaten the participants’ lives because protection of the participant is the most important concern in qualitative research. In the qualitative research, researchers cannot easily apply all ethical guidelines strictly. Although the

qualitative studies rarely trigger risky situations, their flexible characteristics may cause ethical dilemmas (Padgett, 2008).

Deception is one of the dangerous issues, in qualitative research. The researchers are not allowed to conceal the content of their studies nor their roles in those studies. Marshall (2003) defines informed consent as a constant and assigned process that is another important component of ethics. Informed consent includes a brief explanation about the research, the researcher's identity and personal information, the rights of the participants, the confidentiality disclosure, and the risks and benefits (Marshall, 2003). Likewise, deformed consent is another process that shows that the researchers do not use any threat or coercion to convince the participants to join the study. The researchers are not allowed to disclose the participants' identities or information linked to the participant. In terms of time and inconvenience, many researchers offer incentives to the participants. As long as budget is available, offering some incentives and paybacks can be useful to encourage involvement (Padgett, 2008).

In order to prevent potential ethical problems, the researcher adhered to the ethical rules in this study. The researcher obviously explained the nature of the research and his role in the study. The researcher also made a brief description of the study by expressing the number of interviewees and the duration of the research. The researcher also gave his contact information such as address, email address and phone number, indicated volunteer position of the participants, assured the confidentiality, and explained risks and benefits caused by the study. Coercion and threat could be an issue in this study because the researcher and the participants were members of the TNP,

which was a hierarchical organization, and they had a hierarchy between them. Thus, the researcher stated that potential participants were free to reject joining the study in the consent form, as well.

The identities of the participant were not revealed due to confidentiality. In fact, revealing the participants' personal information could damage their career path in the organization. If the researcher thought that a question might be harmful for participants' professional positions or career paths, the question would be cancelled. But the researcher did not encounter this kind of situation. The researcher emphasized philanthropic aspects of the study, such as benefits of the study for the TNP's development and competitiveness in order to encourage participation.

The Institutional Review Boards (IRB) is a federally obligatory system that controls ethical standards of the research in the United States. This study was assessed and permitted by the UNT Institutional Review Board on March 14 2012. As a prerequisite of the IRB approval process, TNP approved the study before beginning the research. The researcher had the certificate of human-subject protection and took the approval of the IRB before starting the data collection. The letter of IRB approval and attached Consent Notice for Interviewees are presented in Appendix.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the study as designated in Chapter 3. The researcher conducted interviews to reveal how the peacekeepers shared their knowledge before deployment, during their tour of duties, and after returning from the mission. The researcher's additional goal is to solicit the peacekeepers ideas and recommendation to implement better knowledge-sharing practices for the aforementioned stages. In order to achieve these goals, the researcher conducted semi-structured, face-to-face, telephone, and online interviews with 19 participants. Nine open-ended questions were asked to the participants during the interview sessions. The answers were divided into two main categories based on the research questions: current practices and participants' recommendation. Current practices and participants' recommendations are investigated in pre-determined three stages: before the mission, during the mission, and after the mission. This chapter describes the findings and analysis of the study.

Interviewee Demographics

In this study, all participants were male. Except one of them, all interviewees were high-ranking officers. Fifteen out of 19 interviewees were deployed one time. Seven of these interviewees were deployed in Kosovo; five of them were deployed were deployed in Haiti, two interviewees were deployed in Liberia; one interviewee was deployed in Bosnia. Four out of 19 interviewees deployed two times. Their deployment years vary, ranging from 1998 to 2010. Likewise, their job tenures vary, ranging 11 to 21

years. When they were deployed, 10 interviewees were working in headquarters while 9 interviewees were working in provinces. The data for demographics of the interviewees are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Demographics of the Interviewees

Participants	Mission	Tour of Duty Year	Department in the TNP	Service Year
Interviewee1	Kosovo	2003	Headquarters	14
Interviewee2	Kosovo	2004	Headquarters	14
Interviewee3	Kosovo	2006	Province	14
Interviewee4	Kosovo	2003	Province	17
Interviewee5	Kosovo	2003	Province	17
Interviewee6	Kosovo	2002	Headquarters	16
Interviewee7	Kosovo	2005	Province	15
Interviewee8	Bosnia	2000	Province	17
Interviewee9	Haiti	2007	Headquarters	11
Interviewee10	Haiti	2009	Headquarters	17
Interviewee11	Haiti	2008	Headquarters	11
Interviewee12	Haiti	2008	Headquarters	11
Interviewee13	Haiti	2009	Headquarters	11
Interviewee14	Liberia	2005	Province	14
Interviewee15	Liberia	2008	Province	15
Interviewee16	Kosovo/Liberia	2003/2006	Province	15
Interviewee17	Bosnia/East Timor	2001/2004	Headquarters	17
Interviewee18	Bosnia/Kosovo	1998/2003	Province	21
Interviewee19	Kosovo/Sudan	2002/2010	Headquarters	16

Research Questions 1: The Existing Knowledge-Sharing Practices

In this study, the first research question is “What are the current knowledge-sharing practices among Turkish peacekeepers?” The researcher asks this question to uncover current situation, reveal obstacles preventing the peacekeepers from sharing knowledge, and understand the dynamics motivating the peacekeepers to share their

experiences. The researcher asks the same question for three different periods: before the mission, during the mission, and after the mission.

Before the Mission

In this study, the researcher asked Question 1, Question 2, and Question 3 to grasp an understanding of the present knowledge-sharing practices among peacekeepers before the mission. Responses of the interviewees clarified what types of knowledge the peacekeepers needed and which mechanisms and tools they used.

Information Need (Interview Question 1)

Question 1 is “What kinds of knowledge did you need?” Question 1 helped the researcher to understand what sort of information the peacekeepers need before being deployed in the field missions. The participants mentioned 33 different sorts of information. Table 10 presents needed information types according to distribution of participants and repetition.

Table 10

Sort of Information Participants Need

Needed Information	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
1. Family-Related Issues		
1.1. Family issues	10	22
1.2. Education	4	4
1.3. Renting house/Sheltering	6	9
2. General Information about the mission area		
2.1. History	2	2
2.2. Geographical location	1	1
2.3. Language	1	1
2.4. Population	1	1

(table continues)

Table 10 (continued).

Needed Information	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
2.5.The reason why mission was created	1	3
3. Quality of Life		
3.1. Living conditions	12	16
3.2. Social settings/General situation	9	11
3.3. Climate	3	4
3.4. Cost of living	4	5
3.5. Culture	5	6
3.6.Food	7	7
3.7. Health	6	13
3.8. People	2	2
3.9. Safety and Security	11	21
3.10. Transportation/Trip procedures/Travel	3	3
4. Potential Challenges	7	10
5. Urgent Needs		
5.1 What to bring as belonging/stuff/needs	5	6
5.2. Clothes	4	4
5.3. Kitchen Utensils	1	1
6. Job-Related Concerns		
6.1 Working conditions	5	5
6.2. Being successful in the job/Emerging exams	5	6
6.3. Communication in English	5	5
6.4. Duties	3	3
6.5. Hierarchy/Positions	2	3
6.6. Posts/Where to work	5	6
6.7. Relationships in Turkish force	1	1
6.8. Salaries	2	3
6.9. Using technical apparatus like radio	1	1
6.10. Work hours at the mission	1	2
6.11. Working with foreign peacekeepers	6	7

According to findings, needed information can be classified in the following six main groups: family-related issues, general information about the field missions, quality of life, potential difficulties, urgent needs and job-related concerns. Figure 5 illustrates that life-related information appears as the most important group. Job-related concerns follow life-related information. Family-related issues are the third group to be known by the participants. These three groups of information are followed in turn by needs, difficulties, and general information.

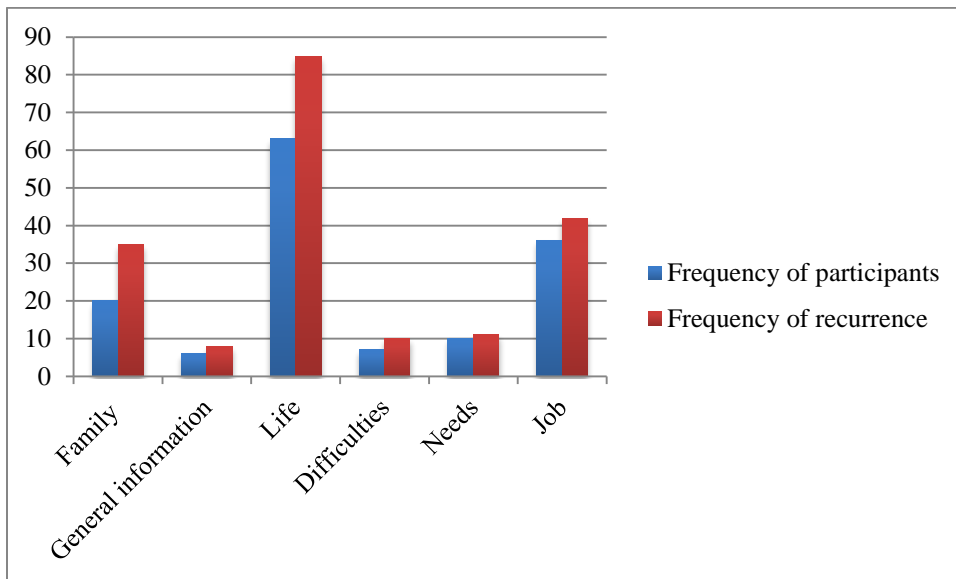


Figure 5. Main groups of information participants need

Living conditions.

As can be seen in Figure 6, the most important aspects of the field missions for participants are the living conditions, suitability for their families, and safety and security of the environment. The participants express that first thing they want to know is the field missions' living conditions. Interviewee 11 described the reason why living conditions are important for him:

What I wondered about the field missions was the living conditions. I was concerned about it. I was newly married and we had to separate from my wife for two years. She was a teacher, and due to our assignments and my mandatory military service we had experienced these difficulties before the mission. Therefore, I was considering how to bring my family with me.

Safety and security.

Most participants were concerned about safety and security issues as much as living conditions. The statements of Interviewee 16 support this assumption:

First, I was concerned about safety and security issues. Briefly, I first asked safety conditions to my experienced colleagues. For example, there were snipers in Kosovo etc. Second, sheltering and cost of life. It was important to get answers of the following questions. Are there electricity and water? Can you go with your family? If my family comes with me, would they be comfortable? In brief, I started asking questions with safety-related issues, and then, life conditions, food, electricity, and water.

Family issues.

Living with family is one of the most significant matters for participants. Particularly important was the knowledge that if they would bring their families with them to the field missions. The experience of Interviewee 12 explains this situation openly:

I had a plan to go there with my family; I mean with my wife. We were newly wed, so I was concerned about living there with my wife. I wondered how the conditions about safety and security were.

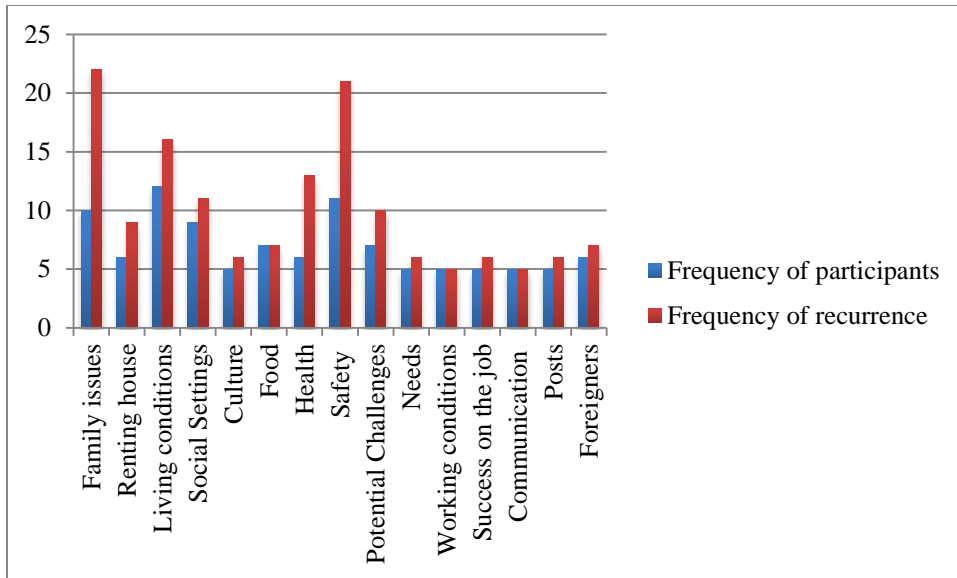


Figure 6. Needed prominent types of information by participants

Social settings.

Equally important, participants are interested in the field missions' social settings, food, and potential difficulties. For instance, Interviewee 8 explained why he appreciated the training course, implemented in the TNP headquarter: "The training was particularly prominent for me because I found the answer of the questions in my mind including about the present situation, food, etc."

Potential difficulties.

In the same way, participants suffered from lack of knowledge about field missions, resulting in uncertainty and vagueness. Interviewee 13, in fact, expressed this challenge and his anxiety in the following explanation:

Although the TNP had information about the missions, you had to fly 15 hours to reach your mission. It was too far. You did not have any idea what to face. Eventually, the mission was a challenging area, and I did not know what to come across when arrived.

Like the expression of Interviewee 13, Interviewee 15's statements show that the participants had ambiguity and confusion before being deployed due to potential difficulties expecting them in the field missions.

Consequently, we could not go there in peace; on the contrary, we had lots of questions in our minds. According to information on Internet, there was an ongoing war and the situation was not good.

In the same fashion, participants wanted to know every aspect of the mission life; thus, they tried various methods to get detailed answers for their questions. Interviewee 17 explained how much effort they put into the process of information gathering before going to the field mission:

As a group of six newly deployed peacekeepers, we found a senior colleague and met with him in Ankara –the capital of Turkey, had worked in East Timor. During our two-hours meeting, we asked all the questions in our minds to this senior colleague by finding out all details involving the name of the barbershops, hotels, restaurants, and stores we could go.

Health and work conditions.

Moreover, the participants expressed their other concerns; such as renting a house, knowing the working conditions, communicating with foreign officers, being successful on the job and protecting their health. Especially noteworthy were health issues and working conditions. Most participants wanted to know about health conditions, diseases, and treatment options that exist in their destinations. Interviewee 13 discussed how to look for health information and resources and to how to deal with job-related problems:

Health issues were important, such as sanitary requirements, vaccination and medical resources. I have some questions in my mind including the following: "if we became sick, what would be the treatment process?" Besides health issues, it was important to work with foreign people. There were peacekeepers from 42

countries in Haiti including Bangladesh, Jordan, Canada, the USA, France, Norway, etc. I had many questions like these: would we get along with the people we would work with? Would our language be sufficient? Would our professional knowledge be enough?

Like Interviewee 13, Interviewee 15 mentioned that there was little information and numerous questions about health and work conditions in his mind after being assigned the mission:

The following questions were in my mind: “Where would we work? What would our position be? What would our duties be? Would we be successful or would we be fail? Where would we stay and live? In what ways would our health be affected?”

The same was true for Interviewee 16. He added his worries about international working environments. “In the first mission you could have some concerns such as working with foreign officers, communicating via radio, and adapting to the environment.”

Differences between missions.

Interviewees have been deployed in Kosovo, Haiti, Liberia, Bosnia, Sudan, and East Timor. Kosovo and Bosnia have similar characteristics in terms of geographical area, culture, food, etc. Likewise, Haiti and Liberia are similar, but both are culturally and physically different than Turkey. As can be seen in Table 11 and Figure 7, peacekeepers, which were deployed in Kosovo/Bosnia and Haiti/Liberia, need different kinds of knowledge and their information needs vary concerning safety, success on the job, and communication. According to findings, peacekeepers deployed in Haiti and Liberia were feeling more anxious about communicating with foreign coworkers at the UN and needed more information on working with their foreign associates. Interviewee 13 -being deployed in Haiti- expressed his concerns about working internationally:

Besides, it is important to work with foreign people. There are peacekeepers from 42 countries in Haiti including Bangladesh, Jordan, Canada, the USA, France, Norway, etc. Will we get along with people we work with? Will our language be sufficient? Will our professional knowledge be enough?

Table 11

Comparison of Needed Information

Needed Information	Fields Missions	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Health	Haiti/Liberia	4	10
	Kosovo/Bosnia	1	1
Safety	Haiti/Liberia	6	11
	Kosovo/Bosnia	3	7
Success on the Job	Haiti/Liberia	4	5
	Kosovo/Bosnia	0	0
Communication	Haiti/Liberia	3	3
	Kosovo/Bosnia	1	1

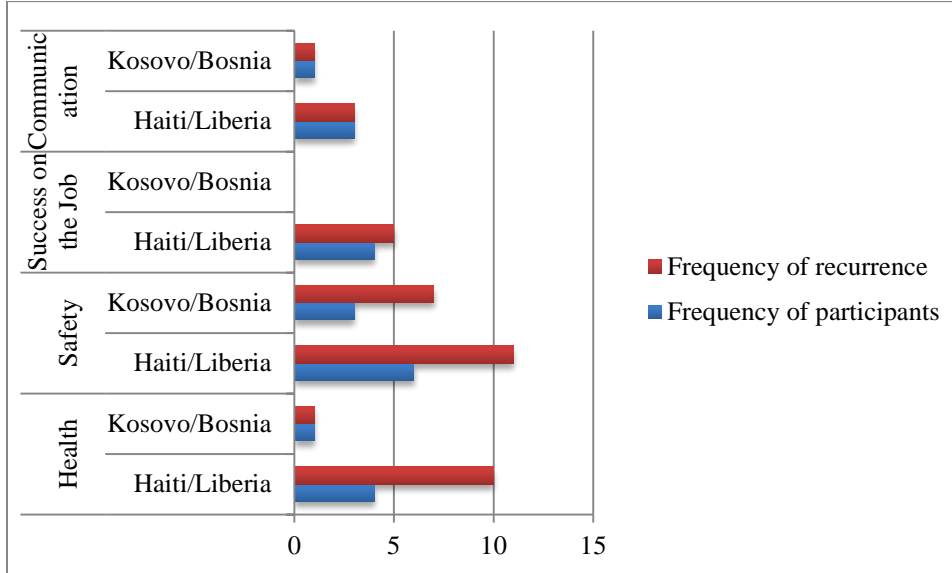


Figure 7. Differences of information needs based on different field missions.

In the same way, while none of the participants deployed in Kosovo or Bosnia mentioned any distress about being successful on the job, most participants deployed in Haiti or Liberia expressed their worries about accomplishing requirements of the work.

Similarly, perceptions of peacekeepers, deployed in Haiti/Liberia and Kosovo/Bosnia differ from each other. Health is one of the most critical issues in Haiti and Liberia due to environmental factors. Malaria was a big threat for peacekeepers. On the other hand, Kosovo and Bosnia were accepted as secure areas regarding contagious diseases. Interviewee 14, 15, and 16 -deployed in Liberia- emphasized the importance of disease and health conditions, especially Malaria for them:

The first concern was health because living conditions in Liberia were worse than those of other countries. Second was safety and security. Third was the work and policing at the UN (Interviewee 14). We were getting some information from our colleagues on the basis of hearsay. For example, I heard that one out of four people living in Africa die of malaria in Africa (Interviewee 15). Specifically, my second mission was Liberia, and I was concerned about malaria and similar diseases (Interviewee 16).

Although safety and security is a hot topic for all field missions, Liberia and Haiti were less secure than Kosovo and Liberia in the eyes of participants. Interviewee 13 explained his approach about safety and health:

Safety and security! To me, safety always comes first. Second, health issues were important, such as vaccinations and living conditions. I had some questions in my mind involving “if we became sick, what would be the treatment process?”

The Peacekeeper’s Information Seeking Behavior (Interview Question 2)

Question 2 is “How did you collect knowledge? What kinds of tools and mechanisms did you use to acquire knowledge?” Question 2 established how the interviewees collected information, and what mechanisms and tools they used. Interviewees pointed out three units in order to explain how they collected information before being deployed on field missions. These units are source and tools of information, factors, and type. Table 12 shows what features are significant for interviewees in collecting information. Interviewees applied four major sources by using

three main tools and by considering two factors to get knowledge before going to field missions.

Table 12

Units Related to Information Collecting

Sections	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Knowledge-sharing tools		
Colleague	17	36
Training course	2	2
Written document	2	3
Internet	10	14
Email	7	10
Phone	6	7
Factors		
Close relationship	6	7
Physical proximity	3	3
Type of information		
Formal	0	0
Informal	3	3

Knowledge-sharing sources and tools.

According to the interviewees' answers, information sources may be divided into four main categories: colleagues, training courses, written documents, and Internet. As can be seen in the Figure 8, a great majority of the participants applied their colleagues to get information about field missions, representing 17 out of 19. This very high proportion indicates that colleagues are the main source for interviewees before being

deployed. Interviewees employed the Internet as a second major source, being responsible for 10 out of 19. Training courses and written documents were the other rarely used information sources for interviewees, both representing 2 out of 19.

Colleagues

Interviewees mostly learned from their experienced associates; some of them were at the field missions while others were in Turkey. Regardless of their present locations, experienced peers and colleagues were the most important information source for the interviewees. Interviewee 8 revealed his information sources:

I tried to get information from my friend. Experienced peacekeepers were my main source of information, some of them had just returned, while others were waiting to deploy for the second or third time. I had a senior colleague; we worked in the same city. We sat for the exam together. We made a search together about the UN system, vacancies, and the organizational culture as well as requirements for being a UN employee. TNP members have an approach about dealing with new situations and initial challenges.

Interviewees think if somebody before them achieved a goal and completed a mission, they strongly believe they can do the same thing effortlessly. This perspective stems from the organizational culture of the TNP. The organizational culture makes people more confident about collecting information, as well. Interviewee 7 clarified why he preferred their colleagues as main information sources and why he chose face-to-face communication:

I was sure when I went to the mission my colleagues would help me and answer all my questions. Maybe, it depends on graduating from same university, I mean Police Academy. I got some information from experienced peacekeepers. I preferred to meet face to face with my close friends. In order to ask everything in my mind, I would rather to talk face to face than email or talk on the phone. If I sent an email to ask some question, people would answer in ten different ways. One or two of them could have my needed answer. In contrast, I could ask whatever I want face to face. I chose my close friends to meet face to face.

Interviewee 13 emphasized the difficulty of the first mission and importance of experienced colleagues' advice:

I communicated with familiar people who were at the field mission. I got information from my peers by meeting face to face. It was important to find people who went through the same process because the first assignment and appointment was challenging. We had to deal with a lot of paper work such as visas. We got our experienced peers' support.

Internet

The Internet was the second major source to get information about field missions. In fact, if one could not reach an experienced colleague, the Internet would be a unique source for him. Interviewee 13 and 6 described this situation:

Frankly, except for the Internet, we did not have another information source. The information on the Internet is not fulfilling (Interviewee 13). I made a search about Kosovo on the Internet. Even though there was no Google, as there is today, some information could be found (Interviewee 6).

Training Course

Joining a training course was another way to get information for interviewees.

Interviewee 3 made a classification between information sources:

If I made a classification, the most useful source would be my friends and their experience. Training courses were equally important because the trainers were experienced senior colleagues and their experiences were amazing. One important thing was written documents.

Written Document

As Interviewee 3 indicated, written documents are another important source of information. Interviewee 12 explained the usefulness of a well-prepared written document:

I ran into one of my experienced senior colleagues' article in the *International Police Association (IPA) Magazine*. He shared his memories with some pictures

in the article. I read the article. Also, I made a search on Internet. Then, the article and pictures in the magazine were satisfactory. He was discussing the positive parts of the Haiti mission, and it was very well detailed, even mentioning one by one every single thing to put into your luggage. This article helped me prepare.

Also, Interviewee 4's descriptions are a good example of practicality of written documents that shows the importance of informal information for them:

There were some written documents prepared by experienced peacekeepers. This was informal information, including the experiences of the expert peacekeepers. One of my experienced friends emailed the document to me saying "I have a document that can be useful for you." My friends gave information about some specific place and did not advise to go to certain places by emphasizing risk and mentioning "Serbians and Albanian live together in this state, so do try not to go there."

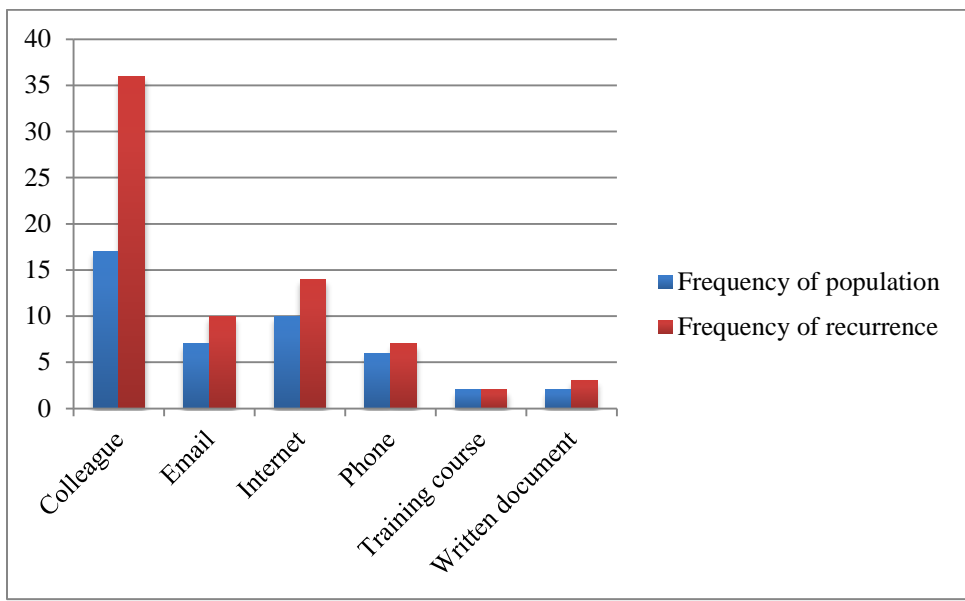


Figure 8. Knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools used by peacekeepers in pre-mission period

The Email and Phone

Most participants simultaneously communicated by applying various methods including email and phone. In particular, they talked on the phone, with 6 out of 19; they

practiced emailing slightly more than phone, with 7 out of 19. Interviewee 5 expressed this point:

We used our friends to get information. Before the mission exam, we met some of our friends, who had encouraged us to take the exam and to get information. Also, we found email addresses of some colleagues. They were at the mission field, and we communicated with them via email.

Using email is a significant way to gather information. Interviewees used email when they did not have the opportunity to meet face to face. Interviewee 13 emphasized how to use email:

First, the team secretary in the mission informed us via email. After passing the exam, our names were added to the email group, which was created to communicate on the mission. This was an information network to share knowledge. Second, I talked with the team secretary via Skype and MSN. I got information from the secretary by asking questions.

Factors.

The factors had a significant effect on getting information may be classified, depending on interviewees' answers, into close relationships and physical proximity. Table 13 and Figure 9 demonstrate that having close relationships with information sources is more important than having physical proximity.

Close Relationship

Participants emphasized that being colleagues is not enough to share knowledge. Hierarchical aspects of TNP's organizational culture prevent people from easily and freely asking questions to meet their information needs. Because of the hierarchical structure of the TNP, one cannot ask comfortably all questions in his mind. However, a close friendship facilitates the knowledge sharing process by enabling part of the communication to feel sincere. Interviewee 16's expressions reveal this point:

You cannot directly call any of your senior colleagues to ask some questions. I have my senior colleagues in Kosovo; however, you cannot feel as comfortable while asking them some question as asking your peers.

Interviewee 17's explanations support this approach:

Asking a senior colleague depends on your relations. My advantage was to have close friends, who had experienced about missions. My peers made me feel better and increased my self-confidence by saying "do not worry, we can deal with all the problems together." After hearing these, I was prone to leave the thing to the flow.

In the same way, Interviewee 1 and 3 described the effect of having a close relationship in sharing knowledge:

I could share knowledge with the people who are my close friends or peers. If only you could ask people who are your peers and get along with you. Otherwise, you could not ask detailed questions (Interviewee 1). I was able to collect information from experienced peacekeepers because we were working together at the headquarters, and we were close friends (Interviewee 2).

Like Interviewee 1 and 3, Interviewee 9 highlighted the value of taking advantages of close relationships:

I had a friend in Haiti, who was working in the human resources and training department as the chief of the division. We communicated with each other by phone and emails. He met with us in New York. His wife and I were in the same group, so we were close with each other. I did not have a trouble because we went there informed. We acquired all information from my friend. He told us "you will get a visa on time like that; you will follow this process, and do so and so etc." The TNP gave us boots and coats before going to Haiti. My friend told us "do not bring any winter clothes; you will not even need a sweater. If you find official t-shirts, bring them with you." He helped us more than the department helped.

Physical Proximity

In the same fashion, physical proximity is an important factor that has a positive impact on sharing knowledge practices. Interviewee 6's experience describes this situation vividly:

Since I was working in the Police Academy, I asked some questions to my Albanian students, although they were not from Kosovo. Then I requested a list of words and sentences to make small talks including “how are you? I am a police officer? Etc.” I mean I tried to prepare a one page-list of police terminology to facilitate communication with local people.

Table 13

Distribution of Factors Affecting Information Gathering

Factors	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Close relationship	6	7
Physical proximity	3	3

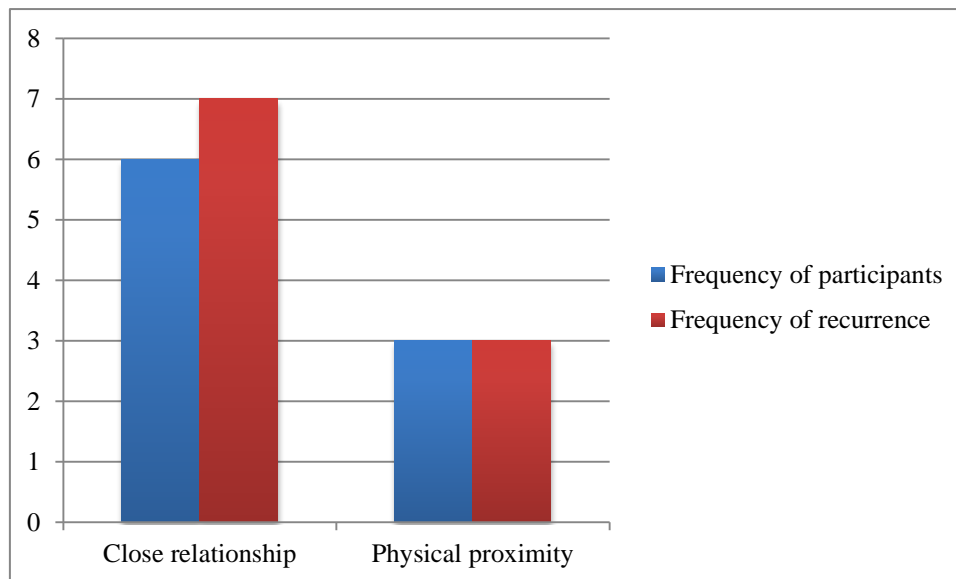


Figure 9. Distribution of factors affecting information gathering

Interviewee 10's explanation is a good example in presenting the influence of proximity to share knowledge. Working together with an experienced colleague encouraged him to improve his language skills and led him to sit for the mission exam:

I had a senior colleague; we worked together. He told me that there was a mission opportunity in Haiti, and it required French. This was a coincidence.

When I was attending French courses with my friends, two senior colleagues informed us about the Haiti mission. I feel lucky because there were some experienced senior colleagues. These senior colleagues have informed me about the mission opportunities.

Type of information.

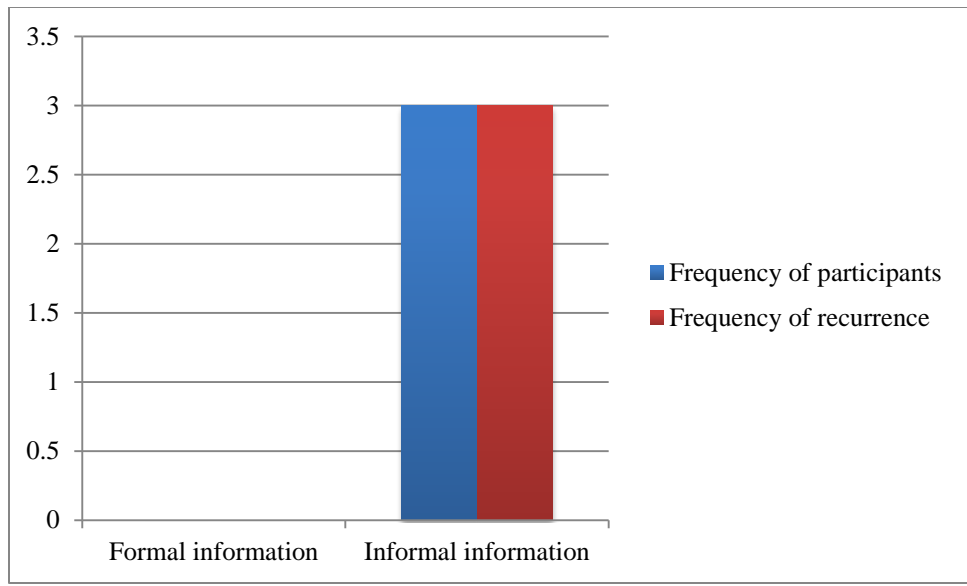
Furthermore, the shared information can be divided into two main sub-groups. As can be seen from Table 14 and Figure 10, a few interviewees mentioned practicality of informal information while none of the interviewees stated formal information. Interviewees think that informal knowledge is more useful than formal. An example of this comes up in the explanations provided by Interviewee1:

We informally collected information by asking experienced people who were our unique information sources. Our experienced peers shared their personal experiences and ideas with all details. Formal information would not be as detailed and useful as informal. The Table 15 and the Figure 11 shows how often formal and informal information were stated by the interviewees.

Table 14

Distribution of Formal and Informal Information

Type of Information	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Formal information	0	0
Informal information	3	3



*Figure 10. Distribution of formal and informal information
Differences between missions.*

Moreover, there are not significant differences between viewpoints of interviewees in terms of information sources. As mentioned above, Haiti and Liberia have many similarities, such as a lack of adequate amenities or accommodation as well as distance from Turkey. Kosovo differs from Haiti and Liberia in a number of important ways as far as means are concerned. Comparing seven interviewees' answers from the Kosovo mission and five interviews' answers from Haiti and two interviewees' answers from Liberia - a total of seven - demonstrates this assessment. Whereas interviewees from the Kosovo mission preferred communication in person, interviewees from the Haiti and Liberia missions hardly selected face-to-face communication. In contrast to interviewees from the Kosovo mission, interviewees from the Haiti and Liberia missions preferred to communicate by email, which is displayed in Table 15 and in Figure 11.

Table 15

Comparison of Means in Kosovo and Haiti/Liberia

Mission	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Kosovo By email	2	3
Haiti/Lib. By email	4	5
Kosovo Face-to-face	5	7
Haiti/Lib. Face-to-face	1	1

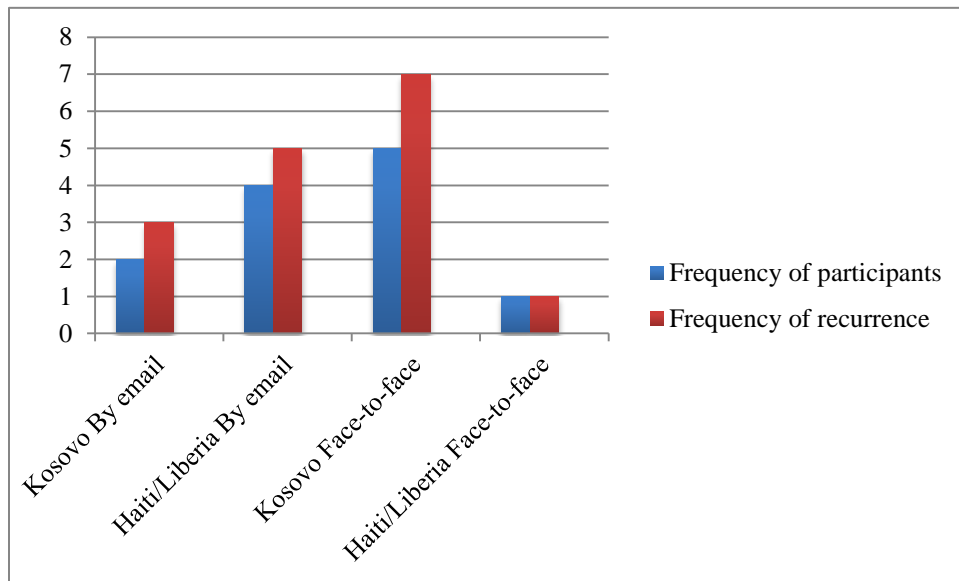


Figure 11. Comparison of means in Kosovo and Haiti/Liberia

Interviewee 15 who was being deployed to Liberia said that the Internet was a single source for him because he suffered from a lack of familiar people who were deployed in the same field mission before him.

I tried to search on the Internet. I could not get enough information because I did not know anybody who was deployed to Liberia. Except an email address of senior colleagues, who were in Liberia, I had no means of collecting any useful information. As a result, I just collected information on the Internet.

Interviewees' choices of information sources and means are based on what is available in the deployed location. As a consequence of an inadequate number of familiar people who returned from field missions in Haiti or Liberia, it appears that the

interviewees deployed on these missions could not collect satisfactory information.

Interviewee 14's expressions support this assumption:

We just contented ourselves with knowledge that was provided by some experienced peacekeepers. I communicated with experienced people depending on their position. If they presently worked those days, I emailed them; if they returned, I called them.

The differences between interviewees' preferences can be explained in two ways. First, the Kosovo field mission is the first mission with Bosnia for Turkish peacekeepers. It was established in 1999; thus, newcomers could access adequate number of experienced people in the same physical environment to get information. The interviewees deployed in Kosovo could meet face to face with their experienced colleagues because there were many to choose from. In contrast, the Haiti and Liberia missions opened relatively late. The Liberia mission was established in 2003; the Haiti mission was established in 2004. Therefore, it was hard to find experienced people to ask questions of. The difficulty of reaching experienced people in person would lead them to communicate by email (United Nations, 2011a). Second, since Internet usage has been progressively increased, the results seem typical considering the field missions' establishing dates.

Training Programs (Interview Question 3)

As mentioned in the second question, interviewees pointed out four information sources: colleagues, the Internet, written documents, and training courses. Access and utilization of the first three sources depends on newly deployed officers' individual energy and enthusiasm. On the other hand, training courses are a unique tool officially used by International Relations Department (IRD) of the TNP to inform newcomers

before deploying on mission fields. Question 3 is “Before starting mission, what kinds of training programs did you join?” Question 3 tried to establish what kind of training the peacekeepers attended before the mission. Interviewees’ assessments for usefulness of the training programs give clues about its effectiveness.

When asked what kinds of training programs they joined, the interviewees expressed that the TNP has not had a policy to inform peacekeepers systematically. The data presented in Table 16 and Figure 12 shows that six interviewees said that they had not joined any training program, except some short explanations about their urgent needs on the field missions and required paperwork; eight interviewees joined a training program; two interviewees could not join by claiming excuses; two interviewees did not answer the question.

Table 16
Distribution for the Training Program

Training courses	Frequency of participants
Not implemented	7
Not answer	2
Implemented	8
Not joined	2

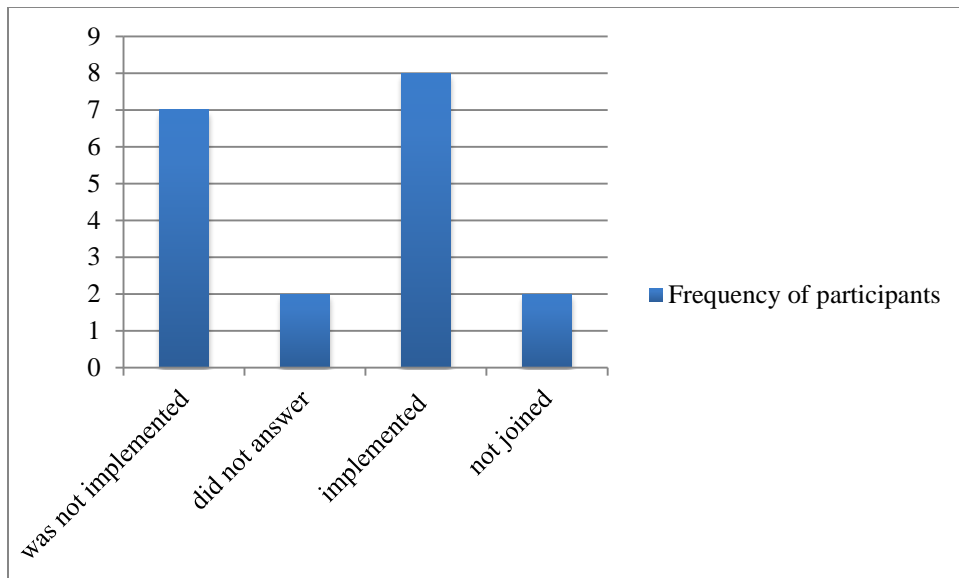


Figure 12. Distribution for the training program

The six interviewees, who did not attend any training program, were deployed in Kosovo in 2002 and 2003. It appears that the TNP did not have a training program targeting the Kosovo field mission in those years. For example, Interviewee 16 pointed out some informal meeting arranged to inform them before leaving from Turkey to field missions. However, these practices were not led by the TNP:

When we went on the Liberia mission, we were getting our clothes and stuff. Some experienced colleagues talked with us about the mission. Even this conversation was useful for us. As a result, an official meeting was not conducted.

Nine interviewees reported that they joined an official training course before being deployed. Nonetheless, they described these courses as inadequate and insufficient. Their answers indicate that training sessions vary based on years and missions. Some interviewees described the training as a one-hour training course while others labeled it as a five-day training program. Consequently, it is an obvious fact that training sessions were not standard or consistent. Thus, most interviewees called

training sessions as impractical and useless, whereas others defined it as a bona fide effort to inform them. Interviewee 15, who deployed in Liberia, joined a training program, but he did not find the content of the course relevant to his field mission:

The international Relations Department conducted a three-hour training course. Generally speaking, it was about the etiquette of working with foreign people. During the training, I tried to find a person who went to Liberia, but nobody was there. Also, I expected something about Liberia, but it was not covered.

It is noteworthy that two interviewees deployed in Haiti mentioned that they could not join training courses because they did not even have enough time to complete bureaucratic procedures including getting visas, filling out required forms, and dealing with gathering urgent stuff, thereby missing implemented training programs. Interviewee 12's story is a good example of this situation:

There was a training course before the mission. But I did not attend because I was just married. I had to go to the mission in ten days after getting married. In these ten days, I had to finish many official procedures, such as my assignment and my wife's paper work to come with me. I heard from my peers that some information was given about the Haiti during the training in Turkey. This process was done hastily and carelessly when we went. Therefore, I could not join the training. I had many personal and official things before going to the mission. We were two groups as successful candidates. One group had to go in one week; the other had two-weeks to leave.

Like Interviewee 12, Interviewee 9 could not join the training course. He claimed that the TNP did not have an efficient strategy to inform new peacekeepers since the personnel were in charge of implementing training courses did not have enough experience and knowledge about the field missions:

2-3 days before leaving to Turkey for Haiti, we were notified about an informational meeting. I could not join, but I heard that an experienced peacekeeper from the Haiti mission came and talked about his experiences. The meeting was conducted in the TNP International Relations Department, and the needs and general situation were explained by an experienced peacekeeper. But

it was not an official training. The International Relations Department did not have a systematic approach. I had a friend in the office of abroad assignment unit, who had never been deployed on a mission. I know from what he told me that they only did paperwork.

Meanwhile, two interviewees did not answer the question regarding the TNP's approach to providing information for newly deployed peacekeepers.

During the Mission

The researcher asked question 5 and question 6 to reveal practicality of the collected knowledge before the mission and the effectiveness of knowledge sharing practices during the mission.

Usefulness of Collected Information (Interview Question 5)

Question 5 is "How useful did you find the knowledge you acquired before going to the mission while you were in the mission?" Question 5 helped verify the usefulness of collected knowledge and the practicality of the peacekeepers knowledge-sharing practices before deployment. According to an analysis of the data, 13 out of 19 interviewees said that the process of information gathering was adequate and useful. Although they assessed collected information on living conditions as helpful, 7 out of interviewees emphasized its insufficiency and ineffectiveness on living and working conditions. 5 out of 19 interviewees found the process unsatisfactory and insufficient. 4 out of 19 interviewees focused on the subjective characteristic of collected knowledge. 3 out of 19 interviewees emphasized the importance of posting issues. 2 out of 17 mentioned the influence of personality on information seeking. Table 17 and Figure 13 shows the answers of interviewees and prominent concepts.

Table 17

Answers of Participants and Prominent Concepts

Answers and prominent concepts	Frequency of participants
Yes	13
Life/Work	7
Personal characteristic	2
Posts	3
Subjective	4
Would be better	4
No	7

For instance, Interviewee 1 said that his experienced colleagues' recommendations about daily life helped him, but he still felt a lack of job-related formal information:

I think the information we had collected before the mission was quite useful. Before deployment, I was able to know what I would encounter and how I would experience the mission. In particular, I got information about food, health, accommodation, and relationships with people. I did not experience the same difficulties as my friends because I benefited from my colleagues' experiences. For example, one of my friends shared with me his experiences, warned me not to do something and advised other things to do. Due to his recommendation, I became cautious and prepared. In this case, informal information became important and improved my life substantially. Formal information was also significant and practical. In fact, if I knew what is right based on laws and regulations, I would protect my personal right. When I saw an unfair practice, I could stop it by saying "what are you doing?" If you have information in your hand about your rights, it would be of great benefit. However, nobody informed us formally.

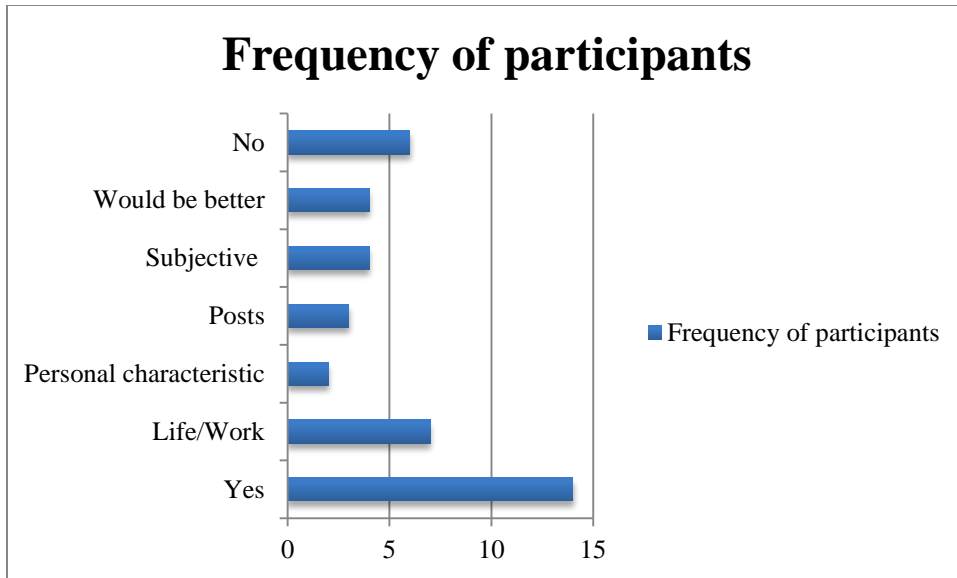


Figure 13. Answers of participants and prominent concepts

Interviewee 3 reported the same problem about working life:

Being informed definitely had a major impact. I felt I had gone there, before deployment. Information on living conditions and daily routines is relevant. It was helpful for way of life and family issues, as well. However, it did not help too much with work and business life. But, when we look on work life, I cannot say it was useful.

Likewise, in relating to usefulness of gathered information on daily life, Interviewee 8 said:

The preparation we made before deployment comforted us. If we did not get information or make preparation, we would have to request from other people to do or bring something for us. Briefly, the information was useful. Today, even a book, including materials to take with you when you go, was published. When we were deployed there was no such thing. It was not common. We had to find what we needed in a short time.

In contrast to the other interviewees who mentioned the information-gathering process was only useful about life-related issues, Interviewee 9 reported that it was satisfactory in meeting his information needs both on living conditions and working life:

First of all, it mentally prepared me about the field mission. My mission was in Haiti. Sometimes people could be confused about Haiti, by supposing it was like Hawaii. So they expected greetings with flowers. However, we knew it would not be so. Our friends told what would happen there. Then, I tried to take my basic gear with me from Turkey. I never had something like this: "what I would eat, and what I would wear when I went there?" I was greatly satisfied with information I got. When I went, I did not know where to work. I could work in headquarters or provinces; it is not predictable. In my case, my friend was working in headquarters, and gave me information about the location. I was lucky, and I went to go to the same place to work. Thus, The information satisfied me. However, if I worked in a different place, unpredictable things would happen, and the information would not work. It depends.

Interviewee 12 attributed the effectiveness of the information gathering process to communication between himself and the information source:

In my case, the problem was that when I went, there was a festival. In spite of the inappropriate time, I did not get any trouble about accommodation. My friends had arranged a place to stay for me. Information was satisfactory. Information from my friends more than from the Internet helped me. I asked my friends in a mode, such as how the interview we did here and they told me to detail everything friendly. They informed me so much that they mentioned even things I did not ask. The communication was in our native language, so I sufficiently understood.

Interviewee 19 explained how useful gathered information was for him by stressing the health conditions of the field:

After passing the exam, I could be selective on the alternative missions based on the information you had already taken. Thus, I attempted to go places where I would not get in trouble because of health issues. In terms of gathered information, I could get what I would need in the field mission. It is a burden to find something in the mission, such as some drugs, sprays for protection against mosquitos. Since I provided different materials, not found in the mission countries, in advance, I did not experience hardship. However, theoretical knowledge does not much work in daily life. I had to live and learn something, as well.

Four interviewees described the process as subjective by claiming that given information was subject to the information source. In other words, the information was

pertaining to approaches and personalities of informants. Interviewee 2 provided examples from his case to explain this point:

Usefulness of information varies based on the information source. For example, someone talked about food “there was not cheese in Kosovo.” However, there was cheese. Likewise, someone said, for instance, “bring your saucepan.” However, you can find one there. Again, the practicality of information changes in the basis of information sources’ perspectives and from person to person. Some things are personal and subjective. As a result, eight percent of given information was useful. I benefited from my colleagues’ experiences; I did not make the same mistakes as they did. I used the lessons learned. We were prepared, and the knowledge sharing was practical for me.

Interviewee 5 explained the reason why the provided information was subjective, revealing that certain factors have an impact on communication:

Information that we had collected before the mission depended on people. Accordingly, our experienced colleagues’ viewpoints, their general experiences and capacities, and my understanding were factors that affected our dialog. They perhaps conflicted with each other from time to time. For example, one of my friends shared his experience with me. When I saw the same thing myself, it seemed differently to me. But I can say that it was useful in almost all areas, such as life standards, life-sustaining, and home retention. It also helped to find materials that were not there. Of course, it helped me to have an idea about the field mission and provided an opportunity to prepare myself. Nonetheless, as I said, the preparation should have been more formal. It would be more objective, more useful, and it would include information from various people.

Related to subjectivity of given information another clarifying answer came from

Interviewee 8:

It might be such a personal thing. I saw that even if the provided information were more satisfactory, it would not change anything for me. I had to experience what they told me. For example, one of my friends said that often there were power outages in Kosovo, but he added, “Do not worry! We had a power generator at home.” When I looked at his explanations, I learned there would be power outages but they would not negatively affect my life. However, when I went to Kosovo, I noticed that it fiercely affected me in spite of using power generators. I mean they formed the information based on their way of life. Thus, some aspects

seem better while others may seem worse than they mentioned. I have found the information satisfactory because I asked exactly what I wanted to know.

Four interviewees also mentioned that the process would be more objective and formal by stressing the necessity of improvement. Interviewee 5 explained this fact as follows:

Of course, it helped me to have an idea about the field mission and provided an opportunity to prepare myself. Nonetheless, as I said, that the preparation should have been more formal. It would be more objective, more useful, and it would include information from various people.

Accordingly, Interviewee 3's story was a good example of this need:

More information about getting a post could be given. For example, I went to a mission and applied for any post there. I had many questions such as, "How could I go to get that post? How could I get a good position?" However, more information should have actually been issued to help us. I think this was a shortcoming there. Something happened I remember now before deployment. The officers worked in Ankara collected more information on posts because they had more experienced friends; thus, they completed their applications before starting the field missions. They were able to get a post with helps of information provided by their friends. However, the officers worked in provinces were not very familiar with the process to get a post. If information had been officially provided by the TNP, every peacekeeper would have had the same chance to get a post. This was, indeed, a very important factor that knowing the process that enables you to apply for posts before deployment. I might not know anything before going there, but I went with a friend who had already applied because who received more information. This was such a hardship, which should be solved by providing formal and collective information.

Interviewee 17 told a comprehensive story demonstrating insufficiency and subjectivity of the gathered information:

I noticed how little information I collected when I arrived in Bosnia. You may even find it funny that I was seeing "100KM" on the signboards. I was considering what "KM" was by assuming that if it was an abbreviation of "kilometer," it must be small letters. Thus, I could not understand what it was. After all, I learned that it was a symbol of Bosnian currency, convertible mark that is in Serbian Latin "konvertibilna marka." "KM" was a sign for it like "\$" for the US dollar. Imagine how little information I collected before deployment. Compared to the Bosnia mission, I gathered much more information for East Timor. Even when I was in Turkey and collecting my bags, I found a document including name of the

restaurants, hotels, barbershops, and stores in East Timor. I had written all of them, which proves how much information I gathered and how well I was informed. However, gathered information is subjective and varies based on the information source. This information cannot correspond to what you experience because you and your source of information may perceive it differently. It is subject to criteria of people. For instance, we landed in East Timor; a friend from Portugal came to meet with us in the airport. It is really difficult to depict how dusty his car was. Frankly, I interpreted this dusty car as his personal approach. I was expecting a clean one to pick me up. But after I started living there, I saw the children who were playing next to a sewage stream. Even once, they tried to wash my car with water from this stream when I parked. But the first impression I had was of a dusty car that time. I had a hotel list and requested that my friend bring me to the first recommended hotel. It was a disgusting filthy, filthy bizarre, according to our criteria. I said that it must be the wrong place by thinking I do not belong there. I had visited all of more than 10 hotels in the city, except two of them that were \$100 per night. Finally, my friend took me back to the first place, and I headed back to the first hotel. I remembered that I slept on my towels spread on the bed for two weeks. But let me say it has not always gone like that. I got used to circumstances after a while. I started thinking the hotel was okay. I visited all given names of the places including stores, restaurants, barbershops, etc. My first impression was awful. Over time, I got used to living in this atmosphere. The given information is subject to the source of it.

According to findings, getting an effective post was one of most critical goals for all interviewees. Correspondingly, three interviewees focused on postings in their statements. Interviewee 15 believed that inadequate information was given about posts:

We have to appreciate even little information rather than underrate it. I do not want to discuss its size; it still can be helpful despite its small volume. But it could have been even better. Information could have been given about posts, its requirements, and its provincial and central characteristics. Also, the requirements could be explained to assign from province to headquarters. We do not habitually read operations manuals or instruction manuals when we buy a gadget. Likewise, I did not read UN Standard Operating Procedure (SOP) during my service. I should have read that in order to understand what are expected from me. I worked and completed mission terms; however, I did not know how to write a daily report. Let me tell you publicly that their system differed from ours. Patterns of our incident reports and UN's reports were not the same. At least, we had to get information about these things.

In a similar fashion, Interviewee 18 honed getting posts by using international networking:

I do not think so much information I got in my first mission, so it might not be useful. In the second mission, you know what you can do in the mission; you know people around you; you are experienced about other's courses of action. You focus on the work-related issues like where to work, and what posts to apply, etc. In fact, the most important thing is to find an experienced colleague who has an immense network and involve in foreign managers. A person like that may help you get a good post.

Furthermore, two of the interviewees said that there is a link between their personal traits and the effectiveness of their information gathering methods. Interviewee 11 stressed his diligence and conscientiousness that assisted him to get sufficient information:

I can describe myself as a "nerd or geek." As a self-criticism, I trust my diligence rather than my intelligence. Every human being knows himself in that sense. Some people are very intelligent and do not work hard, for example. When it comes to me, I am a hard worker. I work hard and mostly succeed. Accordingly, I took all basic gear with me in my first trip to the field mission. I got information that there would be a problem about food. This was normal for those who went to the mission. Because of the African country, where you went, there were a few groceries in which you would not find everything. I brought Mozzarella cheese and olives with me. The same goes for clothing. I took basic gear with me. Obviously, I think what I had done was enough, and the gathered information was satisfactory for me.

Likewise, Interviewee 13 credited his detail-oriented personality that helped him in gathering adequate information.

It all depends on you. The more you ask questions, the more you get answers, and the more you learn details. In that way, you can deal with difficulties. From our group, some people experienced shortcomings while others did not. For example, the plugs and outlets are different in Turkey and the USA. If you bought a Europe to USA plug adapter from Turkey, you could use your own cell phone and laptop immediately. It was so cheap. But if you neither had this gadget nor knew this tiny detail, you had to wait one week in the field mission to buy this

simple item. In the same way, mosquito nets and vaccinations were simple things to buy or deal with, if only you had been notified about them.

Despite the aforementioned deficiencies of the information-gathering process, 14 of 19 interviewees found it satisfactory. On the other hand, 5 of 19 interviewees believed that the process was useless and ineffective in meeting their information needs. Each of these interviewees provided a challenging case from their personal experiences in the field and explained how they tried to deal with these difficulties. An example of this is the case of Interviewee 4 in which he reported the experienced communication problems and its adverse effects:

It was a different life than I expected in many aspects, so I cannot say the given information was useful for me. You would ask “why?” Due to what I experienced at the outset, I started to want to go back to Turkey. For example, a German peacekeeper ignored us in our police station during a small talk in the first days. I did not understand why he behaved like that. To be honest, it was difficult for us to communicate in English with native speakers.

Interviewee 6’s story presented that his preparation about language was wasted because he was deployed in a different place than he expected:

Frankly, it did not properly help because I worked in a city, mainly in the Serbian population. Also, I had tried to learn some phrases in Albanian, but my landlord was a Serbian. I had to learn Serbian myself. I was able to talk to the landlord without an interpreter in Serbian. Although I did not completely learn the Serbian language, I could express myself about daily routines, such as paying the rent, getting thing to do, greetings and small talk. Information I got from Albanian students did not work except some warnings about the ongoing problems between two ethnic populations. Based on their advice, I tried not to make a complimentary speech about Albanians next to Serbians and vice versa. Information helped in that way.

Interviewee 11’s statements supported that the information-gathering process was useless on working life:

I cannot say the gathered information was useful. There were many questions in my head: what would I do when I went there? So, honestly we suffered from inexperience. Although I had even taken enough points from the language exam, practice was very different, especially on written reports about incidents. We had to write daily reports about patrol services. Frankly, I did not know there were written daily reports. Inevitably, we had trouble for the first two months in writing reports. It took almost three months to learn certain patterns of writing a report. But if I was trained about this issue, I could easily deal with it.

Interviewee 15 pointed out how his stereotypes misled him about the condition of the mission:

I went to the mission with a huge deficiency and shortage of information. I had imagined that it was Africa, and I would suffer from famine. Thus, I took with me a bag of canned food. When I arrived there, I noticed that I did not need to bring them with me because there were many stores. It was just a bit expensive, that is all. This was related with living conditions. I was not able to get information about work-related issues. The only information I got was about clothing. I did not go there with a good motivation or sufficient information. However, It was better than I expected.

Interviewee 16 admitted that the provided information was not practical. It was pointless, except for building self-esteem:

I cannot say that it was so useful for the first mission. After getting information, I convinced myself that if my colleagues did it, I could do the same. I could not remember something like that “this information was so useful for me, fortunately I learnt it” because there was no such thing. Even the second mission was like that; I could not remember professional information that saved me. I was a little more prepared in the second mission because of the first mission experience. Also, there were more people around to get information due to the increased number of experienced colleagues. The TNP assigned some experienced people to inform others about what was going on there. Of course it was helpful to feel better, but not much.

Knowledge-Sharing Practices During the Mission (Question 6)

Question 6 is “How was the knowledge sharing when you were at the mission -on formal or informal occasions?” Question 6 was vital what the researcher tried to find on knowledge sharing during the mission. This question helped to establish how the

peacekeepers share their knowledge during their tour of duties. When asked how the knowledge sharing process was in the mission, the interviewees responded by emphasizing the important role of email groups, contingent commanders, meetings, colleagues, and phone calls in informing people during the mission. In addition, the interviewees mentioned factors such as hierarchy, lack of information, and English level that adversely affected the knowledge sharing process. Table 18 shows these factors and tools as well as their impact on the knowledge sharing process. Data for knowledge sources and knowledge sharing tools of the peacekeepers during the mission is illustrated in Figure 14.

Table 18

Significant Factors and Tools Affecting Knowledge Sharing during the Mission

Prominent Concepts	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Colleagues	10	16
Contingent commander	13	29
Email groups	14	23
English level	1	3
Hierarchy	3	6
Lack of information	2	5
Meetings	12	25
Phone	7	10

Email groups.

According to the findings, email group was the most used tool among peacekeepers in the mission, representing 14 out of 19. When they talked about the email group, some of them described it by providing details, such as the developer of the email group and its usage while others underlined its usefulness in conveying information. For instance, Interviewee 5 stated that peacekeepers sometimes used

email groups they built it: “One of our colleagues, who was in charge of information technology in the secretariat, created an email group. The contingent commander used the email group and phones to inform us.” The email group was commonly evaluated as useful. Interviewee 11 mentioned its usefulness: “We had an email group, and the group was working very well. We could see what was happening in our contingent via email group.” Interviewee 19’s explanations revealed why the email groups were useful in the different field missions:

Email groups were actively used. Email groups were so useful both in the Kosovo and Sudan missions. In Sudan, it helped in sending information to everybody immediately. In Kosovo, because we did not have mobile phones, it was our unique communication tool.

Interviewee 1 explained there were times they used the UN’s network:

We used a network on the mission. Actually, it was not something we had done; the UN had built it. Everyone had a membership on the network. The network was helpful to get information about our community there. For example, if someone went to Turkey, you would know that by means of the network. If you needed to bring or send something, you could use the network to access people. People would become aware of each other. In fact, it was an online intranet system that allowed everyone to be aware of each other.

Findings show that peacekeepers can evaluate the same opportunities in different ways. To illustrate, Interviewee 10 stressed that peacekeepers were mostly using email groups for official communication and distribution of formal notifications. He highlighted this point and provided another detail about the name of the group:

We had an email group, called “Yurtdisinda Turk Polisi.” The secretary transferred all of the written notifications via this email group. Everyone had to follow it; communication was in this way. In such cases, everyone was finding each other’s cell phone numbers to communicate.

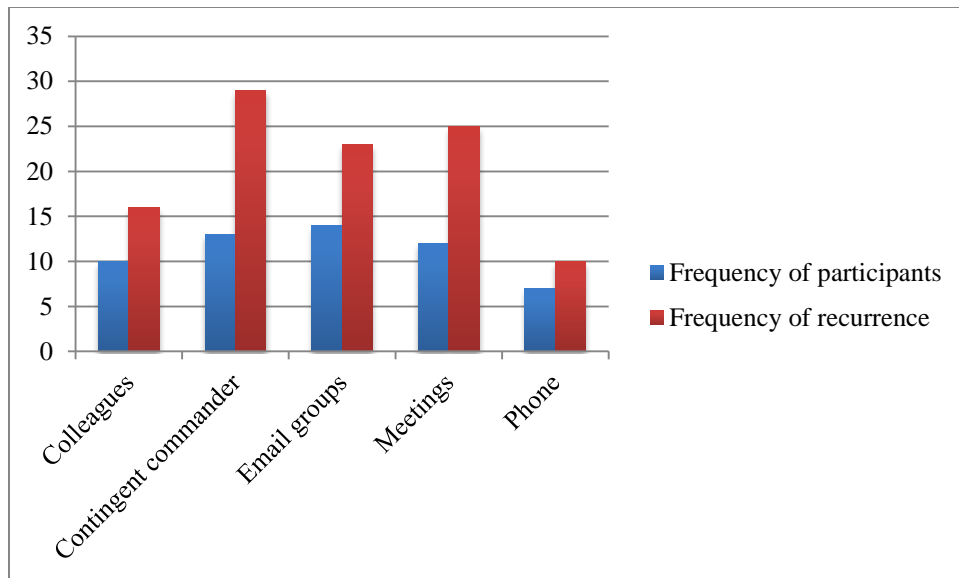


Figure 14. Knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools used by peacekeepers during the mission

Specifically, Interviewee 3 explained usage of the email group by clarifying the reason why they did not use it for their personal needs:

We also used an email group. Our contingent commander commonly used the email group to provide official information and written notifications to all Turkish contingents. People did not use to ask personal questions because it was open to everyone; thus, it did not feel comfortable. As a result, we asked our friends to learn whatever we want in person.

Different from Interviewee 3, Interviewee 18 revealed that peacekeepers used email groups for their personal information needs as well:

In the second Kosovo mission, our colleagues made an email group and shared information by using it. Then, they shared basic information such as, how to go and where to stay, etc. Generally, they prepared documents about daily needs including barbershops, stores, carpenters, tailors and so on. They built an effective online environment. They used the virtual group in notifying people about official information, as well.

As a consequence of these distinguishing comments, it can be said that some of peacekeepers avoided using the email groups for their personal needs while others used the same source for their individual necessities. Furthermore, some interviewees focused on the details of the email groups and their practicality. For example, Interviewee 6 gave a detail about extensions of the emails:

All of us had an email address with the ending of "kos." Our names were followed by the extension of "kos." Thus, an email group was created. But, email traffic did not work very well in this group. There were meetings in each unit organized by city. When we first went there, they gathered us and mentioned "we would meet and discuss our problems as a unit in this city once a month. However, as four peers we were assigned to a small town, and our communication was interrupted.

Contingent commander.

According to results, a contingent commander has a significant impact on motivating peacekeepers to achieve organizational goals and creating a knowledge-sharing culture. From this point its role is almost as important as email groups as a manager and information source, representing 13 out of 19. During the interviews, some informants indicated a contingent commander's authorities and responsibilities.

Interviewee 1 illustrated this point by providing a description:

Each force had a contingent commander. For example, Mitrovica and Pristina had one provincial force commander. The commander was selected based on the rank. The commander was responsible for supervising Turkish peacekeepers regardless of his position at the UN system.

Likewise Interviewee 5 mentioned how a contingent commander was selected and what his duties were:

The most senior person from the TNP was assigned as a contingent commander. Contingent had an organizational structure including secretariat and managers who were responsible for provinces. When a newcomer arrived, the contingent

commander gave information on various matters and rules. Briefly, there were organization rules and regulations to control people in the mission.

Interviewee10 defined the structure and expressed the position of the contingent commander in the hierarchical system:

The group already has a contingent commander, vice chairman and representatives for territory. Frankly, all of them were explained in the regulations. There were times, when the assistant contingent commander managed the group in the commander's absence; the most senior police chief was the commander automatically. Besides deputy commander, the secretary of the contingent existed to implement the paper work.

Based on the provided information, the contingent commander was a key figure in providing a healthy information flow between the UN system and the Turkish contingent.

Interviewee 17's statements clarified the importance of his expertise and criticized the contingent commanders of the field missions he worked in:

The first information in the mission was completely based on networking. If you had friends to inform you about posts, you would be informed. Otherwise, you would not hear anything. Information for postings depended on the contingent commander's knowledge relevant to the mission. Under the normal conditions, all notifications were distributed from the office of the Chief of Mission to all contingent commanders via email. The contingent commanders were expected to convey this information to their subordinates. However, I do not think that we could use this system effectively. The reason would be insufficient communication skills, especially in English or lack of knowledge about the UN system. I am sure that the commanders had good intentions, and they did not try to hoard information.

The contingent commander has a chief role in communication and knowledge sharing among peacekeepers. Some interviewees stated that their contingent commander was a dedicated leader and the knowledge sharing was perfect between them. However, others criticized their contingent commanders fiercely and mentioned he did not manage the process effectively. Therefore, a lack of commitment on the part of the commander caused some flaws in the mission. For example, Interviewee 11

stressed his satisfaction about his contingent commander. He emphasized a need of systematic approach, though:

Our contingent commander had an engaged leadership approach. Effectiveness of communication depends on the initiative of the commander of the contingent. He devoted his time to the contingent as a commander. He was able to communicate with staff by organizing informal meetings, such as dinners. However, if he were a carefree or freewheeling commander, we would not organize within the contingent. I do not know how this issue could be solved. The responsibilities and authorities may be delegated to others. I do not know. The commander of the contingent was our single registry supervisor.

There were satisfactory expressions about the performance of the contingent commander. For example, Interviewee 9 said:

The contingent commander constantly kept in touch with us in Haiti. For example, he organized a dinner on the first day. He gave us information about what would happen, such as the UN's induction training and assignments. It gave us a general overview.

Interviewee 15's explanation was another example that shows subordinates' satisfaction about an enthusiastic contingent commander:

Our communication was very good. Our contingent commander was meeting with us once a month by the means of informal dinners. Everybody could see each other in these meetings. At least we were saying that "a post was opened, I applied, etc." Then, we were sharing our ideas about the living conditions and protecting ourselves against diseases. We encouraged all personnel to attend the meetings, especially from provinces. Because of our contingent commander's dedicated efforts, we did not have any difficulty about communication between our friends.

On the other hand, some interviewees complained about their contingent commanders' performances. Their complaints ranged from slight criticisms to heavy blames.

Interviewee 3 claimed that his contingent commander focused on only assignments, and he did not provide information:

There was a contingent commander who organized all personnel assignments and communication. The commander was effective on posting. The commander was a senior colleague from the IRD, who had been there for 5 years. He was just interested in assignments; he did not provide information very well.

Correspondingly, Interviewee 7 criticized the ambiguity of the rules in the mission and complained of loose relationships between the contingent commander and his subordinates:

I think that there needs to be a more systematic coordination about these organizations. I personally never saw good coordination. Let me give you an example that happened to me. I stayed in the field mission for 13 months. During the first 6-7 months, I grew long hair. One day, the contingent commander warned me to get a haircut. This shows that I never actually met the contingent commander for seven months. Coincidentally, he saw me at the end of 7 months and warned me. I thought we could follow the UN's rules and regulations like other nations did, and there must not be any restriction about hair and beard. In fact, many other officers from other countries had long hair and beards. Because of this approach, I did not get a haircut despite this warning. But I got the second warning 2-3 month later, and I had a haircut. I mean that I was in a big city and worked in the same city as the contingent commander; however, we would rarely see each other during my term of duty. Imagine if I were in a province, I would most likely have completed one year without meeting with the contingent commander. As a result, we actually shared little, and it gave me the impression of an abandoned person.

Meetings.

Although peacekeepers could communicate online and share their knowledge on the email groups, meetings provided a good opportunity to discuss their problems face to face. The meetings were satisfactory in fulfilling their socialization needs, representing 12 out of 19. Interviewee 9 stressed this socialization need by comparing email groups and meetings:

Our group was not so broad that we could see each other and talk about potential problems in person. Although we had an email group, we preferred to communicate in person because we needed to make small talk. We used the email group to inform others about official notification and big events, such as an

official visitor from Turkey or a big meeting. However, we would rather to meet in person or by phone to deal with personal problems.

In the field mission, different types of meetings were organized. Some of them were official, such as quarterly or biannually meetings. They also organized small-size meeting in provinces, which can be defined as informal. The UN allowed the contingents to organize periodic meetings. Interviewee 14 uncovered the significance of the contingent meetings in the UN system: "There were periodic meetings. According to the UN rules, every contingent could hold contingent meetings once every 4 or 5 months." Interviewee 18 underlined the same point:

Meanwhile, the UN provided an opportunity to organize quarterly meetings. The contingent commander made an overall evaluation and informed his subordinates about new developments. The communication was like that. Also, we built a group that was responsible for social projects. We organized weekly meetings for assessment of improvements related to the projects. It was going well. I left from Kosovo six months ago so I do not know the current situation.

Interviewee 17 stated that these meetings' frequency depended on information needs:

Contingent meetings were organized. Every country's contingent had officially a right to arrange periodic meetings. I could not remember how often it was organized. We organized these meetings a couple of times in Bosnia. Since we could see each other constantly, we did not need to meet officially in East Timor. I can say that we did not take advantage of these meetings in Bosnia.

During these meetings, peacekeepers could see each other and share their information not only to find solutions for daily issues but also to develop long-term strategies.

Interviewee 19 mentioned the themes they discussed in these meetings:

I remember monthly regional meetings in Kosovo. For instance, I was in Prizren. We periodically met with our colleagues who worked in Prizren. We discussed our problems, necessities, and possible solutions. We also argued about how our relations with public would be better as the Turkish contingent. Besides these meetings, there were general contingent meetings organized in headquarters. We discussed what we could do to solve issues. In the Sudan mission we had

the same methods. But, because of transportation difficulties, we did not organize large meetings. We met in provinces as small groups. Also, there was an official meeting organized two times per year. In these meetings, the subject was what could be done in general problems.

Similarly, Interviewee 1 specified structure, period, and usefulness of these meetings:

As far as I remember, there were periodic meetings every month. These meetings had a formal characteristic. People could interact with each other during meetings. They could also get some information about Turkey and follow the official information flow. During the meetings, we had a chance to talk to each other. Otherwise, it was difficult to see everyone because their shifts were different from each other. I think these meetings were useful. If you had something you needed to know, you had an opportunity to ask in every 20 or 25 days a month by the means of these meetings.

Colleagues.

Interviewees described their experienced colleagues as the main source of information, representing 10 out of 19. Interviewee 3 said, "The most important source was our experienced friends. We mostly used them to get information. Of course, the periods were different, so some of them had started before us. They shared their experiences. It was very helpful information." In the same manner, Interviewee 13 emphasized his experienced colleagues' importance in dealing with difficulties:

I worked at the information technology (IT) center in headquarters. Our job was supporting the Haitian Police Force in the technical basis. We were dealing with IT problems. Frankly, we were using experienced colleagues to get information. In particular, experienced colleagues had more knowledge than us because they worked in the field more than we did. We were trying to deal with problems systematically by their guidance.

Interviewee 15 shared his story to show the benefits of effective knowledge sharing in the field:

For example, we had to sit for a driving test. There were instructors. Our colleagues recommended we take the exam with one of them and not work with two of them by giving the names. Since certain instructors were so strict and their

performance was not effective, it was really hard to pass the exam with two of them. We followed their advice and worked with the recommended instructor, so we passed the exam. I remember a friend from Mali who failed in the exam and had to return to his country. She was actually a good driver. I think she could pass the exam if she worked with the same instructor as we did.

Interviewee 16's story exemplifies how practical an experienced colleague's advice could be:

Before the Liberia mission, one of my friends told me "you can physically touch people. It is a sign of friendship in Liberia." Another friend gave me advice on working life by stating "Mob violence is so common in Liberia, and we are working here as counselors, unarmed. If you see something like that, get in the car and move away from the incident field." It did not make sense to me when I first heard it because I thought, "I am a cop and I have to prevent the crime." I bumped into an event as my friend said, the advice came to my mind, and I drew away. I found it very logical later. I thought afterwards this was very vital information, too. After going out of control, one or two unarmed officer could not intervene to prevent a group of people from committing violence.

Phone calls.

Besides email groups and meetings, phone calls were a useful tool in getting information for peacekeepers, representing 7 out of 19. Interviewee 8 reported:

In general, telephone and email were the two most used tools for us. Email was relatively new at that time. The phone was more common and popular. I was assigned to a police station when I arrived there. The population of the city where we worked was 5000. There was only a peer. We were trying to get information together by calling to headquarters when we encountered a new issue.

Hierarchy.

Hierarchy, inadequate information, and unsatisfactory communication skills were factors that had an adverse influence on the knowledge-sharing process. The TNP is a hierarchical organization, and relationships are based on ranks among officers.

However, because of shortcomings in implementation of these hierarchical rules, some

problems occurred. In particular, low ranking officers complained about the practices of hierarchy. Interviewee 2's reproach demonstrated this point:

In spite of usage of email groups, information sharing was practiced under the influence of the TNP's hierarchical structure. For example, if there was an undesirable place and nobody wanted to work there, low ranking peacekeepers were assigned. It was like that because of hierarchy. However, as UN officers, every Turkish peacekeeper had equal position regardless of their rank in the TNP system. This hierarchy became distinctive in information sharing. Senior colleagues did not give much information to low-ranking officers. Thus, we commonly got needed information from our peers by meeting in person after we were assigned to a position.

Interviewee 14 stressed that he was disappointed with his field mission experience due to implementation of biased hierarchical regulations, and he lost his trust with the organization. Unfortunately, he was frustrated and hopeless:

I wanted to mention that I would be the most negative-minded interviewee in your list due to the troubles I encountered in the field. It was my first field mission duty, and the first confrontation with the Turkish Contingent. After this mission experience, I have not trusted the organization; I do not believe I will be able to trust again. We were deployed there as a group of 14 people. The UN demanded six people from the contingent to send to provinces. The UN delegated the task of determining the names of the people who would go to the province to the Turkish Contingent. The key was the initiative of the contingent commander in this case. The commander decided based on the TNP's hierarchy and assigned low-ranking officers including me. Normally, these assigned personnel should have been rotatively changed with newcomers every three months. However, they cancelled the hierarchical approach after our assignments; as a result, we stayed there. I could not see any organizational justice here. The Turkish Contingent did not make assignments, but the UN had a policy that it delegated its authority to contingents to assign their own peacekeepers. I mean, it tried to build a solid mosaic of contingents. Thus, it decreased its workload by indirectly saying, "Every contingent should solve its own problems." Although it was not a formal regulation, it was implemented by contingents like an official rule. After our assignments, some senior colleagues were appointed to our fields. They argued and tried not to come to the province. I said that "well you speak because you are senior, but I was not sent here by the TNP; I sat for an exam and was deployed here; you tried to take advantage of being senior here." Then these senior colleagues were assigned to provinces we worked. But what happened? After staying two weeks, they had a fight with their foreign colleagues, and then

returned to headquarters by claiming that they could not stand the circumstances. There were two factors. First, there was the living environment. Since the province had few opportunities, headquarters was more comfortable and economical. In fact, in headquarters, one could share expenses with his colleagues by benefiting from the civic life's opportunities. Financial concerns were one of the important reasons underneath. Second, the missions in Africa were more difficult than others. The reason why was the peacekeepers were mostly Africans. It was really challenging to share many things with them. They saw us from a different world, different continent, and different color. The living conditions were standard for them because they came from poor countries and similar circumstances. However, it seemed different to us; even we could not even find food for our taste. Also, they could live easily in these conditions, but you could not. Sometimes, you could get trouble because of the language. It was their language not ours. These differences could be problematic. Consequently, everybody wanted to work in headquarters. It was only I who spent the whole term in province.

Lack of information.

Lack of information was another factor that prevented peacekeepers from providing information and managing information flow effectively. Interviewee 17 told a story about his Swedish colleague, which demonstrates the significance of knowledge:

The biggest deficiency I have ever seen in the mission is ignorance about the UN system. Our term was one year. Understanding the mission and noticing what was going on took 4 months. After understanding the mechanisms, we tried to apply for posts that opened during that time. It took almost two months. Unfortunately, the remaining period of the time was 6 months, and we could not transfer with so little time remaining. This lack of knowledge prevented us from getting posts. On the other hand, I had a friend in East Timor from Sweden. He was on his fifth or sixth mission. He knew everything about the UN system. We attended the induction training together. It was an effective course. He learned what posts would be available with their deadlines and requirements. As a result, he got the positions that he wanted, but, for us, it took 4 months to understand what was happening around us. Some of our colleagues gave up and contented themselves with the position they worked.

Interviewee 18 sincerely confessed his inexperience and ignorance about the UN system. It is a good example to support Interviewee 17's assumption:

I do not think that information sharing occurred in the first mission. We had almost 30 people. Some of them went to Tuzla and Bihac, while others were in Sarajevo. Frankly, we might meet only for dinner at that time. We were sharing information on restaurants and travel agencies. Honestly, I admit my ignorance of the UN system. When I went to the first mission, I did not even know what SRSG (Special Representative of the Secretary-General) is. However, the SRSG, was the UN special representative, especially in the status of Kosovo, she or he was like the president of Kosovo. The SRSG is still accepted as the head of Kosovo, on paper.

English language proficiency (ELP).

Turkish peacekeepers had to pass an English exam to be deployed in field missions. However, passing the exam does not mean they could effectively communicate with their foreign associates in the field. In fact, many peacekeepers mentioned how they experienced difficulties when they arrived at the missions, especially in their first quarters. Therefore, Interviewee 18 claimed that the required score must be higher in English to be deployed in the missions:

The biggest problem was insufficient ELP. So the IRD or the TNP have to know that the UN missions should not be easily achievable goals for everyone. Okay, I am a person who has reached this goal; it is easy to say that for me. But some people experience a real hardship due to the lack of adequate ELP. In particular, he could not develop self-esteem due to inadequate communication skills. For example, it happened to me “you should come to meetings instead of your contingent commander. We think he cannot understand our conversations.” They did not say that maliciously; however, they had some concerns whether the information related to the contingent was conveyed to us. It would be an interruption in information flow. The ELP had a negative impact on motivation. When the required score became low like 40, people thought “I passed the exam, so it is okay.” When I was deployed on my second mission, my score was 78, but I was not so comfortable with my English.” This is an important issue.

After the Mission

The researcher asked question 8 to disclose usefulness of knowledge sharing practices after the mission. The peacekeepers expressions helped to understand organizational and individual attitude to peacekeepers’ experiences after the missions.

Knowledge Sharing Practices after the Mission (Interview Question 8)

Question 8 is “How did you share your experience after returning from the mission?” This question solicited interviewees’ knowledge-sharing practices after returning from the mission. When asked how they shared their knowledge and experience after the mission, interviewees generally preferred to respond to the question by saying whether an official report was demanded from them. As can be seen from Table, 13 out of 19 interviewees said that they did not prepare an *after mission report* because the TNP did not officially demand any report.

Table 19

Prominent Concepts Have Pivotal Roles in Knowledge Sharing Process after the Mission

	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Book	1	2
Colleagues	14	20
Courtesy visits	1	1
Email group	1	1
Exit interview	3	3
Financial advantages	3	4
Jealousy	2	2
Official notifications	1	1
Report	18	32
Value	3	3

On the other hand, 5 out of 19 interviewees stated that they prepared the report on demand of the TNP. One interviewee did not mention writing a report in his answer. It is a surprising finding that 18 out of 19 interviewees answered the question by focusing on the *after mission report*. Interviewees mostly mentioned that they informally provided information to their colleagues, representing 13 out of 19. They also

emphasized the importance of exit interviews and financial advantages as well as the value of the mission experience in the knowledge-sharing process, representing 3 of out of 19. Books, courtesy visits, email groups, and official notifications were other tools used by the returning peacekeepers in informing their colleagues. Table 19 shows prominent concepts emerged during knowledge sharing after the mission. The data for these sources and tools are presented in Figure 15.

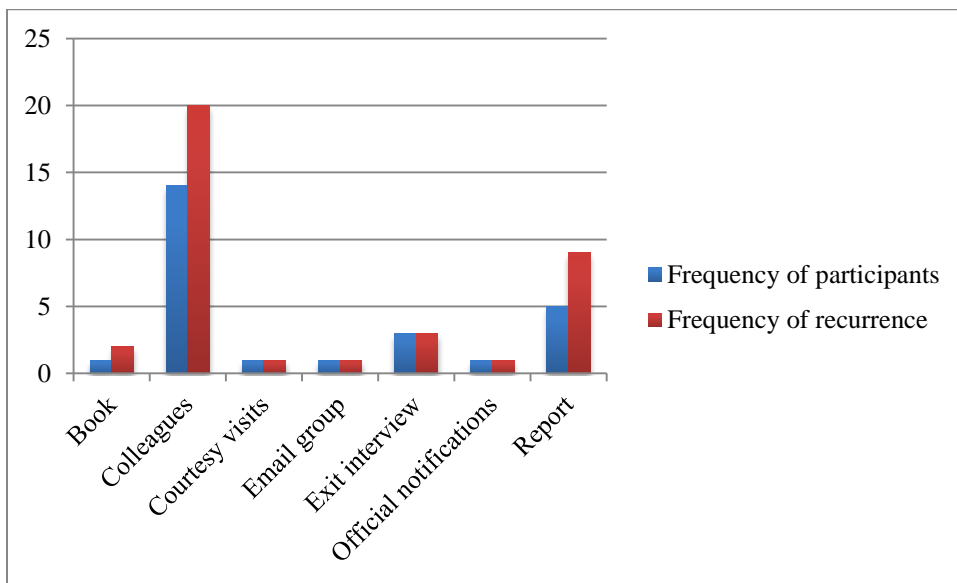


Figure 15. Knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools used by the peacekeepers in post-mission period

Colleagues.

Although the TNP did not demand the report to get feedback from the returning peacekeepers, they shared their knowledge with their newly deployed colleagues informally. The newly deployed officers typically needed the same kinds of information the experienced officers needed before deployment. Likewise, they were trying to get information by using similar ways such as learning from their friends and colleagues. To

illustrate, Interviewee 2 said that most of the newly deployed peacekeepers used the same method to collect information and tried to find responses to the same questions:

Before going to the mission, I asked many questions to my friends. The same was true for newcomers. They asked similar questions to me or to other experienced colleagues based on their locations of deployment. There was no official or written demand for a report from the IRD. I tried to share my experience and knowledge. We met in person or talked on the phone informally. I shared my experience in this way.

Interviewee 9, similarly to Interviewee 2, mentioned that the newly deployed peacekeepers' information needs were identical with his needs. They searched the same subjects as he did before deployment:

Our organization did not demand from me anything officially. Those who deployed after me found me and asked what they wanted to know. They commonly asked the same question as I asked before deployment. Their questions included working conditions and potential challenges. Mostly we communicated via email. I informed them as one of their friends or experienced colleagues.

Interviewee 4 reported what the subjects were that the newly deployed peacekeepers wanted to know:

We stayed in the field 13 months. An exit interview or similar practices were not implemented. Some colleagues from the same department, who were deployed after me, asked some questions. Also, my peers from different cities asked questions about the missions. They wanted to know about family life, education, adaptation of the children, and English language proficiency. I remember most of them had a plan to bring their families with them. I shared my experiences as far as I could.

In the same way, Interviewee 19 explained how he shared his experience with his colleagues:

The newly deployed peacekeepers asked many questions about the mission as follows: "was it difficult? What kinds of difficulties would we encounter? What should we do?" I answered their questions and encouraged them to go there. I

mentioned “our friends’ qualities are sufficient to work there, but English proficiency can be a problematic issue for the first mission. After the first mission, the language problem is solved.” I was working in the headquarters, and mostly peacekeepers were deployed from headquarter because of their language proficiency. I shared my experience with newly deployed colleagues in person. We communicated by email with my peers from provinces. I warned them of some potential problems they could encounter when they were deployed, including working conditions.

After mission report.

According to findings, the IRD is the responsible department for peacekeepers during their tours of duty. Based on the peacekeepers’ statements, the IRD has not followed a consistent policy in demanding after mission reports. The peacekeepers who mentioned that they prepared the report were deployed in the last two or three years. The peacekeepers who said that they did not write the report were deployed mostly before 2009. The data for responses of the interviewees are presented in Figure 16. From this point, it can be seen that the TNP has recently consolidated its policy on demanding the report from peacekeepers. For instance, Interviewee 10, who returned from the mission in 2011, described the mandatory process of writing a report:

I had a form called an after mission report. I filled it out. Everyone must fill out the form in a month. One can write his suggestions, recommendations, and comments about the mission. I gave the report to the IRD. Also, I emailed it to the IRD. This was an obligation for all peacekeepers.

Interviewee 13’s statements supported the aforementioned assumption: “Everyone should give a report after returning from the mission within one month. It is an obligatory regulation. This process must be done. Otherwise, the department can get in trouble in audits.” Interviewee 19’s statements clarified that the TNP has started implementation of a consistent strategy of demanding “after mission reports” lately. In the past, the TNP did not demand a written report from the peacekeepers:

I did not remember to write a report after returning from two missions in 2003 and 2007. Then, the IRD made the report a mandatory process, so I wrote a report after my last mission in 2011. In the report, I explained my ideas and recommendations for problems people experienced during the mission.

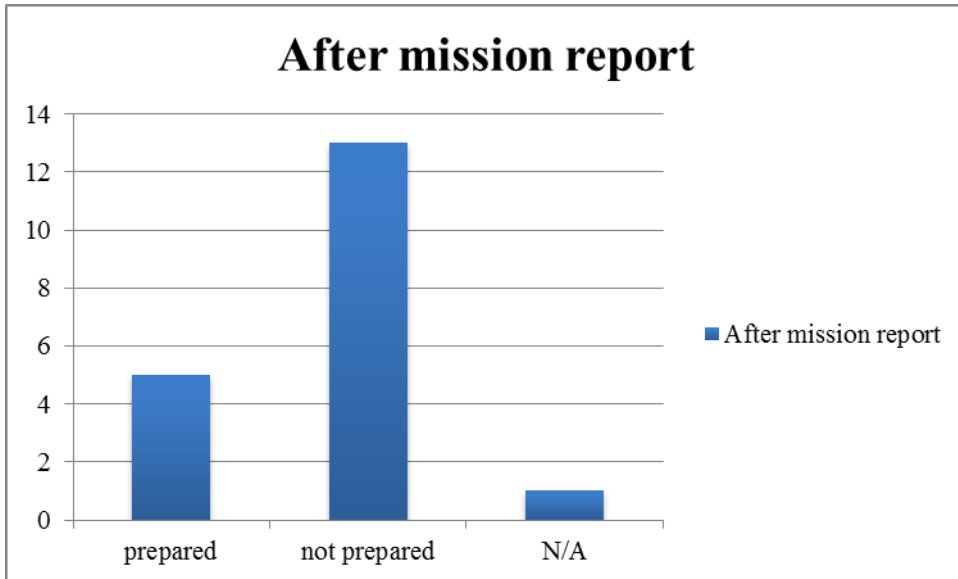


Figure 16. Rates for writing after mission report

Many interviewees noted that they did not write the report because the organization did not mandate that they do so. Interviewee 1 believed that the TNP had a system problem on informing people and benefiting from their intellectual assets. He mentioned not only deficiencies about getting feedback but also the difficulties in the mission, including a lack of needed equipment:

As of 2004, the TNP did not demand any written report after returning from the field mission. There was no such thing. Demanding a written report is the necessity of being an organization. For example, we did not bring body armor because nobody informed us that we needed it. When the clashes happened we had to borrow others' body armor. It was so difficult for us. I think it was important. Since the TNP did not demand one, I did not prepare a written report. However, I wrote informally and shared with my colleagues who deployed after me. I sent emails to inform them about difficulties and potential problems. I even provided information although they did not ask.

Similarly, Interviewee 7 complained about a lack of a systematic approach:

I did not write an after mission report. This deficiency is rooted in a lack of a systematic approach. It is not obvious who the responsible departments. Every department seems as if they were responsible but none of them took the responsibility. I never knew that I needed to write a report after returning.

Conversely, the Interviewee 5 said that he prepared a brief after mission report. He also pointed out that, regardless of being given formal information, people have a tendency to get information informally. Additionally, his explanations on the reason why people chose different tools in communication were clarifying. It was a surprising finding because Interviewee 5 wrote a report while the other interviewees who were deployed in the same year, said that they did not write a report since there was not a demand. It shows that there was not a consistent policy on demanding a report after the mission:

We wrote a short after the mission report. Even if we made all the necessary disclosures, and held all the needed briefings, people would ask their peers and friends about the missions, which is normal. Dozens of people asked me, "how about this? How about that?" I learned later that those people asked the same questions to my other experienced colleagues. I experience all formats of the communication. If they lived far away, they called or sent email. If they were in the same city, we talked in person.

Interviewee 6's explanations supported the assumption that the TNP did not have a consistent policy on demanding the report:

There was a rumor that the organization would demand a written report from us. As far as I know a written report must be prepared after returning from any kind of mission abroad. After returning from the mission, nobody asked for anything, so we did not write a report. Although the organization did not ask formally, our friends who would be deployed asked many questions.

Interviewee 17's explanations help to clarify the obscurity peacekeepers experienced about writing reports. He said that one officer could write a report on behalf of the whole group. He also critiqued the structure of the report as follows:

If I do not remember wrongly, there was such thing called “after returning report.” It was sufficient to be written by one person for every group. The report was a nice thought, but it was still missing something. The report was semi-structured and included open-ended questions. Therefore, one can provide limited knowledge by writing this report. People only share their specific experience with this kind of report. If I had a problem with my shoes, I would always say how it hurts in the reports.

Exit interviews.

The TNP carried out exit interviews to get feedback from the experienced officers. Nonetheless, some interviewees think that exit interviews could be useful to improve knowledge sharing. Interviewee 13 stressed that writing a report was a useful mandatory practice. However, he would prefer exit interviews rather than reports in providing feedback:

To me, sharing experience with the IRD’s chief after returning is more important than reports. After returning, a supervisor from the department can ask peacekeepers: “how was the mission?” This could be considered an exit interview. These kinds of personal meeting can be more effective than after mission reports.

Interviewee 15 willingly visited the chief of the related office in the IRD department to share his experience. His story was a good example to support Interviewee 13's assumption:

The TNP did not benefit from our experiences. Nobody demanded a report related to the mission. These reports can be useful, and they can be used as guidelines for people who would go to the same missions as we went to. I do not remember being asked anything. In particular, my friends who returned to Ankara wanted to share their experience with the chief of the related office in the IRD. Even a couple of peers and I talked with the chief and told him our recommendation, especially on getting better posts.

Books.

Interviewee 10 used an unusual method to transfer his experience. He wrote a book regarding requirements, rules and regulations. He also emphasized the importance of French-language proficiency to get high posts in the missions:

I wrote a book focusing on writing reports in French. Adalet Yayinevi published this book. The book includes exams, rules, regulations, and human resources at the UN field missions, especially for French-speaking countries. My goal is to motivate students of the Police Academy in Turkey to learn French. Although we speak English properly, we cannot get managerial positions in the French-speaking missions unless we learn French, too. French was the first language of many field missions, such as Haiti, for which our friends take the exam. English is acceptable but as a second language. I hope the book would benefit people who wanted to get posts in the UN missions.

Courtesy visits and official notifications.

Interviewee 18 has worked in various managerial positions for a long time in the missions. He said that he was sharing his experience and mentioning problems during the courtesy visits of the high-level Turkish bureaucrats. Also, he mentioned that he always informed related departments about potential problems and possible solutions by responding to official notifications given by the IRD:

During my eight-year term in the mission, many visits have occurred. Top-level bureaucrats, ministers, and directors came to the mission. Thus, we had opportunities to meet closer and in person. I was reporting my own experience in these kinds of moments. Besides, I provided information to the IRD by the means of official notifications. I made lots of recommendations. I made lists of more than 50 items as recommendation to facilitate a better service in the mission. After returning from the mission, I gave a written report to the IRD. Again, I recommended similar things to do.

Email groups.

Using email groups in sharing knowledge is a common method today.

Interviewee 17 explained how peacekeepers used email groups to share their experience and to answer the questions:

I was receiving personal messages and questions from my friends and decided to share my experience in an email group called “Yurtdisinda Turk Polisi.” I wrote a fairly detailed article that includes my experiences during the missions. But it was informal and subjective. Even I would forget what the problem was. Also, if people personally found me by email or phone, I tried to respond to their every question.

Research Question 2: Recommendations for Effective Knowledge Sharing Practices

In this study, the second research question is “What kinds of mechanisms and tools would the peacekeepers use to share their knowledge effectively? What would be an ideal knowledge-sharing model for TNP officers?” The researcher aims to find solutions for knowledge sharing problems and create an effective model to share knowledge with the TNP. The peacekeepers answered this question for three different stages: before the mission, during the mission, and after the mission.

Value.

Generally speaking, interviewees considered that they gained valuable experience and knowledge that should be used by the organization. Their experience can be helpful for newly deployed officers. In addition, their international experience can be practical for the TNP to solve complications in the organization. In fact, Interviewee 4 assessed his experience as valuable knowledge, and believed it should have been formally evaluated by the organization. He was dissatisfied because of the organization's approach. He expressed his disappointment as follows:

Normally, I expected that our organization should have officially asked about our experience and knowledge. After a while, I started thinking nobody cares about our experience. An “after mission report” was not demanded. It was my expectant that they asked me: “You went to a foreign country; you worked at an international environment; you observed many things; you worked with police officers from around the world; you shared their experiences and ideas with them. So what implementations did you find different from ours?” They would ask these kinds of things. They did not even ask for a report or survey. However, newly deployed officers we worked with in the same city asked some questions relevant to the field missions. They asked face to face rather than by email.

Like Interviewee 4, Interviewee 8 believed that working in the UN missions was a great experience for him and contributed to their personal and professional development in various ways. Therefore, he thought that it was worth sharing with others:

I have recommended that everyone I talked to go to the missions. In the field missions, one can catch an opportunity to meet many people from around the world. One can observe foreign officers’ working methods and listen their experiences in a narrow environment. In an atmosphere, where different languages were spoken, different cultures occurred, and different people existed. They tried to understand each other, supported each other, and developed tolerance. The world of citizenship was experienced there.

In contrary to Interviewee 4 and 8, Interviewee12 claimed that the gained experience from the UN missions could only be useful for personal life. It was not practical for the organization because there were big differences between the systems of the UN and the TNP:

I think that my experience was not shared and told. I tried to transfer my information and expertise from Turkey to the field mission. But the experience gained from deployment was not beneficial for many of us. I was at the IT department during my term. Because their system was different from ours there was nothing to do with our experience. The experience may be useful for our personal development only. For our organization, there was not a measurable usefulness. This information can be useful for only officers who have a plan to take a position in the mission.

Financial benefits of the UN missions.

An economic benefit of the mission was one of the most critical reasons to incite people to be part of the UN system. According to Interviewee 11, financial benefit was an important factor to motivate people to go to the UN missions. He gave an example how he encouraged his subordinates by stressing the financial advantages of working as a UN peacekeeper:

I advised my low-ranking personnel to improve their language skills and take part in the exam. In particular, I recommended police officers focus on the UN missions instead of sergeant exams by emphasizing the mission's economic benefits. I told them "you would make more money than your pension compensation." Being deployed as peacekeepers in the field can broaden their horizons and give them international experience.

Interviewee 6 mentioned economic advantages of deployment on the missions. It can be said that based on his statements, economic benefits were an important motive to go to the field missions:

I gave information about my experience to my friends who would go to the same place. In particular, the year after I was deployed the UN missions have become more popular. While officers looked for a rental house before going to the mission, they started seeking homes for sale after returning the mission. People around us noticed the economic sense of the mission. People rushed through us to ask questions. Mostly we gave information in person. Thus, many people attended English courses.

Jealousy.

Some interviewees criticized attitudes some people had about peacekeepers who had recently returned from missions. Interviewee 14 complained about the organizational perception, saying people were jealous of peacekeepers. As a dominant approach, the peacekeepers were purposefully assigned undesirable departments after

returning from missions. Instead of benefiting their experience, the organization does not care for their knowledge:

Nobody asked me about my experience or demanded a report. There is a perception against people who were deployed in the UN missions that "the peacekeepers were sneaky because they went to the mission and made money." There is no any effort to benefit from their experience or knowledge.

Interviewee 7 claimed that there is a negative perception about peacekeepers because other officers might be jealous about them and the financial advantages they got due to the mission. His story supported Interviewee 14's assumption:

I think the general attitude about peacekeepers can be called jealousy or intolerance. The organization did not take advantage of my experience. On the other hand, they maybe thought to disturb me by changing my department. Before the mission my department was a unit related to the coast guard. Typically, I should have started in the same unit after returning from the mission, but I was assigned to a police station. They did this assignment by thinking that, "he was in the UN mission; thus, he did not work hard for one year. Also, he made money and bought a house. He must be punished. We should assign him to a problematic area to work." Fortunately, I was able to stay in my department, but the perception was like that.

Before the Mission

The researcher asked question 4 by expecting the peacekeepers' recommendation to share knowledge efficiently before the mission.

Recommendations for Effective Knowledge Sharing (Interviewee Question 4)

Question 4 is "What would make knowledge sharing among TNP officers more effective and useful before the mission?" Question 4 solicited knowledge from the interviewees concerning what the TNP peacekeepers would do to implement effective knowledge sharing practices. Interviewees came up with many ideas to share knowledge and inform newly deployed peacekeepers. Conducting a training program,

having a more effective International Relations Department (IRD), using written documents, and creating email groups were quite common as proposals, which can be defined as key aspects of their recommendations. They also mentioned the importance of a well-designed website and the consequence of getting a good post on the field missions, which were significant tools in informing people. A few interviewees suggest creating an organizational policy and constructing a whole-system approach in providing information. Interviewees also emphasized building a squad house, requesting help of cell phone service providers, and organizing conferences. All of the suggestions and their distributions can be seen in Table 20, and Figure 17 demonstrates the distribution of suggested sources and tools to inform newly deployed peacekeepers.

Table 20

Suggestions for More Effective Knowledge-Sharing Practices

Recommendation	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
House of squad	1	1
Cell phone providers	1	1
Conference	1	1
Creating a policy	2	2
Email groups	7	7
Hotline	2	3
International Relations Department (IRD)	9	10
Post	5	7
Training program	11	20
Website	5	7
Whole-system approach	2	2
Written documents	7	13

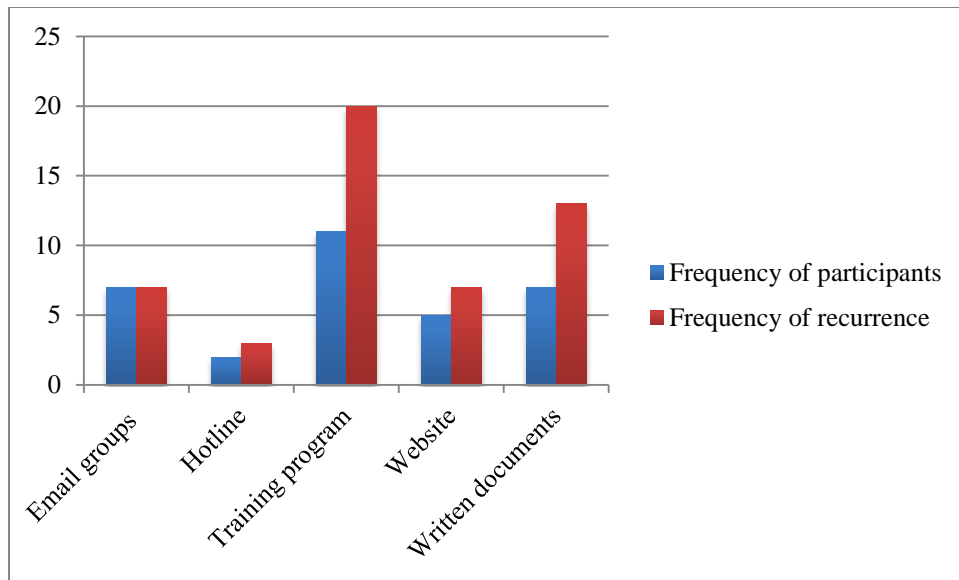


Figure 17. Recommended knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools for pre-mission period

The findings have revealed that interviewees evaluate training programs as the most important activity to inform peacekeepers before being deployed, representing 11 out of 19. The training program is the irreplaceable tool to inform people by the TNP organization. Interviewees not only mentioned a pressing need for a training program but also provided many aspects of it, such as curriculum, location, time, trainers, and benefits. Interviewees mentioned a lack of a systematic and professional perspective on organizing a training program. For example, Interviewee 15 complained of a lack of systematic training course and described the content of a course:

We have had an expectation from our organization. Many Turkish Peacekeepers have been deployed in the UN missions for a long time. However, over the years, our organization has not systematically conducted a training course for each mission. The training should involve various subjects including local culture, required things, UN organizational structure, and working conditions. A booklet, as I mentioned, would support the training program.

Another example of what is meant by interviewees requiring a systematic approach was Interviewee 11's explanation in designing a training program:

First thing to remember, the mission is a subject that should be evaluated with a professional perspective. The experienced colleagues gave a speech in our training program, which was like a conference. The potential problems should be considered step by step to make the training better. In fact, a training course that enables an authentic Q&A session would be more useful than a conference atmosphere.

Interviewees were prone to give in-depth explanations about the training program. An example of this was the description carried out by Interviewee 2, in which he identified features of the training course by giving details such as time, location and trainers in charge of the program:

A three -or five- day training program should be conducted for peacekeepers before being deployed. During the program, experienced peacekeepers should share their experiences with newcomers. It would be a good opportunity to share their ideas and experiences. In conclusion, the peacekeepers are selected around the country; therefore, it does not make sense to bring all together. A training program may be arranged for peacekeepers who work in Ankara. The program may be recorded and placed in POLNET, and all of the peacekeepers can join the program online. The system I mentioned was used during a training course for middle level managers; it is doable.

Likewise Interviewee 8 offered a suggestion on the structure of the program as follows: "The training should involve the following topic: representation of Turkey, brief information about the UN, ethnic sensitivity, international law and rights, and motivation to do the best." The mode of defining a training program used by Interviewee 12 was similar to that used by Interviewee 2 and Interviewee 8, who explicated a comprehensive a training program by providing its settings, such as location, time, structure, and so on:

I could not attend the training, but I am sure that the following topics are to be explained in the training. Urgent stuff to bring with them should be mentioned first. What do they have in their backpacks? When they go there, they do not return for a long time to their home countries. There are many people from around the world in the field missions, so the training should include etiquette in the work, about relationships, and in representing the country, etc. Even if the

training lasts a couple of days, these topics should be explained. I think that the training must be conducted in headquarters in Ankara. Our training took three days; nonetheless, a training program should last seven days because the mission is a one-year post at least.

In conjunction with aforementioned explanations, Interviewee 6 highlighted the influence of personalities on getting information. He also recommended benefiting from experienced colleagues' expertise in training programs:

I would put together all the personnel who will go to the UN field missions for two days in a training course. Consistently, the UN conducts induction training when newcomers arrive. However, before going to the missions, training would be implemented by using experienced peacekeepers in headquarters.

In the same manner, Interviewee 3 stated the different characteristics of the field missions and emphasized importance of the content of an idiosyncratic training program:

If a person did not have personal relations with experienced people, it would be difficult for him to get information. Therefore, it is vital to design a formal training program for newcomers. The training program should vary based on the target mission place. For instance, Kosovo and East Timor have different circumstances; consequently, the content of the training should be based on the mission's conditions. Acquiring knowledge depends on people's personalities who seek information. To me, the most effective way is to learn from an experienced person who went through the same process as you start. Besides, if the source of information is your close friend, you can get more information. I think being sincere and having a good relationship are important components.

In contrast to many interviewees who described headquarters or Ankara as the best place to conduct a training program, Interviewee 18 offered E-Learning to inform peacekeepers by using CDs or the Internet:

One week before deployment, a training course should be conducted. The training can be supported with visual materials and power points. In addition, a CD would be prepared and delivered to the newcomers. People can use the CD to get informed and take a quiz at the end. After the quiz, a certificate can be

published, which showed the candidate completed the training successfully. The content of the CD can be sent via the Intranet or the Internet, as well.

Accordingly, Interviewee 9 expressed the responsibility of the Education Department in organizing a training program. In addition, he offered different subjects for content of the program:

The Education Department should be involved in these training activities, as well. For example, using body armor, riot or swat helmet, and approaching riot incidents. We have to be trained about our safety. Also, the information should be provided about the rules of radio communications in foreign languages. The department should know what the basic needs are and supply them.

Having experienced colleagues and providing updated information are critical to implement a training program successfully. To illustrate the point, Interviewee 16 underlined benefits of a one-week training program designed by experienced colleagues:

To me, one-week orientation training should be conducted by TNP, including future positions' requirements, UN concepts and terminology in foreign language. I claim that a training program designed by experienced peacekeepers would be more helpful. I think it must be useful. The training sessions make newcomers motivated to get a good post. This training program should be implemented in headquarters, not in the provinces. It has to have a professional curriculum and syllabus. Meanwhile, the trainers' information should be updated when new knowledge comes from the missions in a timely manner. Accordingly, I mean that a small group of professional and experienced trainers, such as three or five people, should conduct this educational program, and these trainers should get updated information from the field.

Written document.

Equally important, based on interviewees' statements, written documents can be used as a practical tool in providing needed information before deployment of the peacekeepers. Interviewees came up with ideas about design, practicality, and content

of the written documents. Interviewee 1 described how to use written documents to inform peacekeepers:

An official written report can be demanded from peacekeepers by the organization (TNP). The report must be focused, concise, and clear. After collecting the reports, salient advice can be turned into a special format and delivered to the newcomers. The stored information is analyzed and then turned into a brochure. These brochures can be delivered to the new selected peacekeepers either digitally or a printed document. Information in the brochures can be shared by experienced peacekeepers with the help of PPT presentations before deployment of the peacekeepers.

In conjunction with Interviewee 1's recommendation, Interviewee 5 advised to demand a written report from peacekeepers after completing the field mission and highlighted its benefits in sharing knowledge:

Demanding a written report would be a good idea after returning from the missions. The Department of International Relations has started to demand reports these last years. In terms of these reports, many problems related to getting a post and working processes would be solved. These reports would be stored in data storage, processed and updated in a timely manner. The collected information can be organized and sent to newcomers in a written form by supporting audio and visual documents.

Accordingly, Interviewee 6 expressed what a written document should include and how useful it can be in achieving organizational goals:

A booklet would be prepared, which would lead us to accomplish organizational goals. The booklet would include duties, posts, expectations, and explanations. Particularly, the booklet would involve some historical information about Kosovo because Turks had some historical connections with them.

Like Interviewee 6, Interviewee 8 mentioned a booklet to inform peacekeepers:

"A booklet would be published, which includes application offices and consulates for every country. Even if this booklet is 5 to 10 pages, it would be useful." Due to a lack of institutional policy, some experienced peacekeepers individually tried to help their newly

deployed colleagues. Interviewee 15 explained how much effort one of his friends made to create a booklet:

I want to talk about individual efforts about sharing knowledge. One of my peers prepared a booklet about Liberia when we were there. The booklet explained many issues, such as living conditions, renting a house, outlining duties of the posts, and geographic areas. My peers sent this booklet through the email groups after enriching it with photos. It was a useful project that many people have benefited from.

From a different viewpoint, Interviewee 17 emphasized the importance of concise and brief information. He strongly advised creating a checklist or a to do list:

Using a booklet that avoids unnecessary details is important for informing peacekeepers. Experienced people's stories and power point presentations would be used. A package would be prepared, including all requirements as a checklist and can be applied in provinces without coming to headquarters. There is a need for a to do list including general issues, specific problems and predictions.

Email groups.

Interviewees stated that email groups could be used as one of the most important ways in sharing knowledge. Interviewee 9 offered to put newly selected peacekeepers' names into the email group as soon as they were assigned to the field missions:

Before sitting for the exam, I had to have information about Haiti. First of all, newcomers had better be informed before an exam. An email group can be built up; thus, every peacekeeper can access the information. In a website, general information about missions can be presented. I guess there is this kind of information on the website of the IRD. After passing the exam, the emailing activities can be started via these groups.

Interviewee 4's explanations corresponded to Interviewee 9's recommendation:

An email group should be built. After being selected as a peacekeeper nominee of the UN, the nominees should be registered in the group, which facilitates knowledge sharing and updating.

From a different perspective, Interviewee 13 said the email groups are the best way of informing peacekeepers: "As far as the distance is concerned, it seems to me the best way is online knowledge sharing, by implementing email groups." Interviewee 10 mostly focused on informing street-level police officers about field mission opportunities. He mentioned email and mobile phone services as a suitable means:

All personnel have an email address. The notice would be sent to their email addresses. Everybody would follow the updated information easily. The TNP would send these kinds of messages by using cell phones. Thus, the awareness about getting a position at the UN missions would be developed among personnel.

The website.

Another significant finding is that a current website of the IRD can be consolidated or modified to provide more comprehensive and specific information based on the field missions. Many interviewees suggested using websites as an effective tool to share information in the form of written documents, photos, simulations, audio and video. Interviewee 6 explained how email groups could be used as a dynamic source for the website and how practical it could be:

As far as I know, the International Relation Department has a website. I checked it three years ago, and there was little information about field missions. I do not know if today the website includes in-depth knowledge. Detailed information can be found in the email group called "*Yurtdisinda Turk Polisi*." In the email group, one asks, "I want to go to Kosovo and how can I get information?" Another answers immediately. This information is forgotten in this email group; instead, this kind of information would be put on the website.

Interviewee 8 compared written documents and websites as follows: "Needed information can be put together under the International Relations Department Website.

The website would be more useful than a booklet because it can be updated easily, and, if needed, it can be printed.” In the same manner, Interviewee 19 pointed out other advantages of the website:

The International Relations Department would share needed information on its websites. Everybody can access this information easily. Experienced peacekeepers should transfer their expertise about the following issues. What kinds of diseases are common and risky? What should be done to get a post? These are the hot topics in the missions; thus, training and websites should be used to inform people about these topics.

Hotline.

Interviewee 17 stressed a necessity for a hotline to provide constant communication between field missions and headquarter: “The Department of the International Relations’ must have a hotline, it must be reachable anytime. A hotline is a must to inform families in crisis.”

The IRD.

A number of interviewees stated that the role of the International Relations Department (IRD) has a critical importance in informing peacekeepers before the deployment in the field missions. According to findings, IRD was the responsible department holding component authority to provide needed information, representing 9 out of 19. However, interviewees mean that they have not been satisfied with IRD’s performance. The statements of Interviewee 18 reinforced this assumption:

The Department of International Relations should have organized our procedures, but they neither organized procedures nor provided enough information we needed. They do not have any documentation system. People needed information even if only one page, including currency and population. Even if it is only encyclopedic information, it would be useful.

Interviewees expected the creation and implementation of a system, involving a training program, website, email group, and so on, to inform peacekeepers from the IRD. For instance, Interviewee 13's expressions described this expectation:

The International Relations Department should prepare booklets in eBook format. It is the department's responsibility. Furthermore, the department had better conduct a training course in headquarters using the experienced peacekeepers as trainers. Since the mission is located in an unfamiliar place, training is critical. A similar training is given in Germany.

Simply stated, interviewees mostly referred to the IRD as the responsible unit to inform peacekeepers. Interviewee 1 reported his expectation from the IRD as follows: "A preparatory work and meeting should have been arranged by the responsible unit, that is the TNP International Relation Department." Like Interviewee 1, Interviewee 9 mentioned the IRD as the responsible department: "To me, the responsible unit is the international Relations Department. Because they are in charge of this task, the department is responsible for effectively sharing knowledge." Interviewees also mentioned a need of having an office focusing on the peacekeepers. This kind of office can be helpful to share knowledge effectively. In fact, Interviewee 14 stated this requirement as a wish:

At least, I wish we would have an office at the IRD, which would work not only as an administrative branch but also as a communications center. Therefore, after returning from a mission, peacekeepers could share their knowledge and impressions, and the office can document these experiences.

Posting.

Surprisingly interesting, working in a high position in the field missions is a general and most desired goal for many interviewees. The interviewees consider getting an effective post, such as assistant division commander, division commander, deputy,

director, and so on, as a unique way to represent their countries. Success on the job at the UN field missions means getting a good post for many of them. Interviewee 16's explanations show the point clearly:

The training program should be enriched with the flow of the knowledge from the missions by providing new-opened posts and their requirements. This information is known on the field missions. I find it important to get an effective post in the mission, which not only increases the profitability but also your country's quality. As far as I know, people try to get a good post as a result of their efforts, but an organizational policy should have supported people to get better posts.

Like 16, the statement of Interviewee 18 about getting posts is a good example of this common perception:

When we first went to the missions, our goal was to work internationally. After a while, we wanted to get better posts such as division commander, assistant chief, etc. We needed information for getting these posts. We need an institutional approach in making a preparation for missions. How could it be better for our country and UN? As an organization, we have to make preparations by educating and coaching people for some specific posts. Thus, these people can be deployed as managers in effective posts.

Interviewee 15 underpinned Interviewee 18's expressions by emphasizing that one of the most likely causes of knowledge sharing is getting better posts:

A training course would inform people about the posts and their requirements before deploying. Accordingly, people can easily get better posts when they arrive. Maybe the first day would be about general information, and second and third days would be related to posts.

Whole-system approach.

In contrast to most interviewees, Interviewee 7 believed a whole-system approach, comprising the Internet and hotline, will solve problems in the process of informing peacekeepers:

A special system can be built for them. For example, the police department of cities can communicate via POLNET. Likewise, mission areas can communicate with each other via a similar system on the Internet. When a person asks a question, the system should answer it in 24 hours. This system has two sides: Internet and phone. Similar to hot line, the system has to have a responsible person who should be reachable 24/7 by taking into account time differences around the world. Skype and MSN messengers or similar tools to realize a face-to-face interaction can support communication. I do not know the existence of a similar system in TNP. However, I think this kind of system is a must.

Organizational policy.

Interviewee 6 advocated a need of creating an organizational policy alongside using other techniques, such as training programs, written documents, and website:

I do not know if it exists today, but when we went to the mission we were suffering from a lack of a working philosophy at the missions. We did not have any idea about why we deployed there. Typically, it should have been a policy of the organization. The organization should say that these are our expectations from you when you deploy on the mission.

Squad house.

Besides abovementioned subjects, Interviewee 18 pointed out a requirement of building a squad house:

A squad house would be a good idea. The US and Germany implement this practice for large mission that comprise more than 50 people. The government sends two or three officers to deal with official processes and paper work.

During the Mission

The researcher's goal is to reveal what would have been done to implement effective knowledge sharing among the peacekeeper during the mission.

Innovative Ideas for Better Knowledge Sharing (Question 7)

Question 7 is "What do you think the ideal systems, mechanisms and tools to share knowledge would be?" The researcher anticipated that the interviewees would

have innovative ideas to consolidate communication and knowledge sharing among them during their tour of duties. When asked what would facilitate better knowledge sharing in the mission, interviewees offered various ideas that would be useful if incorporated in the missions. The most recommended solution was email groups. Some interviewees recommended creating email groups because they did not use email groups as a communication tools in their fields.

Table 21

Possible Solutions on Sharing Knowledge for during the Mission

Solutions	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Colleagues	2	4
Commander	4	15
Email groups	9	19
Embassies	2	5
Hierarchy	2	4
IRD	3	9
Meetings	2	5
Phone calls	2	4
Posts	3	8
Squad house	1	2
Training	2	2
N/A	2	2

On the other hand, others suggested modifying and consolidating the present email groups in various ways. The second recommended solution focused on the contingent commanders. Interviewees discussed the authority and responsibility of the commander, affairs between the IRD and the commander, their workloads, and so on. The third important solution was related to postings and the IRD. Interviewees asserted that the IRD is the key department to improve knowledge sharing and solve the problems in the UN missions. Also, they noted that getting effective posts was critical for

them in achieving personal and professional goals as well as representing their countries. Colleagues, embassies, hierarchy, meetings, phone calls, and trainings were equally important concepts for them in developing a better knowledge sharing practice. Squad houses were the least mentioned idea among others. Meanwhile, two interviewees reported that knowledge sharing was agreeable during the mission period, and there was no need for extra effort or solutions. The data for interviewees' solutions for more effective sharing knowledge are presented in Table 21. Figure 18 shows recommended sources and tools for sharing knowledge during the mission.

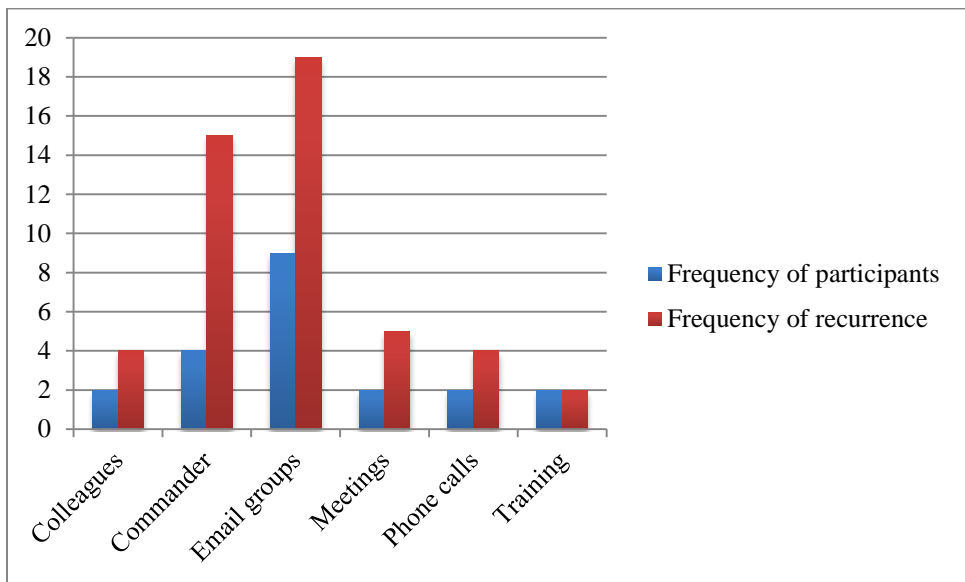


Figure 18. Recommended knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools during the mission

Email groups.

Interviewees mostly proposed creating email groups or consolidating the existing groups, representing 9 out of 19. Developing technology and increasing use of the Internet made email groups the most valuable tool in sharing knowledge in the mission. Interviewee 13 pointed out why the Internet was useful media for him:

In the field, the single tool for us was the Internet. Although we could communicate by phone with our families, friends, and colleagues, the Internet was the most used tool, especially email groups, MSN, Skype, and social networks. The formal and written notification was sent online, including urgent news, meetings information, and warnings from headquarters. So I used Internet in the field more than I had used it my whole life before deployment.

Interviewees' recommendations were based on their expertise, background, and departments in which they work. For example, Interviewee 1 has an information technology background; accordingly, he not only recommended creating email groups, but also provided many details about these groups, including their names, structures, and contents:

Today, people check their emails almost ten times a day; so, creating email groups would be a good idea. Its name can be Turkish Police in Kosovo 2010, 2011, etc. The peacekeepers would sign up and become members. Then, they can transfer their knowledge and expertise to their friends easily. It would be so useful. They can tell their stories there. Apart from this informal email group, a formal one would be built to share official correspondences and written notifications. These email groups could be tailored to the size of regions, such as in provinces as small groups, in regions as medium groups, and across the country as large groups. These groups are the fastest way to share knowledge. Therefore, to me, it is the most effective thing.

It is surprisingly interesting that in contrast to Interviewee 1, Interviewee 4 thinks that intermediaries must be used rather than email in informing people: "Keeping in touch constantly by different forms of communication rather than email. I do not think everyone checks his emails periodically. I'm saying this in terms of communication among people there."

Email groups created and used by the small size province sometimes cannot be fruitful and do not provide expected assistance because a few people may not produce sufficient information. For example, Interviewee 14 stated a need of more comprehensive email groups:

A more comprehensive email group that embraces other fields' missions could be useful. So we would benefit from their work experience. There were some departments I had never worked in and had no idea about them. The groups could meet their information needs on these issues. Also, our mission was relatively new and small sized. We could learn other missions' systems and benefit from them. We could learn from them how to write reports, at least.

Interviewees' comments were based on their domain knowledge and experience. Some interviewees were good at creating and moderating email groups. For instance, Interviewee 6 compared email groups and online forums by emphasizing their pros and cons:

An online forum would be the most effective form of information sharing. Everyone has different working hours, and anything you do except online forums would not be comprehensive. Unless using online tools, one cannot transfer information immediately and efficiently. The best way seems to be creating an email group, to me. There are some examples, such as "Yurtdisinda Turk Polisi." A Kosovo version of these kinds of email groups can be created. It depends on the country the mission in which is located. If you are in Sudan, you can build a Sudanese version of it. These email groups can be used to communicate constantly. In addition, you can create a website for forums. However, a forum could be difficult to control and install. We experienced both forum and email groups in the USA. I was the moderator and founder of the email group. A transition was done from email groups to forums. Many discussions occurred concerning this transition. I rejected this change by emphasizing that it would be difficult to track the forums. After this transition, our communication was interrupted. The best communication method is the email group. Forums can also be put on the IRD's website to store information.

Contingent commander.

The contingent commander was one of the most critical figures that had an impact on sharing knowledge. Interviewees asserted that a dedicated contingent commander positively affects the process of sharing knowledge and communication while a carefree commander adversely influences the communication and performance in the mission. Therefore, selection of a commander is a complicated issue.

Headquarters should regulate the authority and liability of the commander precisely.

Interviewee 7 discussed the position and responsibilities of contingent commanders. According to him, the contingent commander is an important figure when it comes to managing communication and information flow. However, being a contingent commander adds extra responsibilities to people without providing advantages. From this point, he suggested assigning high ranking and experienced officers as representatives who are only employees of the TNP, not peacekeepers. Therefore, they can focus on administration of the contingent:

The contingent commander was a person who had the highest seniority as customary, who dealt with all that correspondence, coordination, etc. We have to remunerate him because he is a UN officer like other peacekeepers. He has to work all day and has responsibilities like others, besides his tasks of the commander of the contingent. His main task is not related to the contingent. Also, he has his job and family, etc. Being a commander of the contingent brings an additional workload. Also, it does not provide any advantages or benefits. Therefore, the contingent commanders delegate their authorities and responsibilities to their subordinates. The subordinates do the same thing because the commanders do not follow up. Nobody looks at the contingents' task as their own responsibility, and an authority gap occurs; accordingly, a systematic and planned approach cannot be practiced. I do not know. Maybe this could be the most extreme idea. A senior and experienced police chief can be assigned as representatives from headquarters. His unique responsibility should be to manage and supervise the contingent. They have to focus on peacekeepers' needs. These representatives can do lots of things related to coordination and communication in the field. For instance, they can provide needed information to newcomers before deployment. The newly deployed peacekeepers can access required information with the help of contingent commanders. The peacekeepers can give their feedback through them.

Interviewee 9 compared the status of Turkish contingent commanders and other countries' commanders. His expressions also supported to the Interviewee 7's explanations:

Our contingent commander actually was a UN officer, as we were. His main tasks were the duties of the UN. The works related to the contingent were his secondary tasks. The commander dedicatedly carried out these tasks as an extra

work. The person who had the highest rank was automatically assigned as the contingent commander. It was a burden for him. However, other countries' contingents held an election to determine who would be the commander; it did not depend on just rank. Also, the commander had an extra income from the home country, which would motivate him to perform better.

Similarly, Interviewee 17 believed that the contingent commander's authority should be specified accurately. This implementation would prevent them from using their initiatives indiscreetly:

There has to be regulation or rules about providing information. When the UN sent a notification, the contingent commander should follow a standard way. After informing the IRD, he should inform peacekeepers based on the organization's policy. For example, a notification came from the UN about extension of the terms. The contingent commander should ask the IRD, and then he has to inform peacekeepers based on the IRD's policy. To illustrate, he can mention the requirement to get extensions and explain the measurements and criteria to select people. The limitations of the authority and responsibility of the commander should be determined certainly.

Colleagues.

Colleagues have been mentioned as a critical source of information before the mission period. Likewise, interviewees emphasized their importance for during the mission period. Interviewee 3 mentioned his colleagues as a most important source for him:

What else would be a good a system? I think another significant factor is one's own efforts for benefiting from other friends. The most important source in receiving information there is our fellows. In a foreign country, it seems impossible to get information from anyone except your experienced friends. One needs more information in the first place. Other than friends, I do not know a way.

Interviewee 5 recommended benefiting from experienced colleagues during the mission as well:

The field mission is a different environment than that of Turkey, so people need extra support until they adapt, at least at the beginning of their terms. Such a system can be improved. Experienced colleagues would help their colleagues through a buddy system. Direct contacts can be built between newcomers and their experienced colleagues.

Meetings.

Meetings were opportunities for peacekeepers to discussing their problems, experiences, and potential solutions. Although peacekeepers already used this effective tool, it should be organized more systematically in some locations. Interviewee 2 recommended organizing periodic meetings with attendance of all personnel. Also, he emphasized the need of creating a free atmosphere to discuss any kind of problem.

Meetings were held in the field occasionally. Meetings could be generalized to all personnel, for example for the April 10th celebration –the Police Day in Turkey. In fact, the commander and secretariat were meeting once a month. Likewise, the personnel can become together biweekly or monthly. There were almost 60 people that day. If a meeting was organized, everybody could mention his problems and concerns. For example, someone would say, “I cannot work this department because I have never worked there, and I do not know this department’s area. I worked in the IT department. If the IT department is available, I could work there.” But even this kind of concern cannot be mentioned. Everybody had to work the office in which they started at the beginning. Because of hierarchy, nobody expressed his ideas frankly.

Interviewee 10 highlighted the usefulness of meetings for them during the mission:

Email really works among people. Phone consultation is already very common. However, meetings, whether formal or informal, relieve people psychologically. It helped to create a spirit of unity and solidarity. The image of acting together promotes unity. This image increases our strength. Being aware of each other in collective action and creating a good image are really important. After the number of people increased, being together becomes more difficult because of place, cost, and timing. Therefore, the contingent should divide into small groups.

Phone calls.

Despite common usage of email groups, sometimes people cannot join these groups because of the field mission's small size or technical infrastructure. In this case, phone calls can be a good solution. Interviewee 19's response clarified this point:

If there was not an email group, people tried to solve their problems alone. The contingent commander can assign a person to call these kinds of people to help them. Even if there was not a problem, the people who work in the province should be called and visited periodically. Otherwise, they can feel abandoned.

Training.

Conducting training programs seemed a possible solution to some interviewees. Interviewee 5 said, "More extensive training programs should be conducted, just as organized by the UN. This is something that is still missing. It can be done. Experience transfer is possible."

Posting.

Equally important, the posting issues were vital to the interviewees. They mostly targeted to get a high position, which means a good representation of their country and personal achievement for them. Statements of Interviewee 11 supported this finding:

There is actually a representation there. There is a problem motivating personnel. For instance, I applied to a post in the logistic department with my own efforts. I was working in academy, and it was not an effective position. I tried to implement some projects there, but they failed. After an officer from Nepal left the position, I got it. I worked there my whole term, and a senior Turkish colleague got the position after me. But after he left, an American officer started there. Some posts were key positions, such as human resources and logistics. Our personnel would be encouraged to get these sorts of posts. There is a motto "the UN is the conscience of the world." I think our colleagues are qualified to get better positions in this important institution. These kinds of encouragements can occur.

Like Interviewee 11, Interviewee 13 was ambitious on making a positive shift in his career path. He indicated the governments' policies and effectiveness on getting a higher post:

The following rule is valid for countries: The more political effectiveness the better positions in the UN missions. Although the national balance and equal opportunity are considered, general policy is based on politics. For example, let's say Turks are effective in the Kosovo mission. Likewise, French and Canadians have a political weight in Haiti. The same is for the USA in Liberia. A country's political weight increased the chance of personnel in receiving high-level positions. For example, Canada was a donor country in Haiti. None of the Canadians were in a low position. All of them were in the managerial positions. From this point, our government must have a policy like that. Qualified personnel should be selected based on their language proficiency and experience. Then, they have to be assigned managerial positions, such as chief of staff, commissioner, and deputy commissioner by the means of our government's political support.

The IRD.

Interviewees also argued for the need for rules in performing email group activities. Interviewee 8 explained how email group activities should be carried out and organized, especially by emphasizing the importance of the IRD in some concerns in establishing the rules and regulations, such as expressing ideas freely:

For example, the IRD would officially notify peacekeepers about an email group. The IRD would become the moderator for this email group. The system lasts as long as the mission exists. There is not a need to create new email groups again and again. The peacekeepers' names can be deleted from the group after they have completed their terms. The IRD can monitor discussions on the group, and, if needed, it can interfere in the discussions. They can come up with good ideas through of the discussions. By the way, people should be informed that the discussions do not cause any legal liability. If they are concerned about some legal issues, they cannot discuss their problems openly. After completing these discussions, they can be edited by the contingent commander, and would be sent to the IRD. Thus, the headquarters can be a part of problem-solving process.

Interviewee 9 described how and why the IRD should communicate with the families of the peacekeepers:

The IRD is required to have all the information in the mission, including family information. When I am sick or in trouble, how will my family be informed? The IRD did not have such a data bank. Knowledge sharing is a pressing need not only among peacekeepers, but also among families. There is a need to coordinate and communicate because the field is a risky area. In fact, earthquakes, riots, and injuries occur.

Embassies.

Embassies and consulates were mentioned as potential information sources in helping peacekeepers during their mission duties. Mostly they did not have any relation with diplomatic agencies. Interviewee 8 complained about the lack of effective usage of the Turkish embassies or consulates located in the field missions:

Turkish peacekeepers should access their embassies and consulates and build closer relationships with them. For example, I had a peer who worked for the Turkish Embassy as security officer. I visited our embassy in Kosovo a couple of times because of him. If I did not know him, I would never go there. However, these places are our consulates. We have similar goals as different institutions. I think a better coordination can be built between consulates and contingents.

Interviewee 14's expressions supported the perceived lack of relationship between peacekeepers and diplomatic delegations:

We should have an address book or phone book. For example, there was not any Turkish Embassy or Consulate in our field; I did not know where the nearest one was. It makes me feel like a stranger and alone. Some countries have embassies in the field missions, and their existence positively affected their images and personnel policies.

Hierarchy.

It is obvious that peacekeepers maintained the TNP's organizational hierarchy in the field missions. Some interviewees claimed that senior officers abuse the TNP's

hierarchical structure and organizational culture. In particular, the hierarchy affects the contingent's decisions on distribution of the posts and assignments; thus, some senior officers could get better posts because of their seniority at the TNP hierarchy. This implementation disturbed low-ranking officers because they think that they even deserve to work in better positions. This organizational culture does not allow them to get better positions. Some interviewees emphasized this implementation's adversarial effects on the knowledge-sharing process. Interviewee 2 reprovingly stated this issue:

Due to this hierarchical structure, people avoided sharing their knowledge. If a low ranking officer stated his difficulties stemming from his department in the mission, senior officers would think he wanted to change his department, which means the junior would get their positions. This organizational hierarchy must not be implemented in the field missions. It has to be flexible. It depends on the contingent commander's approach. When an officer is deployed in the UN missions, he should know that "everybody comes here on equal terms. Nobody comes here because of his rank. Everybody sits for the exam and based on its results, we are deployed." This approach is actually ideal. If a senior officer must to go to an unwanted post, he should go; similarly, if a junior deserves a better post, he should take it. Implementing the TNP's hierarchical rules there negatively affects knowledge sharing. I worked there as a guard in a prison. Although I was an IT person, I did not do anything with computers. In our prison, for example, there were better posts, but because of hierarchy, a junior officer could not get these posts. Even if the junior officer was more competent, he could not get the better posts because the system was not based on merit. These unfair practices degrade our performance. Junior officers think that even if they work harder their supervisor will get credit; so why should they try to make a contribution?

Interviewee 17 critiqued the current selection system of the contingent commanders, which was based on seniority. His expression demonstrated the challenge for both senior officers and their subordinates:

A low-ranking officer at the TNP can have a better position and a higher rank than his senior Turkish colleagues at the UN system in the fields. Some hardships and conflicts can be experienced. Contingent commanders are selected based only on rank in the TNP. However, besides his rank, his

experience, international experience and language proficiency should be considered. In particular, English is not everything but a lot to the mission. I heard that some contingent commanders work like office boys because of a lack of these requirements.

Squads house.

Interviewee 9 advised building a place to improve communication and information sharing among officers. He provided details as follows:

Like some countries, Turkey may build a squad house in the field. The USA had this kind of house. A deployed officer could go and get a uniform from the squad house. There was a library; there was a nurse. The contingent held its meetings there and coordinated communication among peacekeepers.

Although 17 out of 19 interviewees came up with an idea to improve the knowledge-sharing process, two of the interviewees noted that the process was sufficient, and it was not to be developed in any way. For example, Interviewee 16 said that:

I really do not see anything to contribute in the dimension of deployment. I can say that the dimension of the pre-mission is important and there needs to be something more professional in this period. There is a natural process that people do both their job and extra tasks for the contingent, so it would not be fair to expect more effort. I did not complain about the support they provided us when we went to the field. It was so useful for me. I do not feel a need to establish a new system.

In the same manner, Interviewee 18 mentioned his satisfaction about the process, especially stressing success of the email groups:

Frankly, we did not have a problem with sharing information during the mission. There are email groups in every mission. Because of the development of technology and increasing Internet usage, official notifications can be made online. Everyone knows that they should periodically follow these groups and check emails. Somebody uses these email groups for informal communication and asks what they want to know. Therefore, the communication was sufficient during the mission.

After the Mission

The researcher expects new ideas and recommendations from the peacekeepers to implement efficient knowledge sharing practices after returning from the mission.

Suggestions for Effective Knowledge Sharing After the Mission (Interview Question 9)

Question 9 is “To work up new concepts, what kinds of mechanisms and tools would be used for effective knowledge sharing? How would the experienced officers’ knowledge be collected, organized, and disseminated after the mission?” Like question 4 and question 7, this question tried to solicit suggestions of the peacekeepers to solve knowledge-sharing problems. Interviewees’ recommendations were vary for sharing knowledge effectively after returning from the missions.

The most recommended solution was demanding a written report from returning peacekeepers, representing 18 out of 19. The second noticeable concept was the IRD, representing 10 out of 19. Most peacekeepers mentioned it as the responsible department for implementing suggested ideas. Best practices and email groups were other notable solutions, representing 5 out of 19. Interviewees also stated exit interviews and FLP, representing 3 out of 19. Two of the interviewees suggested creating a database and FAQ section as well as encouraging willingness among peacekeepers. Consolidation of the contingent commander’s position, creation of a checklist and discussion groups as well as formation of a conference was the least recommended solutions, representing 1 out of 19. Table 22 shows noticeable recommendations. Figure 19 illustrates recommended sources and tools for sharing knowledge.

Table 22

Prominent Solutions that were Recommended by Interviewees

	Frequency of participants	Frequency of recurrence
Best practice	5	6
Checklist	1	1
Conference	1	2
Contingent commander	1	1
Database	2	4
Discussion group	1	7
Email	5	8
Exit interview	3	5
FAQ	2	3
FLP	3	5
IRD	10	12
POLNET	2	3
Policy	2	3
Posting	4	7
Report	18	44
Training	6	10
Website	5	7
Willingness	2	4

Report.

For the post-mission period, the report was the most recommended tool for collecting information, representing 18 out of 19. Almost every interviewee mentioned the report during the interview sessions. The interviewees emphasized necessity, usefulness, content, format, and timing of the report. The interviewees stated that the TNP should demand a report from every returning peacekeeper. In other words, writing the report must be a mandatory practice for the peacekeepers after the mission. For example, Interviewee 1 said that “an ‘after mission report’ must be demanded from the returning peacekeepers. Then, the TNP should appoint someone to compile these reports.” Likewise, Interviewee 12’s statements demonstrated that a structured report

should be demanded from returning peacekeepers:

The IRD demand a report or a survey from the returning peacekeepers. The questions can be prepared based on each missions' specific conditions. Then, collected information can be organized and presented on the IRD's website.

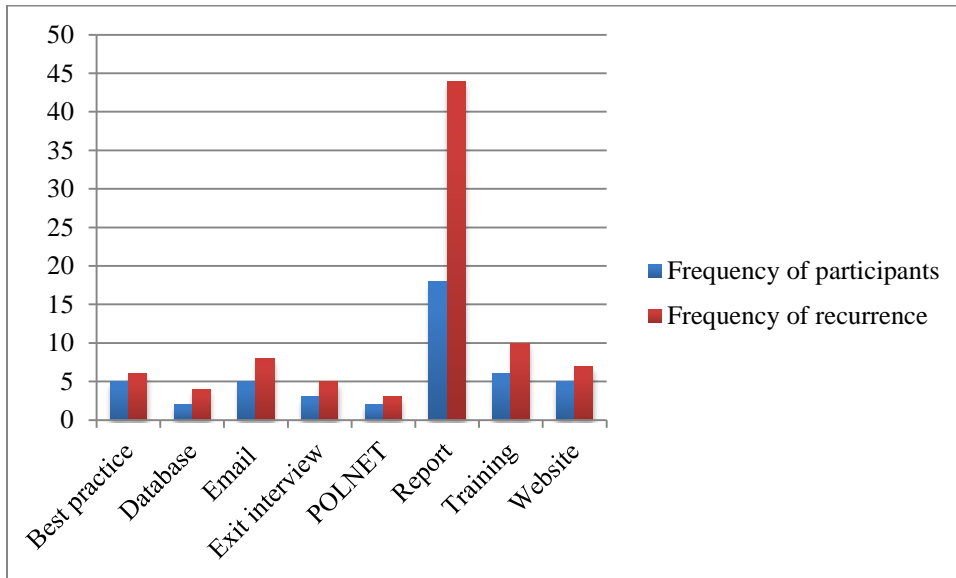


Figure 19. Recommended knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing tools for post-mission period

Like Interviewee 1 and 12, Interviewee 11 also advocated that the report must be a mandatory practice for peacekeepers after returning from the missions. He also mentioned what type of questions can be asked in the reports:

Writing a report must be mandatory. The report should include certain questions such as: "Where did you work? What were your main duties? What do you think about your peers and your contingent commander?" I could mention my ideas about posting, critical duties and the UN system in my report. After analyzing written reports, a pool of information can be created.

In various ways, reports were useful tools in collecting and sharing knowledge.

Interviewee 2 discussed the usefulness of reports in adapting best practices from the UN system or other countries' police forces:

The TNP should demand a report from every peacekeeper. The experienced

difficulties and learned practices can be written. For example, we used the “shift work” in the mission, and came up with an idea of a “three-shift system” for our organization after returning. If everyone expressed similar ideas on the usefulness of “shift work,” the organization would decide to implement it. Thus, best practices can be adapted to the TNP.

From Interviewee 15's perception, the after mission reports can be used comprehensively ranging from an intelligence source to organizational policy helper:

The reports can be used as a tool to gather intelligence and create an organizational policy. For example, the reports can comprise almost 15 questions that help people to summarize the whole mission term. More likely 80% of people would write as a formality, the rest of the reports can provide important clues to understand what is going on there and include beneficial information.

However, Interviewee 6 surprisingly underestimated the report's role in sharing information, and recommended that the contingent commanders should write reports instead of every peacekeeper:

First of all, I have to say that I do not see the usefulness of reports. After finishing the mission, one returns and writes a report. For example, that year 100 people were deployed. I guess everybody would write similar things. Instead, what could be done is that contingent commanders could prepare annual reports. They can specify the problems, implementations, and consideration in their own field missions.

These reports enable the TNP to collect and store information. In order to make information more visible and practical for the TNP, information should be specifically presented. Most interviewees mentioned that the TNP's current report format could be defined as informational and ad-hoc, which is not appropriate to analyze easily. However, analytical reports, which comprise pre-defined and structured questions, would be more beneficial rather than informational reports regarding analyzing process. For instance, Interviewee 3 underlined the significance of reports to store information systematically, and he described the format of the report:

A report must be taken from the returnees. The report should include peacekeepers' experience and advice. An office in the IRD should be responsible for missions. This unit should evaluate and update the reports in a timely manner. The system would work like that. Meanwhile, if supervisors gave a blank page to peacekeepers and expect them to write a report, the outcomes would not be satisfactory. Instead, a structured survey can be used with open-ended questions.

In the same manner, Interviewee 13 defined the current format of the written reports:

There is a regular format to the written reports. It includes demographic information, terms of duties, and observed applications. Open-ended questions are asked in order to capture the best practices. Your answers can help in adoption of some beneficial applications from the UN system. Also, you can attach some pictures, audio, or video record to your reports.

Accordingly, Interviewee 14 suggested conducting surveys to retrieve information from peacekeepers. He also gave some advice in conducting surveys:

A committee can be formed at the Police Academy in Turkey. They would make research about the UN missions. They would conduct surveys. We have sufficient resources to make scientific studies about that. These studies help the TNP to build an organizational policy, vision, and mission. Surveys could be done in three steps: before the mission, in the mission, and after the mission. Before the mission, the expectations can be determined. In the mission, their communication activities can be investigated. After the mission, whether they meet their expectancies can be searched.

Interviewee 16 also recommended that the TNP should demand a structured report, and the TNP should inform peacekeepers about the report's questions before the mission:

Before deployment, the report would be given to the peacekeepers. For example, the report may include 50 questions, "What was the shift system? Were the employees satisfied with the system?" If they know that they had to write a report at the end of their term, they would be all ears and try to collect information during their times. Also, there must be a deadline to submit the report, and people should be officially notified about this date before returning from the mission. I believe it will be useful to increase the rate of report completion.

An unidentified authority in the chain of command should ask the peacekeepers to fill

out the report. Interviewee 19 recommended changing the report format. In particular, from his perspective, a survey can be better to collect information: “There are three general questions in the report. Instead of informational reports, a survey or questionnaire can be conducted. I think it would be better to get more concrete feedback.”

Analysis of the report is also a vital process. Interviewee 5 pointed out that reports should include well-prepared questions to retrieve information from experienced peacekeepers. Also, the TNP has to follow up the analysis of compiled information:

We should create such a report format that enables us to get a lot of information. A carelessly written report cannot be useful. However, the report should contain well-selected questions to facilitate the analysis process. A well-organized report should be prepared to obtain all information from the people systematically. Thus, experienced peacekeepers can express themselves effectively and comfortably, and their experiences can serve newcomers. I think the analysis phase is as important as information collection. If the TNP does not analyze the collected information and adjust parts of the system as necessary, information collection is useless. Therefore, there must be a unit to analyze this collected information. In addition, demanding quarterly reports seems to me more practical rather than yearly reports because after spending one or two years in the mission, people forget their experience.

Interviewees recommended changing of the report’s format. Similarly, they came up with innovative ideas about the reports’ content. To illustrate, Interviewee 9 described a report’s framework by mentioning its content and structure:

A written report is important; the experiences are forgotten without written reports. The living and working conditions of the country can be explained in these reports. For example, “what is the Kosovo mission, and what do peacekeepers do there?” Then, this collected information should be stored in a databank. This databank can be updated with coming reports, so the system can work like that. This updated information can be presented in the induction training.

Some interviewees mentioned that after the mission peacekeepers have busy schedules; therefore, they do not have enough time to write a detailed report.

Correspondingly, Interviewee 18 discussed timing of the reports. According to him, peacekeepers should write reports before returning from the mission because they do not have enough time after returning:

Peacekeepers should be encouraged to write a report during of the mission rather than after the mission. People focus on the new appointments and tasks after the mission, so they do not want to spend time writing a report. The mission will be ended, and new issues will emerge. Therefore, the reports should be written during the mission, instead of after returning.

Training.

Interviewees focused on selecting the trainers and extending the time of the programs. Interviewee 2 noted that after returning, experienced peacekeepers should be used as trainers in the training courses:

For example, the TNP might suggest to me to be a trainer and to join the training session as contributor. The TNP can say, "A one-week training course will be implemented. Would you like to share your experience?" The TNP can use different methods and organize five-day training. Thus, different experiences can be shared among peacekeepers during the trainings. Gained experience needs to be transferred in any way.

Similarly, Interviewee 9 asserted that training is a significant activity that cannot be left to peacekeepers' personal efforts:

Before going to the missions, peacekeepers should attend an induction training that must be conducted by the TNP. The information sharing should not be left to peacekeepers' individual efforts. The TNP has to organize official and in-class training programs to inform people in Ankara. The training can include the information about the UN system, local culture and required gears. The TNP can use experienced officers as trainers in these programs. The IRD can be responsible for organizing these induction trainings. In addition, providing a

psychological support to the newly deployed officers would be a good idea before the mission.

Interviewee 5 noted that the TNP must conduct more comprehensive and long-term training programs in headquarters.

According to current implementation newly deployed peacekeepers are called for two days to headquarters to deal with bureaucratic tasks including doctor reports, visas, passports, and so on. However, the peacekeepers can meet for a one-week training program besides this paper work. A training program can be conducted, teaching them the UN rule and regulations as well as the missions' local and organizational culture by enriching with audio and video materials. It can be designed as a more comprehensive project.

Interviewee 7's statements about the trainers supported Interviewee 2's recommendations:

After returning from the mission, everyone should write a well-designed report. Based on the written reports, the training programs can be designed. In particular, the owner of the good ideas can be invited as trainers to share their innovative ideas and inspiring experiences. This is what I thought.

Email group.

Peacekeepers reported that they have shared their resources, experiences, opinions, and stories in email groups, representing 5 out of 19. They can send their ideas, questions and recommendations before and after the mission. Communication among the peacekeepers contributes to knowledge sharing. However, Interviewee 12's story demonstrated that an official intervention is missing from email groups:

There is an email group for the Haiti mission. I am a member of this group. I returned from the mission 1.5 years ago. I have not checked my emails from this group since returning from there. I noticed that there are 285 emails. I have continued my membership for the reason that if a newcomer asks a question I might have an answer. I also thought I could follow up on what is going on in the field. Although I have been a member of this email group and known that it is useful, I could not have time to read that many emails. Maybe someone asked questions. I do not know.

In spite of Interviewee 12's example, maintaining the membership actually might be a good idea to share knowledge with newcomers. Interviewee 19's statements supported this assumption. He talked about his experience before the mission by emphasizing email groups' usefulness:

There was an email group called "Yurtdisinda Turk Polisi." I used a file in this email group to get information before the mission. It includes required gear, potential problems, and considerations. It was so useful for me. These kinds of activities can be practical for everybody before deployment.

Interviewee 17 stressed a different feature of virtual communication. He pointed out the usefulness of official email addresses in accomplishing an uninterrupted communication and presenting individual and organizational brand:

An official email address should be given to all peacekeepers. All official correspondence should be done with this channel. Based on these email addresses, email groups should be created for each mission, so people can communicate within the groups. Providing an official email can be useful in two ways. First, every officer has a standard email address, which is important for both individual and organizational image. When you say your email address with Hotmail or Yahoo extension, it does not give the same credit as the official extension. Second, sometimes people argue that the email was not sent or received. In particular, a solid communication about official notifications is so important. By the means of official address, the settings can be done and nobody claims that they did not get the email.

Best practice.

Interviewees stated that best practices are useful implementations to develop organization, representing 5 out of 19. Best practices broaden people's horizons and develop the organization. Adopting best practices from the UN system would be the most useful way to develop the TNP and solve organizational problems. Interviewee 16 illustrated this point:

One of my friends had some conflicts with other countries' police officers in the mission. He shared how they solved the problems and dealt with the conflicts. Being familiar with this case before the mission could be helpful for me; otherwise, I could not wisely handle some issues and may compromise my position and name.

Although the UN and the TNP are different organizations, both of them try to solve safety and security problems. Interviewee 9 indicated that the UN's techniques, procedures, and solutions might be adopted by the TNP and used in Turkey:

The UN has a different system on using the cars. According to the system, everyone drives a car by operating his or her electronic cards. However, there are drivers to use the car in the TNP. Their only jobs are driving. The UN system can be implemented in Turkey to use human resources effectively.

Interviewee 13 explained the process of analyzing reports by emphasizing the importance of the best practices in the reports:

I have some friends at the IRD department, who work as analysts. I know from my friends' experience that they do focus on best practices while reading the reports. Peacekeepers would provide examples from the UN applications, local police practices, American police drills and so on. Maybe the whole content of the reports is important, but for the analysts the most important part is best practices.

Interviewee 3 mentioned that he would voluntarily share his experience in front of the cameras and suggested to inserting his video record onto the official website:

People can tell their stories, and these stories can be recorded and shared online. For instance, I would like to share my experience as lessons learned in front of the camera. I would tell some incidents that happened to me in a story format by stressing key points. It would be effective.

Website.

Interviewees said that a well-designed website is an important tool to inform people, representing 5 out of 19. Interviewee 6 argued how online sources can be used in storing and distributing information:

Written reports can be added to the IRD's website. Information related to the missions has to be permanently kept on this website. Reports and general information regarding the field missions should be stored in this website. I think that email groups are not sufficient to handle this huge amount of information. For instance, one question is asked in email groups, and one answers it at that moment. However, six months later, someone else asks the same question, so it is useless. Briefly, email groups are suitable for daily communication; the website is a good solution to store, organize and distribute information.

Interviewee 9 suggested that collected information could be presented on the websites after converting audio and video records:

After collecting information, it comes time to share it with people. First, the information should be converted to written form. After writing them, they can be presented on the website more efficiently than if they were published as a booklet. In particular, to me, audio and video format of information seems more attractive than written form in presenting on a website. An email group is a good idea to contact with Turkey and communicate within the field missions.

Interviewee 12 explained how the website can be used in informing newly deployed peacekeepers:

I remember that a list was published on the IRD's website, which includes what gear an officer should bring with him to the missions. According to the list, one can check his luggage because the list included every kind of detail including blanket, linen, socks, etc. Again this list can be prepared and updated every year.

Interviewee 14 argued about a website and booklets. According to him, using a website in sharing knowledge can be more practical than publishing a booklet:

I imagined publishing a booklet, but a website would be more useful. Creating a website make more sense in terms of updating issues and presenting video records. Websites can be easily updated, while updating booklets can be difficult. We also use the POLNET. The peacekeepers who presently work in the missions can join the discussions.

Exit interview.

Exit interviews can be an effective tool in understanding the current situation and

potential issues in the field and in conveying knowledge and experience from returning peacekeepers. Interviewee 11 advised conducting exit interviews with peacekeepers after their tours of duty:

Maybe an interview would be conducted after returning from the mission. For example, a responsible person from the IRD department asks a couple of question as you did in this study, called exit interview. The exit interviews should be useful in two ways. First, information can be collected directly from the sources. Second, the interviewer should select potential trainers based on their qualifications and performance during the interview. Then, these people can be used as trainer in induction trainings.

Accordingly, from viewpoint of Interviewee 13, exit interviews could help the IRD in noticing the problems:

I think it is important to talk and discuss concerns and considerations to the responsible bureau's authority. For example we called them the earthquake time, and request our needs including body armor, canned food, clothes, and so on. They sent immediately. Likewise, we warned the office about the clothing in Haiti by saying that we need t-shirts and riot police units' uniforms rather than usual uniforms. They changed our clothes, as well. If you talk the correct office and people they help.

Database.

A database can be used to store, protect and manage information, which is vital for every organization. The TNP should store and analyze collected information.

Interviewee 14 described database as the TNP's one of the urgent needs:

Our organization demanded the information of personnel again and again due to the lack of information storage. Also, these records published as a booklet that comprises personnel's locations, missions' names, and sorts of the missions. I mean this booklet helps us to know where are our colleagues, and whether they work as observer or active police as well as what geographic features and historical background of their missions.

In conjunction with this, Interviewee 13 asserted that the TNP has an information storage system, but this system should be modified:

A database should be created by the TNP, and collected information should be put in a database. The database has to involve, “how many time an officer was deployed? What was the spoken language in his mission? What was the country he was deployed?” Our current personnel information system meet approximately 70% of information but we need to cover missing information. A completed database could be helpful for the IRD in organizing the UN mission deployment.

POLNET.

Interviewee 3 claimed that the police information system called POLNET is a practical tool in sharing information:

You know we have a network of POLNET (police information system). After returning from the missions, the peacekeepers can systematically share their experiences as learned lessons on the POLNET. The newcomers can get information from this network. They do not need to seek an information source; they can share easily there. It would be an environment for everyone to use.

The IRD.

Interviewees mentioned the IRD as a responsible department for implementing the recommended changes, representing 10 out of 19. They saw the IRD in charge of implementation of the recommended practices. Thus, Interviewee 2 emphasized the important role of the IRD:

If the information sharing is abandoned to the individual initiatives, it does not work. The information is going to be lost or forgotten. The IRD should coordinate these practices as a responsible department.

Interviewee 8 believed that organizing a conference to reveal the influence of the UN missions on the TNP was one of the main tasks of the IRD:

A conference can be organized to emphasize contributions of the UN missions to the TNP. The conference is a pressing need. It is one of the most important tasks of the IRD. Conducting bureaucratic processes are already followed; they are not main tasks. I think the IRD must operate more effectively and plan activities to develop Turkish peacekeepers’ role in the UN missions.

Some interviewees preferred using the term headquarters instead of the IRD.

Interviewee 7's response is a good example in representing this point. He believed that creating a headquarters could be useful in managing existing knowledge:

The headquarters should have a contact with all officers who have been deployed in the missions. I imagine a headquarters that can organize the training programs by using experienced peacekeepers. The headquarters can get information from all experienced officers if needed.

Posting.

Interviewee 8 stated that every officer in the mission represents his country.

People in the missions evaluate other countries looking at the attitudes and qualifications of the peacekeepers sent by those other countries:

Each country gives serious consideration on the UN missions. Countries made a preparation for representing and posting. Although it was said that conditions are equal to get positions at the UN system, it was obvious that managerial positions are shared between countries. I think our country must be more active and should get initiative in posting. The importance of postings should be emphasized in terms of representation. In addition, foreigners assess our country looking at us; thus, qualified officers should be selected for high-level posts.

Interviewee 16 discussed the effects of the posting concept on work performance:

The goal of getting an effective post affects people's efficiency at work. This is not a label issue and everything does not end when you get the post, but being a leader means that you set goals to accomplish, and you are a dedicated and goal-oriented person. The TNP motivate and guide people to get high posts. Also, working in a high post gives self-confidence because for example, people can think that I became a regional commander in an international environment so my leadership skills and professional competency is good enough.

FLP.

Interviewees mentioned that foreign language proficiency (FLP) is essential for being successful in the field missions. Interviewee 16 suggested that the TNP should organize a training program for teaching the UN terminology and developing

peacekeepers' communication skills in foreign languages:

When I went to the missions I did not understand anything for two weeks. However, my ELP was good; I passed the TOEFL exam; and I got 80 points from the English exam. I started to understand daily speeches 15 days later, but I could apply for a post 6 months later, which was late to get it. Having ELP and using in a specific environment is different issues. I noticed that the problem was not related my daily speaking; I did not know the UN terminology and words used at the work. When you do not speak fluently and communicate effectively, your self-confidence decrease. In spite of your advanced professional knowledge, you seem like clumsy and incompetent. If the TNP organized a training program to teach this vocabulary and terminology, everything would be better for us.

Likewise, Interviewee 10 described the lack of foreign language proficiency as an important problem for peacekeepers:

I think the TNP should pay foreign language proficiency (FLP) a lot of importance. In particular, the Turkish peacekeepers, who are deployed in the UN missions, have to speak their missions' language fluently regardless of English or French. Other countries' officers notice a lack of our (FLP), and they critique us most of the time about this deficiency.

The Interviewee 18 came up with a new idea that the TNP should put new rules about ELP to encourage people improve their knowledge:

There are rumors that some peacekeepers cannot speak very well even if they were deployed more than three times at the UN missions. A system must be created to encourage personal and professional development. For example, if one went to his first mission 60 point –from the English exam- next time he must get 70 points to go. Otherwise, he can repeat himself.

FAQ.

Frequently Asked Questions (FAQs) can be a valuable tool for the TNP. The TNP can inform people on every needed area without repeating same answers for newly deployed peacekeepers. Interviewee 3 advised creation a FAQ section to inform people. According to him these sections can be classified based on the locations:

Preparing a section of the Frequently Asked Questions (FAQ) would be a good idea. "How much money do I take with me? Should I take food with me?" These are simple matters, but people want to know these. These questions can be answered easily in the FAQ chapter. Since every mission has different features, information can be classified based on the missions considering Kosovo chapter, Haiti chapter, and so on.

Policy.

Interviewee 6 claimed that the TNP suffered from a lack of policy on the UN missions:

As an organization, the TNP should have a policy on the UN missions. I do not know how it goes today, but the TNP had not a policy to implement when we were in the mission ten years ago. For example, when the police officers from Germany were deployed, they knew that they would have good positions at the UN system. Likewise, we have to have a similar philosophy. We should have some goals in behalf of introducing and representing our country.

Willingness.

Interviewee 2 stressed that the information sharing practices should be voluntarily; otherwise, the expected outcomes cannot be succeeded:

Information sharing should not be mandatory. The TNP can demand report from peacekeepers as an obligatory practice. However, its reasons should be explained. The IRD can organize a meeting with returning officers and would say, "We conduct a project. Please do not consider it mandatory. If you think, you must officially do it; it will not obtain expected results. We will request from you to share your experience that will be presented on the Internet. Thus, your experience will help your newly deployed colleagues. The study will cause useful outcomes." After returning peacekeepers are already convinced, they will do their best to be productive. This persuasion method will positively affect information sharing. If they think writing report is a mandatory practice, they will try to meet minimum requirements, so it will not be useful. Showing positive outcomes can help to motivate people, "one of your colleagues experienced some difficulties in the field. We requested from him to write this experience. After he wrote, we share this experience with newcomer on the Internet. Then, newcomers did not have the same problems." This approach can be persuasive for them.

Interviewee 3 highlighted the importance of the willingness in writing report and intrinsic factors in motivation people to share their information:

Motivating people to write a detailed report and to share information are important issues. People can consider, "I encountered with many challenges; I should give back to my organization and share my experience with my friends accordingly. So, newcomers can deal with potential difficulties." I think extrinsic factors cannot motivate people to share their experience after returning. Motivation should stem from inside. However, even if 10% of the report is written very well, it means 10 people out of 100. It is absolutely worth demanding reports.

Checklist.

Before deployment, the peacekeepers have to complete bureaucratic processes in Turkey. According to interviewees, giving a checklist can be helpful in this period. The checklist can facilitate completion of the process and paper work. From this point, Interviewee 6 suggested that the TNP should give to the peacekeepers a checklist before the mission:

We experienced a hardship that was about clothing. We did not know if we would use the UN's uniform or TNP's uniform. Then, one of my friends called me and informed me that we would use TNP's riot unit's uniform. There must be a list that shows the peacekeepers step by step what they should do before going to mission. The list can be called checklist. It can be published on the IRD's website as well. The list shows what the peacekeepers do first, second, third, etc.

Contingent commander.

Although there are currently contingent commanders who responsible for supervising the contingent in the UN missions, Interviewee 7 argued the position of a new type of contingent commander:

A contingent commander must be assigned for every mission, and his one duty should be to ensure coordination and help newcomers. He has to collect information in the field. It must be a headquarters in Turkey to compile all information coming from various missions. In order to control this system and

ensure consistency, fields' databanks and the headquarters' data storage's should be compared.

Discussion group.

A discussion group can be a functional tool in sharing information, even if people are geographically dispersed. Interviewee 1 recommended creating discussion groups to share knowledge. He described functions of these discussion groups by providing all details from its structure to users:

We use discussion groups in the USA during the online classes. I am currently interested in these groups. I like it a lot. Similar discussions groups can be created for the UN missions. These groups can be divided modules based on the tours of duty. People can share their experiences informally in these discussion groups. For example someone says, "I have experienced this difficulties and deal with in this way." Others can respond, "the same for me but I followed this different way" and so on. When an officer passes the exam, he can be subscribed to the group. During his tour of duty, he would have the access code and join the discussions. He could even stay as an active member after returning. Also, there must be moderators to rule the groups. Members will able to search on the group. A new member should see the discussions made in the past. For example, when an officer makes a search for "items need to take with me," he will find hundreds of entries.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

This chapter includes the following parts: the summary of the study, conclusions, discussions, limitations, and recommendations.

Summary of the Research

The TNP officers suffer from a lack of information before being deployed on the UN missions because the peacekeepers experience poor knowledge-sharing practices, thus causing knowledge loss. The main goal of this research was to reveal the current knowledge-sharing practices among the TNP peacekeepers. This research also aimed to uncover how applicable the knowledge management models were for their knowledge-sharing practices. Then, the researcher proposed a model based on the findings and conclusions of the research. In order to gain a better understanding about the knowledge-sharing practices of TNP officers, the researcher asked the following questions:

1. What are the current knowledge management practices within the TNP?
2. What kinds of mechanisms and tools would the peacekeepers use to share their knowledge effectively? What would be an ideal knowledge-sharing model for TNP officers?
3. To what extent are knowledge-sharing models applicable for the TNP officers' knowledge sharing practices?

The researcher performed a qualitative study to gain a better understanding of their knowledge-sharing practices. This descriptive and explanatory research was also a

case study about TNP peacekeepers. The researcher used semi-structured interviews to collect data. A purposive sampling method was chosen on the basis of suitability of the TNP peacekeepers. The researcher followed a flexible method based on theoretical saturation; the data collection process ended when the sample size reached 19. The content analysis and constant comparison are used in the data analysis.

Overview of Findings

A summary of the key findings of this research is presented relevant to research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the current knowledge management practices within the TNP? Key findings were:

- Before the mission, the peacekeepers mostly used their experienced colleagues, the Internet, email groups, and phone calls to get information. Training programs and written documents were relatively less applied sources.
- During the mission, the peacekeepers share and advance their knowledge by communicating with their colleagues and contingent commanders via emails, meetings, and phone calls.
- After returning from the mission, they transfer their knowledge to their newly deployed colleagues informally. Reporting and interviewing are rarely used methods.

Research Question 2: What kinds of mechanisms and tools would the peacekeepers use to share their knowledge effectively? Key findings were:

- Before the mission, the peacekeepers recommended conducting mandatory training courses and using email groups, websites, booklets, and hotlines.
- During the mission, the peacekeepers were mostly satisfied with existing knowledge-sharing practices. However, they recommended improving the existing practices.
- After the mission, the peacekeepers recommended writing a report, creating a knowledge depository, and presenting renewal knowledge online.

Research Question 3: To what extent are knowledge-sharing models applicable for the TNP officers' knowledge sharing practices? Key findings were:

- Nonaka's (1994) Knowledge Conversion Model was applicable to explain the peacekeepers' knowledge-sharing practices.
- The peacekeepers acquired knowledge through socialization and internalization before deployment; they shared and advanced their knowledge through socialization, externalization, and internalization during the mission; they transferred their knowledge through socialization and externalization.
- In order to create knowledge, the four modes of the model should be applied. However, the TNP peacekeepers experienced the lack of combination mode in their practices. Therefore, knowledge creation was not completed.

Conclusions

Research Questions 1: The Present Knowledge-Sharing Practices

Before the Mission

Information need.

This study has shown that after passing the UN mission exam and assigning to their field missions, peacekeepers typically become aware of a lack of knowledge. They commonly feel ambiguity and insecurity (Kuhlthau, 2004). Then, they begin identifying their information needs. The living conditions are more demanding in peacekeeping. In some locations, the infrastructure is fragile; even essential necessities, including electricity and clean water are difficult to find. Thus, the most needed information is living conditions of the field mission because the peacekeepers want to know how the daily life will be in their missions.

Moreover, the peacekeepers seek information about safety and security issues and ask if they can bring their families to the missions. Table 7 shows that 95.1% of the peacekeepers are married; thus; the high rate of family-related inquiries makes perfect sense. The UN field missions are created to respond to emerging challenges. Political conflicts are experienced among different nations and groups in the field missions. Most peacekeeping missions are classified as “non-family.” It means that the UN is not responsible for security of the peacekeepers’ families; therefore, family and safety concerns are among the issues most concern (United Nations, 2011a). Food, accommodation, urgent needs and many others are standard information needs for any human being. When a person moves from one location to another, he or she searches

for these typical needs. These needs take place in the Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs as physiological and safety needs.

The UN peacekeepers come from the 193 different member countries of the United Nations (United Nations, 2011a). The peacekeepers have confusions and doubts about their professional and language proficiencies because they would work in an international atmosphere. Lack of international experience may cause apprehension, and they seek information about job-related topics. Working and living conditions differ from one field mission to another. Haiti and Liberia are the missions where an emergency situation and a conflict can easily emerge. Also, there is a high risk of contagious diseases in these missions. Therefore, the peacekeepers deployed in these missions search for health- and safety-related information more than others deployed in Kosovo and Bosnia.

Information sources and tools.

These findings suggest that in general the peacekeepers use the following information sources: colleagues, the Internet, written documents, and training courses. According to Kuhlthau (2004), when people experience information need or encounter any problem, they apply their personal knowledge or ask their experienced friends to meet their information needs and solve the problem. It explains that the peacekeepers' most important information sources are their colleagues.

The Internet can be used to collect information about primary sources, databases, datasets, collections, books, organizations and people. The use of Internet increases knowledge sharing and knowledge usage (Koenig & Srikantaiah 2004). The

Internet has gradually become the most popular source of information over the years. As the use of Internet increases, so does volume of knowledge. Because of its accessibility and quality, the Internet is one of the most important sources of the peacekeepers to gather information before the mission.

Table 23

Present and Recommended Practices Based on the Mission Periods

	Before the mission	During the mission	After the mission
Present Practices	Colleagues	Colleagues	Books
	Email groups	Commanders	Colleagues
	Internet	Emails	Courtesy visits
	Phone calls	Meetings	Email groups
	Training programs	Phone calls	Exit interviews
	Written documents		Official notification Reports
	Recommended Practices	Email groups	Colleagues
Hotline		Commanders	Database
Training programs		Email groups	Email groups
IRD website		Meetings	Exit interviews
Written documents		Phone calls	POLNET
		Training programs	Report, IRD Training program

One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that the TNP does not conduct consistent training programs to inform newly deployed peacekeepers. It is surprising that while some of the peacekeepers join training programs, others do not join these programs. Therefore, the peacekeepers rarely used written documents and training courses to get information. The peacekeepers seek experienced colleagues in the same department or the same city to get information. If they do not find, they try to access their colleagues by phone. Emailing is used as a last method. However, the rising on the use of the Internet increase emails usage among peacekeepers. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

Factors.

Close relationships and physical proximity are two factors that have an important impact on the peacekeepers' information seeking. Close relationships have more influence than physical proximity. The peacekeepers prefer asking their questions to their friends and peers. They tend to avoid asking questions to their seniors. Likewise, they get information from the people who are physically close to them. From this point, peacekeepers mostly work in headquarters, and they can easily access some experienced colleagues to collect information. The peacekeepers working in provinces are less likely to access their experienced colleagues. Thus, they prefer communicating by phone or email.

Type of information.

The peacekeepers collect informal information because their main sources are their experienced colleagues and the Internet. Their colleagues share their experiences

with them, and give recommendations from their viewpoints. Hence, shared information among the peacekeepers is informal. Had the peacekeepers joined the official training programs or written documents given to them by the TNP, they would have shared formal information. In contrast, written documents and training courses are hardly used as information sources.

Evaluation of the gathering information.

This study has found that the peacekeepers' satisfaction levels vary. Most of the peacekeepers are satisfied with the collected knowledge before the mission. However, collected knowledge does not help all of them. Some peacekeepers find the collected knowledge useless. Its usefulness is based on the location and circumstances of the field missions. If a peacekeeper finds an experienced close friend or peer from the same location as he is deployed and asks him what he wants to know, he can be satisfied with the provided information. In addition, this provided information can help for being informed about living condition, but it gives few clues about the working conditions.

Furthermore, the peacekeepers are concerned about subjectivity of collected knowledge, personal effects in information seeking, and posting. In fact, the provided information is subjective, and it reflects the information sources' perspective. Thus, it cannot help most of the time. Equally important, information gathering depends on newly deployed information seekers' personalities, efforts, and attitudes. If they are timid and introverted, they do not even get essential information. Besides the aforementioned feature of information gathering process, the peacekeepers want to

know about posting issues in the mission. They experience a lack of information about posting even if they have enough information in other features of the field missions.

During the Mission

Information sources and tools.

The results of this research show that the peacekeepers use email groups, contingent commanders, meetings, colleagues, and phone calls to share and advance their information during the mission. After deployment, the UN gives an official email address to every peacekeeper to use in the official communication. Turkish contingents in the field missions create email groups that are special to each mission. These email groups are used for communicating throughout the contingent. Also, there are contingent commanders who are responsible for managing the contingent in each field mission. The contingent commanders manage the information flow throughout the contingent. The personality and performance of the contingent commander have a vital influence on the knowledge-sharing practices during the mission.

Meetings are another significant tools to share knowledge for peacekeepers. The UN allows to each nations' contingent to conduct quarterly or biannually official meetings. Also, Turkish contingents organize periodic meetings weekly or biweekly. During these meetings, peacekeepers can share their problems and solutions. They inform each other about new developments, official notifications, and newly opened posts. Besides, they make small talk and listen each other's experiences, which is needed in the field missions.

Like before the mission, the colleagues are the main information source during the mission. In particular, the UN conducts induction training in the first week of the mission. During this week, the experienced peacekeepers share their knowledge and experiences with newly deployed colleagues. Thus, the peacekeepers can have formal and informal information at the same time. Then, whenever peacekeepers encounter a difficulty, they apply their colleagues to get information. They commonly prefer communicating in person, but if they do not enough time to meet, they use phone, as well. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

Adverse factors.

Hierarchy, lack of information, and poor English proficiency are the factors that adversely affect the knowledge-sharing process. The TNP is a hierarchical organization. However, the officers from different ranks at the TNP are equal distinctions when they are deployed as peacekeepers in the UN missions. However, they maintain the organizational hierarchy among them. This is a part of organizational culture, and it seems impossible to give up. The hierarchy affects all relationships and processes, especially on getting posts. Indeed, the subordinates complain about this situation because they do not get better posts, and believe that this is an unfair practice. Therefore, they do not want to share their knowledge. It is typical to hoard knowledge in unfair organizational environments (Ibragimova, 2006).

The peacekeepers suffer from a lack of information in both daily life and working life during the mission. This ignorance prevents them from performing very well and getting a better post. A peacekeeper spends his first three months to identify the

mission's location and to be familiar with the settings. Then, learning the environment, procedures, organizational rules and regulations typically takes three months, as well. The peacekeeper starts feeling confident in the end of the first six months, but rest of his tour of duty is six months, and it is not enough to get a higher post. Similarly, shortage of foreign language proficiency adversely affects their working life. They do not fully understand what is going on around them. They feel uncertainty; thereby resulting a lack of confidence. Finally, they cannot perform their full capacity in the work.

After the Mission

Information sources and tools.

The results of this study show that after returning from their missions, the TNP peacekeepers go back their own departments. If there are newly deployed peacekeepers in their departments, they try to benefit from returning peacekeepers' experiences. These newly deployed peacekeepers typically ask the same questions as the returning peacekeepers asked before being deployed. Except these interactions, returning peacekeepers do not have another opportunity to share their experiences. It is interestingly surprising that the TNP does not have a consistent policy about demanding the "after mission report." A few of the peacekeepers write a written report after returning from their tour of duties. Although almost all of the returning peacekeepers are aware of the necessity of writing a report, they do not write due to a lack of consistent organizational policy about demanding the report.

The peacekeepers try to take advantage of every opportunity to share their knowledge. For instance, they share their knowledge in the email groups by answering

newly deployed peacekeepers' questions. They also express their ideas by using formal documentation. In addition, during the institutional visits, they convey their problems and solutions to the TNP's high-ranking managers or Turkish politics. Besides this ways, they even write books to make their experience permanent and access more people. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

Organizational perspective.

The peacekeepers believe that the experiences they earned at the field missions are so valuable and beneficial for the TNP. Some peacekeepers try to share their mission experiences with the supervisors of the IRD. They think that they can directly tell experienced problems and difficulties on the field mission; therefore, they contribute to the solution. On the other hand, they think that their colleagues, who have never been on the mission, are jealous of peacekeepers. In particular, working on the missions provides economic returns to the peacekeepers, thus causing jealousy of others. The TNP's personnel policy supports this assumption because the returning peacekeepers are assigned to undesirable departments. A moderate polarization is experienced between peacekeepers and other police officers who do not have mission experiences.

Research Question 2: Recommendations for Effective Knowledge Sharing Practices

Before the Mission

The most obvious finding to emerge from this study is that training programs are the most recommended implementations to inform newly deployed peacekeepers. The

TNP conducts some training programs, but there is no standard about their curriculums, locations, schedules, and trainers. A standard and well-designed training program can be useful to prevent loss of information and experiences that are the most valuable intangible assets of the TNP. The UN field missions differ from one location to another. Accordingly, the training programs should be organized based on each missions' needs. Experienced peacekeepers can join the programs as trainers. In particular, the trainers can be selected based their knowledge, expertise and enthusiasm. Training programs should be designed in an appropriate schedule, such as one or two weeks to inform people professionally. Training programs can entirely meet the newly deployed peacekeepers' information needs, and eliminate their uncertainty before the missions.

The second major finding was that email groups and website are two practical, reliable, and fast tools to share knowledge online. After peacekeepers passing the exam, official email addresses are given them. In particular, general knowledge can be presented on the official website of the IRD, and email groups can be used to share personal questions and needed details. Equally important, the TNP publishes booklets that include updated information about peacekeeping. These booklets are also delivered to all newly deployed peacekeepers as digital and printed version. Furthermore, a system can be created including website, email groups, training programs, and a hotline. The hotline gives opportunity to the peacekeepers to get a consultation from human experts when they do not get answers to their questions or emergency situations occur. All of the mentioned practices needed a responsible unit and a determined willpower. The IRD is the responsible unit to execute all needed solutions; thus, it needs to create constant policy on the UN field missions. Meanwhile,

using cell phone companies and organizing conferences are rarely recommended solutions. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

During the Mission

The following conclusions can be drawn from the present study that the peacekeepers are mostly satisfied with the knowledge-sharing practices during the mission. In comparison with before the mission and after the mission, the knowledge sharing is experienced during the mission are viewed acceptable. However, some features of the current implementations need to be modified. In particular, contingent commanders have an important role in organizing information flow in the mission. However, they have extra workload because they are usual peacekeepers in consideration of the UN system. Instead of contingent commanders, representatives can be assigned by the TNP. The representative can carry out only contingent's activities.

The relevance of email groups in sharing knowledge is clearly supported by the current findings. Email groups can be one of the main tools to share knowledge among peacekeepers during the mission. Experienced colleagues can be also used in a mentoring system. It may be practical in the first month of newly deployed officers during the missions. The peacekeepers discuss their problems, questions and ideas during the meetings, which provide an appropriate environment to socialize. While some missions organize periodic meetings, others conduct these meeting spontaneously. The peacekeepers recommend periodic and standard meetings for each mission.

Moreover, Turkish diplomatic missions, including embassies and consulates are not known by the peacekeepers. These diplomatic agencies can be a trustworthy information sources. In some UN missions, infrastructure is weak and the Internet is short supply. Thus, the peacekeepers in these kinds of missions are not able to use email groups. The phone call is unique communication way for them. The developed countries build squad houses in the UN peacekeeping for their contingents. These houses are used for various goals, such as library, café, or meeting place. Turkish contingents are missing these kinds of squad houses. Getting high posts means better representation of their countries and professional success from the peacekeepers' perspectives. The peacekeepers expect more support from the TNP to get better posts. Consequently, all of the solutions and recommendations are means to achieve the final goal, which is getting higher posts.

The UN delegates some of its authorities to the contingents, including distribution of posting in some cases. Since the peacekeepers continue the organizational hierarchy in the UN missions, subordinates think that the posts are not distributed fairly. In contrast, people are assigned to the posts based on their ranks and seniority in the TNP system. In particular, the subordinates tend to abandon the TNP's organizational hierarchy in the missions. The IRD seems responsible for implementing of mentioned solutions. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

After the Mission

This research has shown that a report seems the biggest necessity for the peacekeepers after returning from the mission. The reports should be a mandatory practice for every returning peacekeeper. The peacekeepers should be notified about

deadlines of completing the reports. Instead of semi-structured informational and ad-hoc reports, the TNP should design analytical reports with pre-defined, specific, and structured questions. The questions should be result-oriented. The analytical reports are more appropriate to analyze and capture information.

The IRD should arrange timing of the training programs. The peacekeepers should take their times to deal with bureaucratic process and training courses. It would be a good idea to assign experienced peacekeepers as trainers. Best practices should be adopted from the other countries' police forces and the UN system to develop the TNP. The TNP's website should be updated with new information from the field missions constantly. The TNP build official email groups or assign moderators to the existing email groups. The IRD should conduct exit interviews to learn what is going on in the mission and to hear recommendations of the returning peacekeepers directly.

Although the TNP try to determine some standards for the peacekeepers' foreign language proficiency, the results of the study have shown that the peacekeepers suffer from inadequate language proficiency. This shortage prevents the peacekeepers from performing their jobs well. Therefore, the TNP should not be contented with determining standards for FLP. The TNP should organize training courses for developing the peacekeepers' FLP and communication skills, especially about the mission terminology and daily expressions.

The TNP should create a database to store collected knowledge, and this database should be updated by the provided information from the missions. In order to inform the peacekeepers, a FAQ section can be created on the IRD's website. Likewise

IRD's website, POLNET is a practical tool to share knowledge. A checklist can be presented on the website to facilitate bureaucratic procedures and paperwork. A representative can take the contingent commanders' authorities and responsibilities over and carry out only the contingents' activities. After returning from the missions, the peacekeepers resume on their former departments and locate geographically dispersed cities. In this case, discussions groups are viewed as the best solution to share their ideas and experiences. All of these activities facilitate knowledge sharing and enable peacekeepers to get better posts. Also, information sharing practices should be guided by the IRD, and they must be voluntarily; otherwise, they remain unproductive. The data for information sources and tools are presented in the Table 23.

Research Question 3: The Applicability of Knowledge-Sharing Models to the TNP Officers' Knowledge-Sharing Practices

The researcher investigated several knowledge-sharing models, including Handzic and Zhou's Integrated KM Model (2005), Hedlund Model (1994), Delen and Hawamdeh's Holistic KM Model, and Nonaka's (1994) Knowledge Creation Model (KCM). Although all of these studies can give some clues to explain the TNP peacekeepers' knowledge-sharing practices, their practices can be deeply revealed and understood by applying Nonaka's Knowledge Conversion Model.

According to Nonaka (1994), there are two kinds of knowledge: explicit knowledge and tacit knowledge. Explicit knowledge can be defined as messages that can be easily acquired, shared, and stored. Texts, manuals, scripts, and documents are examples for explicit knowledge. However, tacit knowledge is a kind of message that are found in people's minds and embedded in experiences; therefore, they are not

effortlessly codified and shared. Experiences and beliefs are examples of tacit knowledge. Nonaka's (1994) model shows how knowledge is converged in an organization. The conversion is completed in four forms: socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization. Socialization is the conversion process of tacit knowledge to tacit knowledge. Externalization is the transfer process of tacit knowledge to explicit knowledge. Combination is the name of the alteration process of explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge. Internalization is a conversion process of explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge.

Before being deployed on the missions, the TNP peacekeepers apply their experienced colleagues and attend training programs to get information, which are called socialization. They search on the Internet, join the email groups, read written document, and call their colleagues to meet their information needs, which can be described as internalization. Likewise, during the mission they come together with their colleagues and commanders in formal and informal meetings, which can be defined as socialization. They also communicate via email groups and phone calls to get and provide information, which are classified as externalization and internalization. After the mission, they share their experiences with their newly deployed colleagues and their managers, which are described as socialization. They use books, email groups, exit interviews and reports to transfer their knowledge, which are named externalization. The peacekeepers' practices are presented based on mission periods in Table 23.

These findings have shown that the peacekeepers meet their knowledge needs through socialization and internalization before deployment. They also share and improve their knowledge through socialization, internalization, and externalization during

mission. After returning from the missions, they transfer their experiences through socialization and externalization. The peacekeepers existing knowledge-sharing practices include socialization, internalization, and externalization. These practices are illustrated in the Figure 20. However, according to Nonaka (1994), the knowledge is generated through four processes of knowledge conversion. The combination mode is missing in the peacekeepers' case.

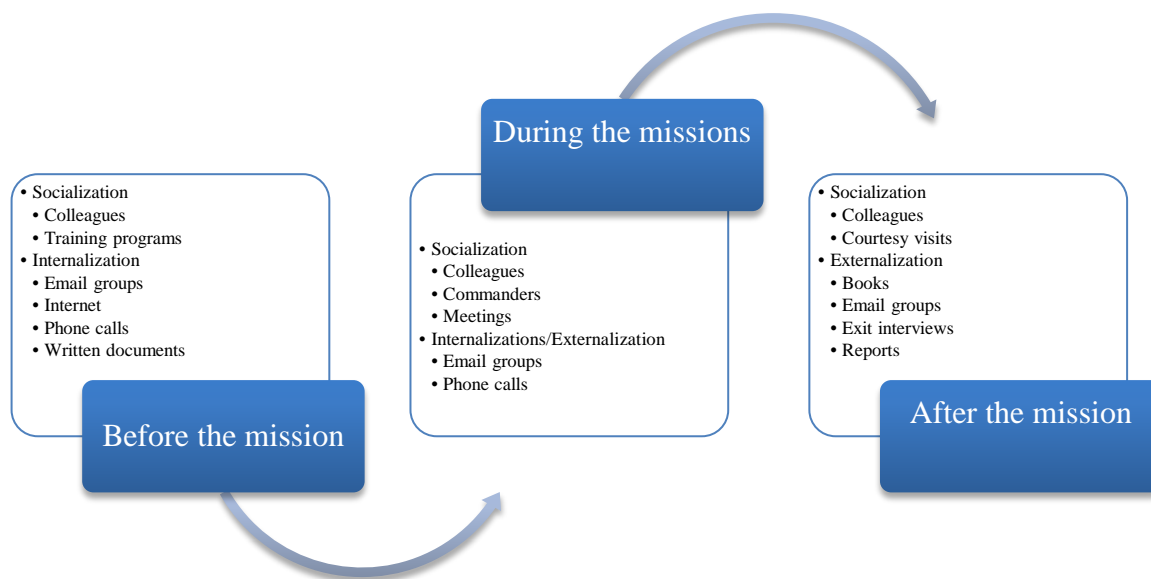


Figure 20. Existing knowledge sharing practices based on the mission periods

The lack of combination mode in the peacekeepers' existing knowledge-sharing practices is one of the most significant findings to emerge from this study. The peacekeepers can collect, share, and use knowledge through socialization, externalization, and internalization processes. On the other hand, combination is a conversion process from explicit knowledge to explicit knowledge. It requires an institutional entity that captures the peacekeepers' experiences by using professional tools, including reports and exit interviews. Also, this captured knowledge should be

stored in a knowledge depository. Then the knowledge should be organized and updated constantly. These processes cannot be done without an organizational willpower and policy. Thus, findings point the IRD as a responsible department to implement required combination-related activities. Figure 21 shows the lack of combination in the peacekeepers practices.

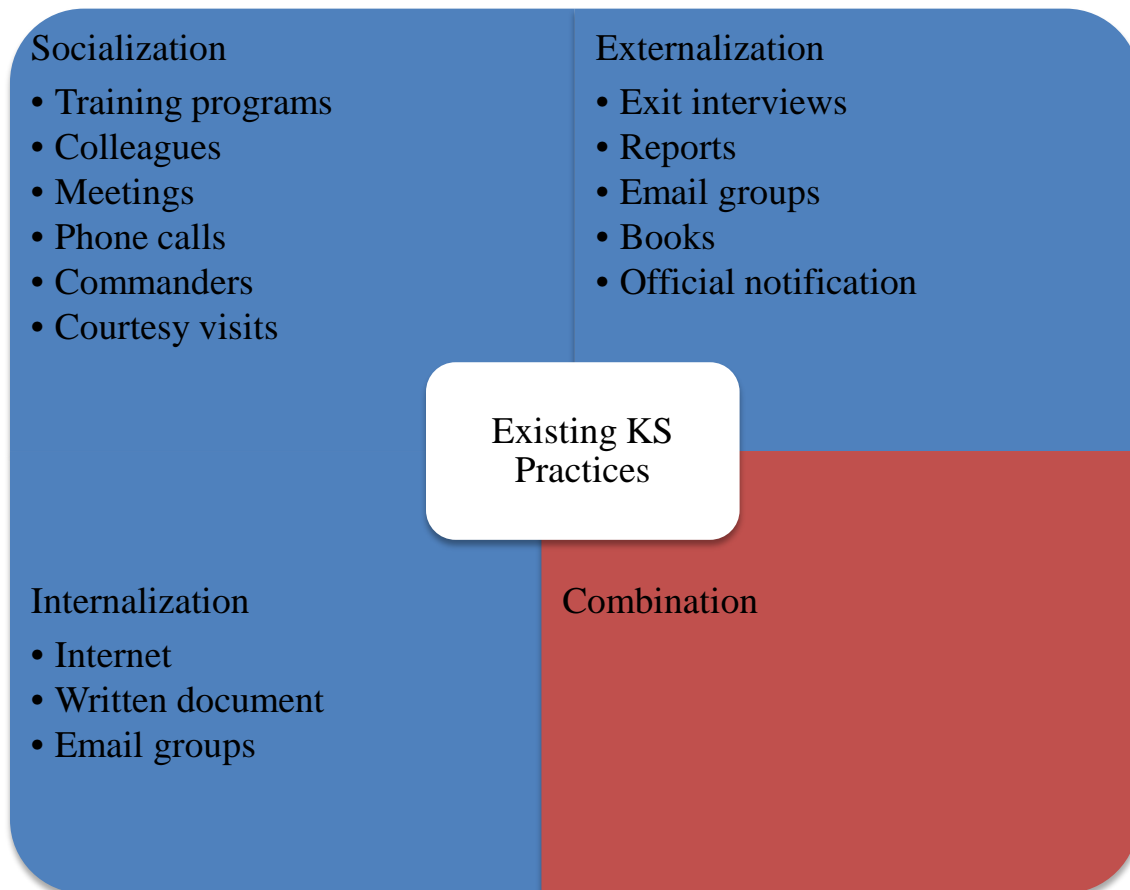


Figure 21. Existing knowledge sharing practices before the mission on the KCM Discussions

As knowledge-based society emerges, the knowledge has become most important asset for individuals and organizations over the years (Drucker, 1992). Organizations have remarked that their success depends on knowledge sharing strategies. Thus, knowledge sharing has been viewed as the most crucial component of

knowledge management (Liebowitz & Chen, 2003). According to Chih (2004), knowledge sharing has been more important in today's competitive business environment. Similarly, in public sectors many organizations, which need to increase organizational performance by improving knowledge sharing activities, have started to invest in knowledge management.

Knowledge sources and knowledge-sharing techniques

Knowledge sources, knowledge sharing techniques and organizational culture has a significant impact on knowledge sharing activities (Bundred, 2006). Kuhlthau, (2004) asserts that people seek information by searching resources, benefiting from their own experiences and asking their friends. Colleagues are viewed as one of the most critical information sources (Puuronen & Terziyan, 1997). The TNP peacekeepers' attitudes to meet their information needs are parallel with Kuhlthau's (2004) explanations. Their use various resources, including the Internet, email groups, and written document before deployment to get answers for their questions. However, the key information source of the peacekeepers is their colleagues. Colleagues can help to enhance organizational knowledge by transferring his/her tacit knowledge to newcomers in an organization (Hildreth and Kimble, 2002). According to Bouthillier and Shearer (2002), knowledge management usually focuses on enabling the sharing of tacit knowledge. Informal programs help new employees to make a smooth transition into the organization (Liebowitz, 2009). Correspondingly, the TNP peacekeepers share tacit knowledge in informal setting with their colleagues.

According to Kuhlthau (2004), when people experience a lack of information in any field, they feel ambiguity and uncertainty that prevent them from being self-

confident in their jobs. The UN peacekeeping personnel have commonly experienced difficulties with communication, cultural differences, and organizational system (Chappell & John, 1999; Hansen, 2002). From this perspective, the lack of foreign knowledge proficiency adversely affects the TNP peacekeepers' performance during their tour of duties. Although getting a better post is a main goal for the peacekeepers, a lack of information about the UN system impedes progress on their career path.

Bundred (2006) mentions that police forces experience knowledge-sharing problems because of the organizational culture in England. Due to hierarchical system, people think that keeping knowledge brings them power that accelerates their promotion and provides much money. Thus, they do not share their knowledge. In particular, people do not want to share knowledge in hierarchical organizations (Bock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee, 2005). Correspondingly, knowledge-sharing problems occur, especially between high-ranking and low-ranking police officers (Holgersson, Gottschalk, & Dean, 2008). Hierarchy causes poor knowledge-sharing practices that adversely affect the officers' performance. One of the more significant findings to emerge from this study is that low ranking peacekeepers do not share their knowledge because they think that it is useless for them. The organizational culture enforces the TNP's hierarchy in the field missions, which does not allow the subordinates to get better position.

Because of organizational culture, knowledge sharing is a challenging activity in many organizations. According to Chih (2004), a competition among employees has negative influences on the knowledge-sharing process. For example, the main obstacle that prevents NASA from efficiently sharing knowledge was organizational culture that supports individual success and competition among employees for decreasing

resources (McNabb, 2007, p.213). Besides competition, according to Gultekin (2009), solidarity and isolation are two key features of organizational culture in the Turkish National Police (TNP), which negatively affects knowledge-sharing practices; consequently, the TNP experiences knowledge-sharing problems because of its organizational culture. The TNP peacekeepers believe that if their friends can go and succeed to be a UN peacekeeper, every TNP officer can do the same thing. Also, they are sure that their friends help them when they are deployed in the mission. Their perspectives prevent them from applying other information sources. Moreover, the TNP officers suffer from reintegration problems because of work place violence, less commitment to the organization, and lack of the job satisfaction in the post-mission period (Celik, 2010). The TNP experiences the lack of sources and tools for recognizing, planning, and organizing the peacekeepers. Therefore, the officers cannot share their experience and knowledge after the mission. Accordingly, the TNP needs an institutional policy to organize required activities.

According to Keyes (2006), documentation contains a variety of written materials, such as manuals, reports, archival information, regulations, and many others. Also, Bouthillier and Shearer (2002) offer a typology to establish the environment of knowledge management, which includes knowledge databases. Knowledge acquisition, storage, and retrieval are components of an organizational memory (DeLong, 2004). After the mission, a written report has a vital importance to retain experience and knowledge of the returning peacekeepers. Accordingly, the TNP officers recommend having a knowledge depository. The TNP has sufficient tangible and intangible sources to create a knowledge depository and knowledge-sharing tools.

Epple, Argote, and Darr, (1995) point out that the Internet, intranets, emails, phone calls, best practices, FAQ sections, discussion forums, and exit interviews are mainly applied techniques to transfer knowledge. The TNP peacekeepers use all of these techniques in their knowledge-sharing practices. Organizations can gather stories by requesting from their personnel to share their stories (Hester, 2011). In order to prevent knowledge loss, exit interviews, best practices, and discussion forums are useful techniques (Liebowitz, 2009). Exit interviews are the most recommended technique to use. Hence, exit interviews are beneficial practices to capture and retain experienced peacekeepers' knowledge. Also, the POLNET, the police information system, is viewed as more secure environment to share their knowledge. Likewise, online communities offer different virtual settings, involving discussion boards. Some organizations such as Best Buy, NASA, and Hallmark use online communities (Liebowitz, 2009). Intranet, discussion boards and best practices can be used to share and improve their experiences among the TNP peacekeepers.

Recommended Model

Knowledge can be found in two different forms in any organizational environment: tacit and explicit (Nonaka, 1994). Four modes of knowledge conversion are performed between tacit and explicit knowledge: socialization, externalization, combination, and internalization. This conversion creates knowledge in organizational settings. In the case of the TNP peacekeepers, socialization, externalization, and internalization are performed in the periods before the mission, during the mission and after the mission. However, the combination is not performed in any period of the mission. Therefore, the knowledge creation process cannot be accomplished and

remains incomplete. Although knowledge acquisition, sharing, and use are performed, knowledge creation is missing. There is a significant change, which needs to be made. In order to solve the problem of the missing combination, a knowledge depository should be created based on the peacekeepers recommendations. Their recommendations are illustrated in Figure 22.

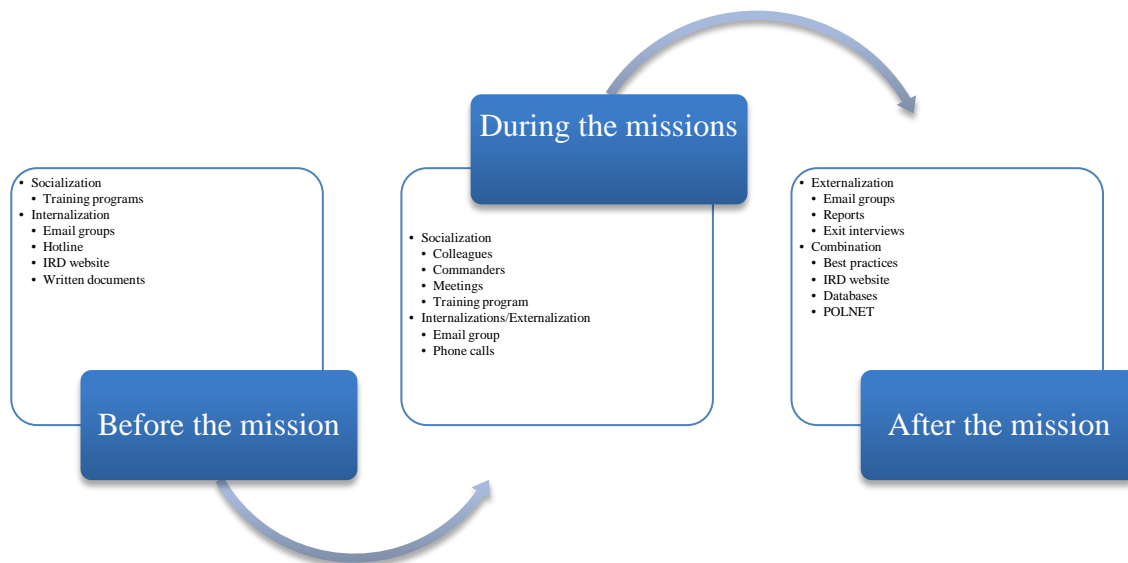


Figure 22. Recommended knowledge sharing practices based on the mission periods

If their recommendation is illustrated on Nonaka's Knowledge Conversion Model, the combination mode will be performed and knowledge creation process will be completed. The completed version can be seen in Figure 23.

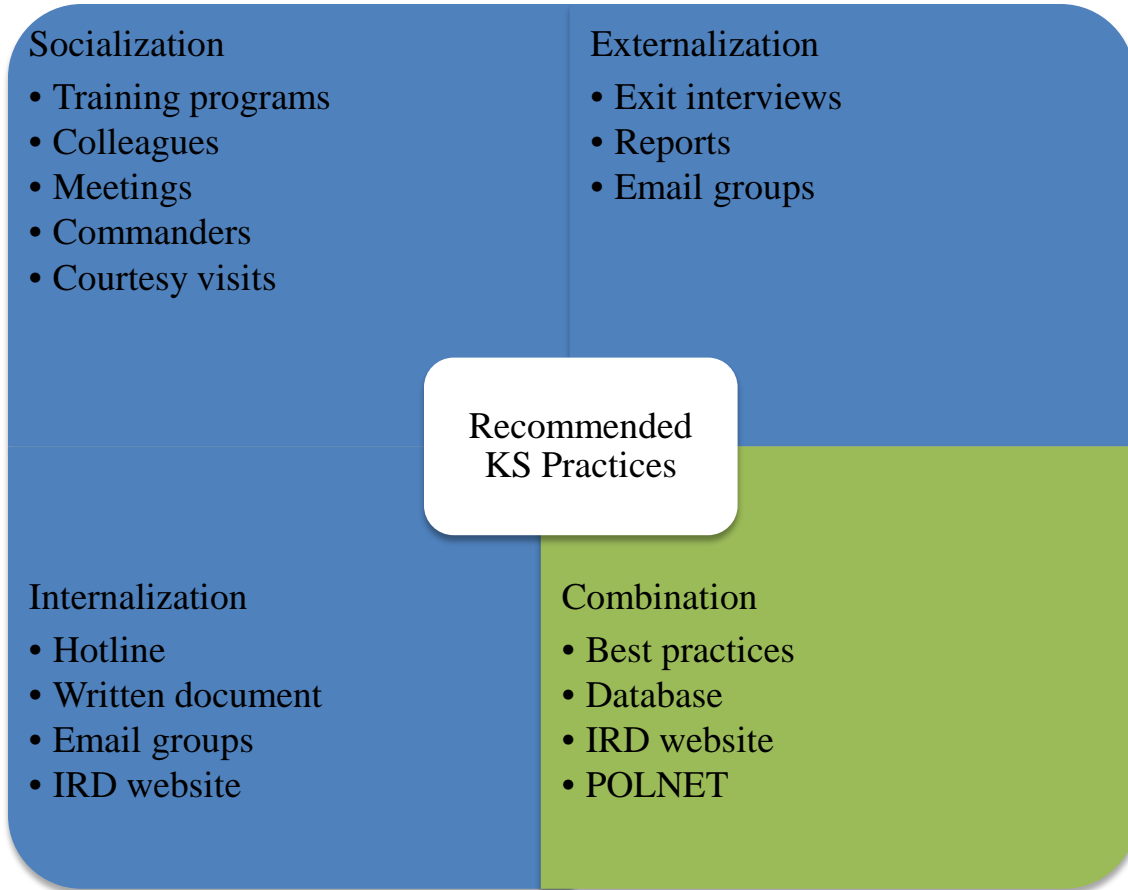


Figure 23. Recommended knowledge sharing practices on the KCM

The researcher proposes a generic knowledge-sharing model based on the findings of the study.

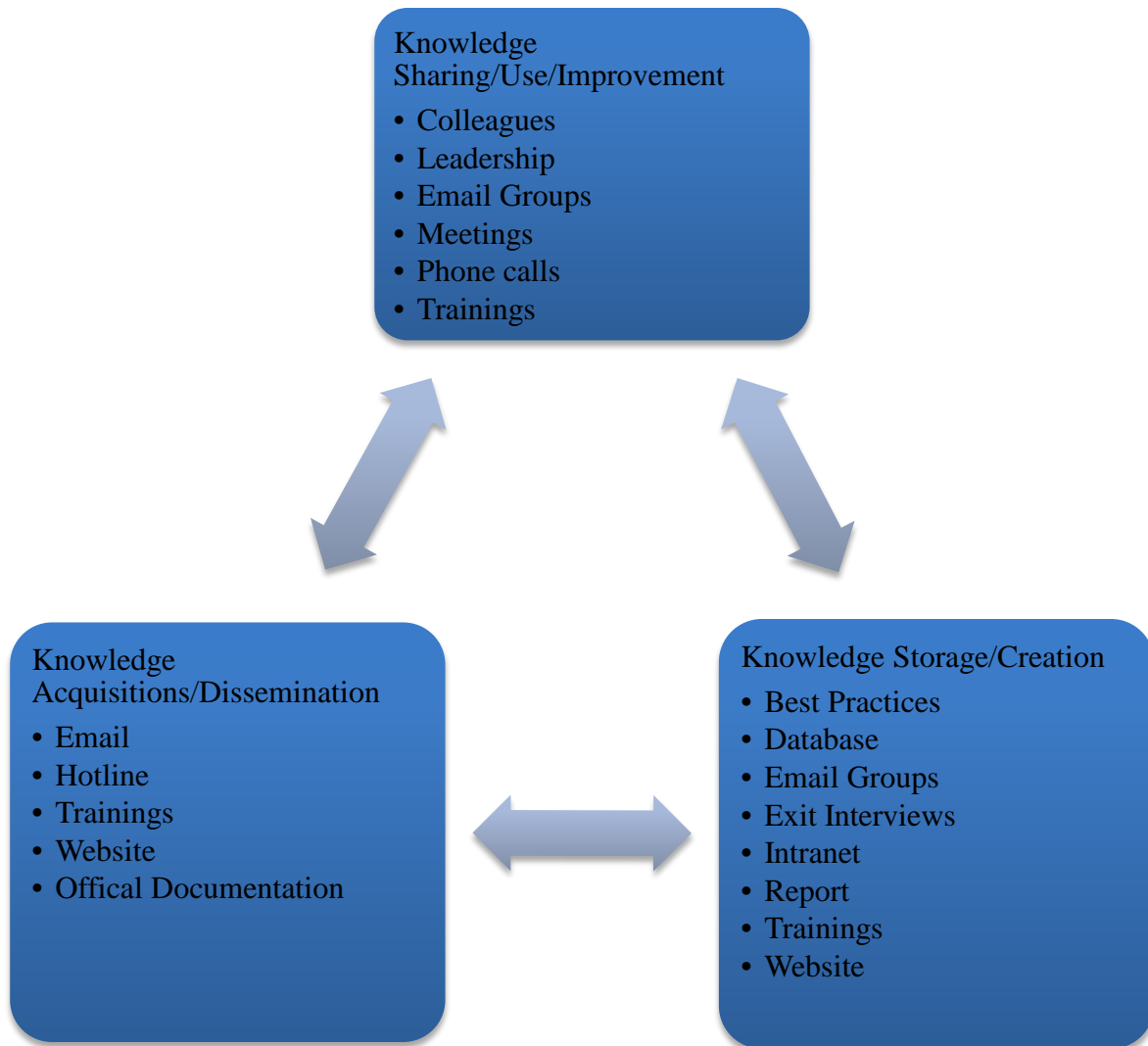


Figure 24. A generic model for knowledge sharing

According to the model, the period before the mission is the knowledge acquisition and dissemination stage. In this stage, the organization distributes information through email groups, training programs, websites, official documentation, and hotlines. Thus, information seekers acquire information by using these instruments. The period during the mission is knowledge sharing, use, and improvement stage. In this stage, the organization leads information flow by using its representative. The

representative organizes meetings and training. Information seekers communicate via email groups, phone, and meetings. The information seekers use their knowledge to perform their duties on the mission. They seek new information when they encounter a challenge. They share their ideas in meetings and by phone. Therefore, their knowledge develops in this stage. After the mission period is the knowledge storage and creation stage. In this stage, the organization captures returning employees' experiences and knowledge by demanding reports and conducting exit interviews. The returning employees transfer their knowledge by sharing best practices. The organization analyzes, classifies and consolidates collected knowledge. As a result, new knowledge is created in this stage. Afterwards, the organization conveys knowledge to newcomers through the intranet, a website and email groups.

Limitations

First and foremost, abilities, skills of observation, and outlines of reference of researchers restrict them in the qualitative studies (Sharpe, 2006). Accordingly, this study is limited by the researcher's capability and proficiency in conducting interviews and analyzing findings. Moreover, as the data-gathering process progresses, researchers have various, roles such as exploiter, intervener, advocate, and friend based on their relationship with participants (Glesne, 2010). In this study, ethical dilemmas may result because some participants were researcher's friends. Participants might provide some intimate information because of the researcher's friendship role rather than his researcher role. In this case, the researcher tried to be careful about his roles of friend and researcher.

Also, another limitation is the study's dependence on self-reported expressions. The police officers might not be objective while talking about their knowledge-sharing practices. In addition, although the researcher applied triangulation strategy by accepting other researchers' helps for data collecting and analysis, the researcher did not use other methods, such as observation or survey, which limited its validity and reliability.

Its generalizability covers similar groups at the TNP, but it is limited within the organization. It only tried to reveal the knowledge-sharing practices of TNP officers who have worked in the UN missions. In other words, the study's findings cannot be generalized for other countries' similar organizations because of cultural differences.

Recommendations

The present study adds to a growing body of literature on the knowledge sharing practices. It approves previous findings and provides additional suggestions for professional practice and policy as well as future studies.

Recommendations for Practice

Based upon findings and conclusions of the present study, the TNP needs to consolidate its knowledge sharing system by making a number of changes:

- There is a definite need for an institutional policy to ensure productivity and satisfaction in the UN field mission
- Website and email groups are currently used tools; however, they should be improved. The website should present detailed information with audio and video records based on each field mission' needs. Email groups can be moderated by

the IRD. Also, discussion groups and forums can be created. POLNET can be a more secure environment to share official information.

- After mission report should be a mandatory practice. The reports must be structured and analytical to capture the peacekeepers' knowledge systematically. In particular, best practices should be adopted by using the reports.
- The TNP should conduct exit interviews with the returning peacekeepers to update knowledge relevant to each field mission.
- Contingent commanders carry out the information flow, but the effectiveness of the knowledge sharing is limited with the contingent commanders' personalities; it varies from one to another. Thus, experienced police chief can be appointed as representatives from headquarters. Their main duties should be to direct and organize the knowledge sharing throughout the contingents.
- Although training programs are conducted before the mission, the programs are not sufficient or consistent in meeting the peacekeepers information needs. Training programs should be designed based on each missions' different features. Also experienced peacekeepers can be assigned as trainers.
- The TNP should conduct training courses to improve the peacekeepers' foreign language proficiency, especially about the mission terminology, radio communication and daily expressions.
- A checklist should be given to each peacekeeper to follow what they need to do and their sequences. It can be helpful to complete paperwork before deployment.
- Squad house should be built in the field missions. These houses can be used as centers of the contingents in the fields. Also, they can be used for meetings and

celebrations.

- The TNP experiences the knowledge loss problem. In order to retain knowledge, the collected information should be stored in databases. Hence, the information can be analyzed and updated easily.
- Most of the contingents organize meeting in the field mission. However, they are not conducted periodically. The TNP encourage peacekeepers to organize periodic meetings.
- The TNP should inform newly deployed peacekeepers by using formal documentation including brochures and booklets.
- A hotline should be established to provide a constant communication among peacekeepers.
- The TNP should inform peacekeepers about the UN system and posting. Indeed, posting should be explained, and peacekeepers should be encouraged to get better posts. Also, if needed, the TNP should provide an organizational support to the peacekeepers in their application and recruitment processes.
- The TNP is a hierarchical organization. It is typical to perform official duties based on hierarch. On the other hand, hierarchy should not have an impact in determining distribution of the posts among the peacekeepers. Otherwise, it causes unfair practices and hurts organizational justice; thereby preventing the peacekeepers from sharing knowledge.

Recommendations for Further Study

The research was conducted to reveal the present knowledge-sharing practices among the TNP peacekeepers. It is recommended that further studies be undertaken to

uncover knowledge-sharing practices of the TNP officers who sent abroad as sponsored students or who deployed in Turkish missions including embassies and consulates.

It would be also interesting to compare experiences of the two groups of the peacekeepers: First group were deployed once and second groups were deployed more than once. Even, the differences between the following two groups' knowledge-sharing practices could be compared: the peacekeepers who deployed in the Kosovo and the peacekeepers who deployed in Haiti.

The research used the qualitative method and interview technique as a data collection instrument. More instruments on data collection would help the researcher to establish a greater degree of accuracy on the findings. Thus, it is suggested that the combination of different data collection methods, including, document review, questionnaires and observation in future studies. In the same way a similar study should be planned within the same population that uses a quantitative method to conclude if the different results obtain.

APPENDIX A
LETTER OF IRB APPROVAL



OFFICE OF THE VICE PRESIDENT FOR RESEARCH AND ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
Research Services

March 14, 2012

Dr. Guillermo Oyarce
Department of Library and Information Science
University of North Texas
RE: Human Subjects Application No. 12-127

Dear Dr. Oyarce:

In accordance with 45 CFR Part 46 Section 46.101, your study titled “Knowledge-Sharing Practices among Turkish Peacekeeping Officers” has been determined to qualify for an exemption from further review by the UNT Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Enclosed is the consent document with stamped IRB approval. Please copy and **use this form only** for your study subjects.

No changes may be made to your study’s procedures or forms without prior written approval from the UNT IRB. Please contact Jordan Harmon, Research Compliance Analyst, ext. 3940, if you wish to make any such changes. Any changes to your procedures or forms after 3 years will require completion of a new IRB application.

We wish you success with your study.

Sincerely,

Patricia L. Kaminski, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Chair, Institutional Review Board

PK;jh

APPENDIX B
TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE STUDY APPROVAL



TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE
Department of Foreign Relations
Office of the Graduate Programs Coordinator

**English Translation of the
General Research Approval Form given by the Turkish National Police (TNP)**

NO: B.05.1.EGM.0.76.04.02/2939

DATE: 07/06/2007

TOPIC: A General Research Approval Form

REFERENCES: a) dated 23.03.2007 and B.05.1.EGM.076.04.02 (31004).871/1501
numbered document.

b) dated 12.04.2007 and B.05.1.EGM.0.72.02.03-857-1480 numbered
document

FROM: Dr. Recep GULTEKIN

Director, Foreign Affair Division
1st Degree Chief of Police

TO: Samih TEYMUR (USA), Isa CIFTCI (GERMANY), Fatih YAMAC (FRANCE), Fatih OZGUL
(ENGLAND), Murat GULVER (BELGIUM).

E-MAILS: tipscontact@gmail.com, yamacfatih@yahoo.fr, isaciftcci@yahoo.com, faith.ozgul@gmail.com
and muratgulver@yahoo.com

With the written document referenced above (a), it was requested from the Education Division that a general research approval form be obtained from the General Directorate of the Turkish National Police (TNP) for personnel of the police who are pursuing a master and doctoral degree to conduct academic research project and study, to conduct any means of data collection method such as survey, interview, and retrieving a variety of statistical data from all police departments including the central organization.

With the document (b) taken from the Division mentioned above, in accordance with the provisions of the Civil Servants Act with regard to those who will be sent abroad for professional training, police officers of the Turkish National Police who have been sent abroad to follow their masters and doctoral degrees in different universities have been granted permission to conduct academic studies in any division of the TNP and in any province police department if they demand to do so, and a copy of the document was attached.

Sincerely yours.

(Signed)
Dr. Recep GULTEKIN
Director, Foreign Affair Division
1st Degree Chief of Police

APPENDIX C
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL AND QUESTIONS

Dear Colleagues,

My name is Murat Eren. I am a Chief Superintendent 4.Degree at the Turkish National Police (TNP), and a doctoral student at the UNT. I invite you to participate this interview session, which is conducted as a part of my dissertation study. This interview aims to reveal the current knowledge-sharing practices among Turkish peacekeeping officers who have worked at United Nations missions.

The official permission to implement this study is obtained from the General Directorate of TNP. The interview process takes approximately 45 minutes. This study neither includes foreseeable risk nor requires individually identifiable information. Participation is voluntary. You can keep this form for your records.

Please read the consent notice carefully before joining the interview session. If you have any question you can ask me anytime during the interview. You can also stop and give up joining the interview anytime. If you have additional question please do not hesitate to ask me. You can reach me by the following email and phone number:

Email: murateren@my.unt.edu

Phone: +1 (940) -297- 9544

Thank you for your contribution.

Murat Eren

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

- After learning that you passed the exam and your mission deployment was clarified, what kinds of knowledge did you need?
- How did you collect knowledge? What kinds of tools and mechanisms did you use to acquire knowledge?
- Before starting the mission, what kinds of training programs did you join?
- What would make knowledge sharing among TNP officers more effective and useful before the mission?
- How useful did you find the knowledge you acquired before going to mission while you were in the mission?
- How was the knowledge sharing when you were at the mission -on formal or informal occasions?
- What do you think the ideal systems, mechanisms and tools to share knowledge would be?
- How did you share your experience after returning from the mission? To work up new concepts, what kinds of mechanisms and tools would be used for effective knowledge sharing? How would the experienced officers' knowledge be collected, organized, and disseminated after the mission?

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