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**Transdisciplinary solutions to
cross sectoral disadvantage
in youth (YOUNG-IN)**

WG5



Working paper series

Youth-oriented policies beyond ideal-typical welfare regimes in Europe:

Situation and initiatives from the perspective of youth transition regimes

Turkey

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This WP series contributes to the main aims of YOUNG-IN and WG5 (Knowledge-based social investment policy for youth) by aiming to:

- 1) Describe today's situation of youth in our nine case countries based on characteristics perceived to be the most relevant by the literature of Youth Transition Regimes (YTR);
- 2) Give an overview of the main policy initiatives targeted at youth within key policy areas relevant for YTR.

This WP is structured as follows: Part I gives a harmonised comparative overview of the existing situation in the analysed nine countries in comparison with EU28 (the analyses cover period before Brexit, thus kept EU28 instead of EU27). Part II consists of nine chapters about youth-oriented policy initiatives in those countries in two recent decades across policy areas especially relevant for youth (education, labour market, social inclusion, participation and housing). Part III concludes with an executive summary that compares the countries' youth-oriented policy directions in the modified framework of YTR.

The structure and authorship of respective chapters are as follows (current chapter highlighted):

- ▶ Part I: A comparative introduction of situation of youth, Triin Lauri
- ▶ Part II: Country reports on youth oriented policies:
 - Youth-oriented policies in Bulgaria (BG), Veneta Krasteva
 - Youth-oriented policies in Switzerland (CH), Berihun Wagaw, Matthias Drilling, Semhar Negash
 - Youth-oriented policies in Estonia (EE), Anu Toots and Triin Lauri
 - Youth-oriented policies in Spain (ES), Francisco Javier Moreno-Fuentes, Pau Marí-Klose
 - Youth-oriented policies in Lithuania (LT), Daiva Skučienė, Natalija Mažeikienė
 - Youth-oriented policies in Latvia (LV), Anna Broka
 - Youth-oriented policies in Moldova (MD), Crismaru Mariana
 - Youth-oriented policies in Malta (MT), Sue Vella
 - **Youth-oriented policies in Turkey (TR), Hande Barlin, Nilufer Korkmaz Yaylagul**
- ▶ Conclusion, Anu Toots, Triin Lauri

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Brief information on Turkey

Turkey is a candidate country of the European Union, which spans between Europe and Asia geographically. The population is 83.154.997 (Turkstat, 2020, data for 2019). Turkey is experiencing a somewhat steady population growth rate. In 2019, the growth rate of the population was %0.139. Turkey's population is comparatively young. While the share of young people (15-29 years) is 23.5%, the share of old people (65 years and older) is 9.1% (Turkstat, 2020, data for 2019). The median age of the population is 32.4 and life expectancy is 78.3 (Turkstat, 2018, data for 2016). The literacy rate is approximately 97% (Turkstat, 2018, data for 2016). Almost 75% of the total population live in urban areas (Worldbank, 2018). The total fertility rate is around 2.07 (OECD, 2017, data for 2017). Turkey is a democratic republic since 1923 and has a presidency system since 2017.

Part II. Main youth related initiatives in key policy areas

2. The key policy areas

Introduction to Youth Policies in Turkey

While efforts for a multi-dimensional youth policy are comparatively new in Turkey, youth has been a core issue in public debate. Roles and importance attributed to youth and the related policy discourse has seen its ups and downs with changing political contexts (Göksel, 2010). Towards the 1980s, youth lost the prominent position it was given in the early years of the republic and started to gain it back with the process of EU candidacy.

In fact, in the early years of the republic, youth was regarded as the main actor to uphold, protect and maintain the newly established republic, especially by the founder Mustafa Kemal Atatürk. Youth was taken as progressive and modernist element in a new state embodying Western values (Göksel, 2010). The 1960s and 1970s witnessed the increasing politicisation of the youth. With the leftist and rightist clashes during the period, the youth was portrayed as rebels (Neyzi, 2001) and a group that was to be feared. Any gathering of young people was approached with suspicion by ordinary people. The military coup of 1980 and the memories thereof led to the rise of a depoliticised generation. Despite being called depoliticised, the youth of the 1990s and the 2000s thought that the political arena fell short in resolving of the problems (Lüküslü, 2008; Neyzi, 2001). Starting in the mid-90s, in line with the global and regional trends created by international and supranational organisations like the United Nations, Council of Europe and the European Union and the development of NGOs in Turkey, youth once again became a group that received public attention. Youth started to be regarded as a group whose potential needs to be developed and for whom opportunities should be created to fulfil their potential and have a say in matters.

From an institutional point of view, the organisation of youth policy has seen its up and downs as well. To this day, formulation and implementation remained fragmented. Education policy

has been central to the development of youth, even before the establishment of the republic. Sports policy was another policy domain that the youth policy has been closely associated with. Indeed, sports and youth have always been taken together in the institutional context. While the Ministry of Education was founded in 1920, the directorate general for sports was founded in 1938, and it took more than 30 years for it to become a ministry (Ertug, 1973). In 1972, youth policy was given recognition, symbolised by the renaming of the ministry as Ministry of Sports and Youth. 11 years later, the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Sports and Youth were merged, and in 1989 Sports and Youth were once again downgraded to a directorate general. It wasn't until 2011 that youth and sports were once again a ministry. This zigzag course of institutional structuring and restructuring portrays the importance attached and the budget allocated.

Currently, youth policy and youth involvement in the policymaking process is mainly under the responsibility of the Ministry of Sports and Youth (Gökşen, Yüксеker, Kuz, & Öker, 2015). The Ministry of Education and Higher Education Council and the Ministry of Family, Work and Social Services are the other three public bodies which engage with youth-related policy. The former two mainly involved in education, the latter in social security, youth employment and training as well as social inclusion. Furthermore, the Turkish National Agency dealing with European Union education and youth programs is another public institution directly related to the youth.

In terms of youth policy, 2011 was a turning point, not only because the Ministry of Sports and Youth was established, but also the Document on National Youth and Sports Policy was released. Yet, it took two years for the document to be adopted. The document embodies a wide range of issues relating to youth, including education and lifelong learning, family, employment and vocational training, health, civic participation, arts, science, networking, leisure activities and voluntary work (Ulusal Gençlik ve Spor Politikası Belgesinin Kabulü Konusundaki Bakanlar Kurulu Kararı, 2013). Besides the policy document, the 11th Development Plan, covering 2019-2023, sets the policy direction for the period, states that the "fundamental aim is for young people to have strong life skills and possess humanitarian and national values and to ensure that young people participate actively in economic and social life, as well as decision making mechanisms" (T.C. Cumhurbaşkanlığı, 2019).

2.1. Education Policy Beyond the Lower Secondary Level

In Turkey, education below tertiary education is under the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. On the other hand, tertiary-level education is under the responsibility of the Higher Education Council, which is an autonomous body (2547 Sayılı Yüksek Öğretim Kanunu, 1981). Education policy below the tertiary level is defined at the national level by the Ministry of Education.

Since the 2012-2013 academic year, compulsory education in Turkey is 12 years and covers the period from the start of primary school until the end of higher secondary level school (Türkiye Anne, Çocuk ve Ergen Sağlığı Enstitüsü, 2019). Accordingly, young people finish compulsory education around 18 years, when they become of full legal age. Upper secondary

education covers different sorts of schools with various curricula. Anatolian high school, science high school, school of fine arts, sports high school, and the school of social sciences are classified as secondary general education. Whereas, Anatolian religious high schools as well as vocational and technical schools are classified as secondary vocational education. Tertiary level education covers 2-year vocational school education, 4 to 6 years of university education, master's and doctorate level education (Eurydice, 2019). Both public and private schooling at all levels of education is possible.

2.1.1. Policies against school drop-out, low achievement & NEET

The net schooling ratio at the upper secondary level grew from 69.3% for the 2012-2013 academic year to 89.3 for 2018-2019. While the schooling ratio at this level is considerably high, despite a decrease of 10% between 2013 and 2019, early leaver rates for young adults between 18 and 24 are still some of the highest in Turkey at 28.7%. The reasons for early school leaving are various. However, one the most prevalent problems is poverty (Gürses, 2010) and the need for children to contribute to family income. To alleviate this situation and decrease drop-out rates, conditional cash transfers are made to families with financial difficulties every two months on the condition that their children regularly attend school – at least 80% attendance is required. Considering gender inequalities, transfers made for girls are higher than boys (T.C. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, 2019). Furthermore, scholarship as well as free boarding programs of public and private institutions and NGOs for students with limited financial means are also interventions aimed at decreasing drop-out rates due to poverty. However, they are mostly achievement-based. For instance, the Ministry of Educations conducts nationwide exams for scholarships for all classes at primary and secondary education levels (T. C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2019b).

Moreover, in order to decrease drop-out rates and absenteeism, Turkey also introduced a school orientation program in 2017-2018. The programme is implemented in the first year of upper secondary education and involves both students and parents with a view to familiarise them with all aspects of secondary education and facilitating students' adaptation to high school (OECD, 2020a).

The open high school system, which gives students the opportunity to participate in education through distance learning on their own pace both for general education and vocational training, is another mechanism to increase completion rates and avoid school drop-outs (Sözer, 2017). Evening schools, both private and public, which start after formal education ends, also provide another path for completing education.

2.1.2. Access to different track and levels

There are different systems of placement regarding enrolment to the upper secondary schools. While some schools accept students through integrated scores based on centralised exams and their grade point average or talent-based examinations, others accept taking into account locations that the students reside as well as students' preferences and their own quota (T. C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2019c). The entrance exam, of which the name changes

every year, is very competitive. 1.029.555 students, out of 1.201.112 students who completed lower secondary education, took the exam in 2019 (T. C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2019a) and raced to get into schools with perceived high achievement, correlated with higher ranked university entrance rates.

Indeed, track differentiation starts at the beginning of the upper secondary level, and the exam is a marker in differentiation. Those who prefer vocational training are usually students who do not have ambitious results and their choice of vocation is not knowledge or talent-based (Hepkul, 2014). Yet, the system of differentiation between general education and vocational training is not very rigid. Entrance into tertiary education is also exam-based and highly competitive. Nevertheless, those who complete vocational high schools can transition into two-year vocational schools at the tertiary education level without exams if they want to continue with their specific field of expertise. They can also continue their field of expertise at the university level with advantageous points compared to their counterparts. However, they can also opt to continue their studies in other areas if they receive adequate points from the test. Some choose to participate in the labour force and start working (T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı Mesleki Eğitim Genel Müdürlüğü., 2018).

Those who interrupted their studies can return and access education at every level. Yet, there are age requirements for formal general education. To be a student at the upper secondary level, the student should be at most 22 years old (T. C. M. E. Bakanlığı, 2018). Students who are above 22 years old or married are directed to the Open High School System, to vocational schools or evening schools.

2.2. Labour Market Policy for Youth in Turkey

The Turkish labour market is faced with many structural problems, including skill mismatches, gendered differences in labour force participation, as well as a prevalence of informal economy. Together with the other parts of the population, these problems affect the youth (Yurttagüler, 2016). Since the mid-2000s, labour market policies in Turkey started to pay attention to the cross-sectoral problems experienced by youth.

Currently, two framework documents set the direction of labour policies focusing on youth. One is the National Employment Strategy and the other is the 11th Development Plan of the Turkish Presidency. The National Strategy for 2014-2023 prioritises the inclusion of youth in employment through active and passive labour force policies, sub-employment, flexible and covered employment, as well as severance pay, and stresses the principle of equal opportunity for accessing the labour market. Among many other aims, it targets a decrease in youth unemployment. The National Strategy focusses on youth within the scope of two policy axes: strengthening the connection between education and employment policy and increasing the employment of groups that need special policies (T. C. Çalışma ve Sosyal Güvenlik Bakanlığı, 2017).

The 11th Development Plan, which covers 2019-2023, also identifies the increase of youth employment through decent new job opportunities as one of the main goals of the state. While the section on employment includes topics such as adaptation to digitalisation, skill

improvement, secure flexible working and part-time arrangements, it foresees the facilitation of youth employment through consultancy and job placement services, university and private sector cooperation for the transition of students to work, internship, entrepreneurship and on the job training programs, encouraging youth to participate in vocational training and education matching their talents. The plan also envisages training and support programs targeting rural youth for them to become innovative and produce products with high added value (T.C. Cumhurbaşkanlığı, 2019).

2.2.1. Unemployment Protection

According to the latest available data from 2017, Turkey is the 8th country with the lowest public unemployment spending (as a percent of GDP) among the OECD countries (OECD, 2020b). Again, among the OECD countries, Turkey is also one of the three countries with the longest duration of employment requirement for unemployment benefit entitlement. Turkey is also one of the countries with the strictest behavioural eligibility criteria (OECD, 2018).

Unemployment insurance was introduced at the time of the pension reform, which raised the age of retirement (Güzel, Okur, & Caniklioğlu, 2002). According to the law on unemployment insurance, as amended in April 2020, unemployment payment is payable to individuals who are laid off, who have been in employment at least 120 days at the time of the termination of contract, and who paid unemployment insurance premium for at least 600 days in the last three years before termination. Health insurance premiums of those people who receive unemployment payment are covered from the unemployment insurance. Unemployed persons who are entitled to the insurance can also benefit from job search support and active labour market services ("4447 Sayılı İşsizlik Sigortası Kanunu," 1999).

Only 10,5% of the unemployed benefit from unemployment payments. Indeed many of the unemployed, including those who have just entered the labour market, self-employed, unpaid family workers, casual employees in agriculture, public employees, those who do not work in the framework of an employment contract and informal workers, are outside the scope of the unemployment insurance (Kumaş & Karadeniz , 2017). Taking into account the strict measures to qualify for insurance and the scope of its coverage, young people who are unemployed do not generally benefit from unemployment insurance.

2.2.2. Active Labour Market Policies

Active labour employment policies (ALEP) are comparatively new in Turkey. Turkey has been implementing ALEP since the early 2000s. The National Youth and Sports Strategy document (Ulusal Gençlik ve Spor Politikası Belgesinin Kabulü Konusundaki Bakanlar Kurulu Kararı, 2013) establishes active labour force policies as a pillar for increasing youth employment.

İŞKUR (Employment Agency) implements active labour force programs, which includes activities such as vocational training courses, on the job training courses and community benefit programs. Additionally, İSKUR also implements additional programs and projects such as vocational training for workers, a social work program and sheltered workshop projects.

Certificates are provided to those who complete the training. İSKUR pays daily allowance for transportation and lunch expenses to beneficiaries of the training. Minimum wage is paid to the beneficiaries of the Social Benefit Programs. It also provides vocational counselling, job hunting assistance and matching services (İŞKUR, 2020). Among vocational training, training courses with employment guarantee are the most efficient in terms of the outcome (Şen, 2016). While İŞKUR's rate of job finding has steadily increased since 2010s, the rate is the lowest for young people who are 25 years and younger (Şahin, 2019).

Additionally, the Small and Medium Enterprises Development Organization (KOSGEB) provides training, technical assistance and financial support to entrepreneurs. Additional support is provided to young people to encourage youth entrepreneurship (KOSGEB, 2020). Nevertheless, the rates of establishment following entrepreneurship training are rather low, at 5 to 6% (Namal, Koçancı, & Aksoy, 2018). Furthermore, business establishment is higher for those who are 25 years and older (Altuntaş, 2016).

Moreover, on a temporary basis incentives are provided to employers for youth employment. For instance, until the end of 2020, if young people (18-29 years for men, 18+ for women) who are unemployed for at least 6 months are employed, insurance payments to be made by the employees are covered from the Unemployment Insurance Fund ("4447 Sayılı İşsizlik Sigortası Kanunu," 1999).

Furthermore, many EU-funded programs have been implemented. The Active Labour Force Program for the years 2003-2006, Active Labour Market Measures 2008-2010, the Labour Market Program for the NEET 2018-2020 are among the programs implemented. International organisations such as UNDP and World Bank, development agencies and NGOs also implement projects increasing the employability of the youth (Gökşen et al., 2015; İnsan Kaynaklarını Geliştirme Programı Otoritesi, 2020).

2.3. Social welfare policy

2.3.1. Access and eligibility to social assistance

Social assistance is available for the protection of disadvantaged groups in Turkey. However, these social benefits are diverse and aim to cover all age groups and all disadvantaged groups (eg. disabled people, widowed women

and the unemployed). The Social Assistance and Solidarity Fund is the party that provides this aid. It was established with Law No. 3294. The fund carries out its activities under the General Directorate of Social Assistance of Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Services (T. C. Aile ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, 2012). Moreover, local funds at governors' and mayors' offices are also present for disadvantaged groups.

Poverty is the pre-condition for all assistance provided. For youth, unemployment insurance is one of the most important benefits. It is covered by the Unemployment Fund that employers, employees and the state contribute to. The Unemployment Insurance Fund was established in 1999 and implementation started in 2003. It is a temporary payment made to individuals

who have lost their jobs without their own will and fault. The amount of the payment is very limited (Görücü, Akbıyık, Koç, 2012). The unemployment insurance payment varies between 180 days and 300 days and is calculated as 40% of the average daily earnings (İŞKUR, 2020).

2.3.2. Access and eligibility to social services

The state pledged to meet the healthcare costs of non-working youth. As of 2012, everyone is covered by a compulsory health insurance scheme. Unemployed and unregistered workers are automatically detected by the system. Those identified by the system must demonstrate that they have either low income or none. Income is calculated considering the household income to which the individual belongs. Those who cannot demonstrate their low-income status must pay their insurance on credit. Youth who continue their education are covered by their family's general insurance (T.C. Sosyal Güvenlik Kurumu, 2020). Yet, those individuals who are 25 years and older, even if they continue their education, are responsible for paying insurance premiums, unless they prove that they have low income.

There are various social assistance instruments for those young people who continue their education. For instance, conditional cash transfers are provided to low-income families whose children attend primary or secondary school (T.C. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Politikalar Bakanlığı, 2019). Those with low income, who continue tertiary education can access scholarships and low interest credit. These are covered by the Credit and Dormitories Institute of Ministry of Youth and Sports. Moreover, housing support at dormitories is also available. Low-cost/free transport is also provided to students by municipalities.

2.4. Housing policy

In Turkey, housing policy is executed by the Ministry of Environment and Urbanism. Current housing policies' basic components include: government supported social housing, housing constructed by private sector and regenerated urban areas with state aid (Alkan & Ugurlar , 2015). In addition, housing assistance has been provided for poor households since 2006, by the Solidarity Foundations of Family, Work and Social Policy Ministry.

2.4.1. Access to public rental housing

In Turkey, there is no rental housing for low-income families. Young people in Turkey often live with their parents. Thus, the socio-economic conditions of the family determine the housing conditions of the youth. Young people, who study at universities in cities other than those in which their families reside, face housing problems. The rents for university students are usually higher (Yurttagüler, 2016). Nonetheless, the state provides rent assistance for households faced with material deprivation.

2.4.2. Access to and affordability of commercial housing

Since 2003, construction of social housing is under the responsibility of the Mass Housing Administration (TOKİ) of Ministry of Environment and Urbanisation. Social housing is

constructed for individuals with very low, low and middle income. Houses are sold at prices lower than market prices and long-term payment programs are provided. Those individuals with low or very low income must be at least 30 years old to benefit from the program. No such condition exists for individuals with middle income (Bayraktar & Bakır, 2019).

2.5. Health Policy

Basic health insurance is mandatory for everyone in Turkey. The General Health Insurance Law was passed in 2008. The aim was to enable all Turkish citizens to have access to primary health care services (Altun et al., 2013). Universal coverage was materialised in 2012 (Belek, 2014).

Young people who are at most 18 years old are covered by their parents' health insurance. Parents' health insurance is also valid for those who are between 18 and 25 years old and continue their education. Young people who are above full legal age must pay health insurance premiums provided that they do not continue their education and their income is not low. For individuals with low household income, insurance premiums are paid by the state. Women who are above full age and do not work or who are divorced are covered by the general health insurance without any age limit (T.C. Sosyal Güvenlik Kurumu, 2020). Private health insurance is also provided in the market. Yet, it is deemed expensive for an average household.

2.5.1. Access to the public health care

Everyone who has general health insurance can access health services. Costs of services received from public and most private health institutions are partly covered by the health insurance (T.C. Sosyal Güvenlik Kurumu, 2020). Taking average earnings into account, contributions required by most private health institutions are costly.

2.6. Active Citizenship

Youth in Turkey have been portrayed as apolitical, especially after the 1980s (Sener, 2014). Civic engagement and knowledge regarding civic institutions, even among youth with higher levels of education, is limited (Sener, 2012). Common embracement of passive citizenship (Yeğen, 2004), stressing duties in relation to citizenship rather than rights (Keyman & İçduygu, 2003), political context in the previous periods and associated public opinion with its reflections in the education system have played a role in this outcome. Nevertheless, the widespread protests in 2013, in which predominantly young people participated, demonstrated that youth is not as apolitical as was conceived (Bee & Kaya, 2017). After the protests, their political participation in conventional politics also increased (Kayaoğlu, 2017). Furthermore, they use social media in expressing their opinion on social and political developments, and through this medium they participate in the political process (Lüküslü, 2011; Şener, Yücel, & Yedikardeş, 2019).

2.6.1. Policies targeting Active Citizenship of the Youth

Two policy documents determine the framework of policies regarding active citizenship for youth. The document on National Youth and Sports Policy includes a section on democratic

participation and civic consciousness and defines three policy areas. Accordingly, the policy areas are extending the consciousness of democracy among young people, increasing youth representativeness in national and local councils as well as their participation in civil society organisations (Ulusal Gençlik ve Spor Politikası Belgesinin Kabulü Konusundaki Bakanlar Kurulu Kararı, 2013). Moreover, the 11th Development Plan (2019-2023) (T.C. Cumhurbaşkanlığı, 2019) includes four measures strengthening civic and political participation and engagement. It foresees giving support to youth in participating in decision-making mechanisms, operationalising the Turkish National Youth Council, encouraging young people's engagement in volunteering and the capacity building of NGOs targeting youth. In 2017, the age of candidacy in parliamentary elections decreased to 18 from 25 ("6771 Sayılı Türkiye Cumhuriyeti Anayasasında Değişiklik Yapılmasına Dair Kanun," 2017).

2.6.2. Mechanism of political participation and civic engagement

Despite these policy mechanisms, political participation is very limited. Currently, at the local level, albeit not in every district, there are Municipality Youth Councils (Çetintürk & Küçük, 2019), established in line with the Agenda 21 of the United Nations. While they are not very effective and young people are not taken seriously by the policymakers, the mechanism empowered youth to a certain extent in terms of political participation and civic engagement (Gökçe-Kızılkaya & Onursal-Beşgül, 2017). The youth branches of political parties is another mechanism where youth can participate in the political parties. The legal basis for youth branches of political parties was established in 1995. Since then, nearly all political parties founded their youth branches. Youth branches of political parties are especially active during election times, and in addition to pulling votes, they also implement many errands (Yanardağ, 2020). Although it has been proclaimed that membership in the youth branches also facilitates political careers of the members (Gökmen, 2017), the transition is not straight forward and not that easy. At times, chores/errands and pulling votes during election times overburdens the youth and breaks them away from the mainstream political process. It is important to note that the membership is very low. The ratio of young people who are members of political parties or their youth branches is 9% (KONDA, 2013). Contrary to the hierarchical structure of party politics, CSOs with their loose and horizontal structures provide an attractive option for civic engagement (Gökçe-Kızılkaya & Onursal- Beşgül, 2017). However, only 27% of the young people are members of civil society organisations (KONDA, 2013).

Part III. Side notes on migrant youth policy

Turkey is home to the largest number of migrant populations. Currently, Turkey hosts around 3.9 million migrants, of whom 3.6 million are Syrians (IOM, 2020). As of 2018, nearly 1/3 of the Syrian refugees are young. While Syrians in Turkey do not possess official refugee status, Turkish government granted temporary protection with social rights, integrating them into the Turkish welfare system and the Turkish social fabric, but limiting their mobility to the provinces they are registered to (Baban, Ilcan, & Rygiel, 2017). Social rights give them access to free education and health services, as well as covering 80% of medication costs (Kutlu, 2015).

Syrians have three options for schooling; attending schools at refugee camps, enrolling in Turkish schools and courses run by NGOs for those without appropriate documents (Bircan & Sunata, 2015). Out of 800 000 young Syrians with ages 19 to 29, only 15 000 attend university. Many face problems integrating into the school system due to poverty, limited language skills and lack of documents. To ease the transition, Turkish language courses were opened for the Syrian refugees (T.C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2018). Furthermore, the Turkish government is providing conditional cash support to families whose children attend school. Payment is higher for girls. Moreover, a project by the Ministry of Education, co-financed by the EU, is implemented to support the integration of Syrians in the Turkish education system through adaptation classes at all levels of primary and secondary education (T. C. Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı, 2020). In addition, in 6 cities the Ministry of Education provides transportation to schools in partnership with the International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2019).

Syrian young adults also encounter difficulties in integrating to the labour market. Foremost, they do not have the right to automatic work permits and cannot access decent work (Baban et al., 2017). While exact numbers are not known, it is estimated that out of 3.6 million person only 600 000 work, but mostly in the informal sector and in precarious low-paid jobs, without any social security (Kaygısız, 2017). Compared to the locals, a wider gender gap is observed among the Syrians.

Part IV. Concluding Tables

Despite its comparatively young population, multidimensional youth policy in Turkey is fairly new. The process has been in line with the developments both at the global level, through United Nations, and the regional level, through European integration.

Social benefits (transfers/compensation):

Considering Chevalier's (2018) distinction regarding social benefits, the Turkish system can be categorised as a familialised one. In applications to scholarships, credits and state supported dormitories, household income is one of the fundamental economic and social criteria used by the Credit and Dormitory Institution (Kredi ve Yurtlar Kurumu, 2020). The Ministry of Family, Work and Social Services is also providing cash support to students attending higher education. Eligibility criteria are again related to a household's economic standing. What's more, much of the social assistance is based on family. For instance, any full age members of the families with low economic standing can apply for agricultural production establishment support or for electricity bill contribution (TC. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Hizmetler Bakanlığı Sosyal Yardımlar Genel Müdürlüğü, 2020a; TC. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Hizmetler Bakanlığı Sosyal Yardımlar Genel Müdürlüğü, 2020b;).

Social benefits

Individualised	
Familialised	X

Education

In Turkey, both public and private education are available at all levels. Generally, it is seen as an investment in the future by the public. For education below the tertiary level, those who can afford it prefer to send their children to private schools. Yet, apart from a handful of private universities, both students and their parents prefer public universities. Following Busemeyer's (2014) distinction, in terms of commodification, the Turkish system is in the middle, inclining towards low, as the majority of the students receive education in public schools (ÖSYM, 2020).

On the other hand, education is rather stratified. The Turkish education system contains two highly competitive exams; one at high school entrance, another at university entrance. Those who get placed in better performing universities are generally from public or private high schools with higher floor scores, which they have obtained at the high school entrance level. Students attending well-known private secondary schools have a higher likelihood of scoring higher. Furthermore, students who are successful in securing a place at a known university or better performing high schools also combine schooling with private tutoring. Accordingly, the system starts selecting better students at the end of secondary school, and those with the financial means have better chances of receiving a better education and, hence, better chances in terms of outcomes.

Education

	Low stratification	High stratification
High Commodification		
Low Commodification		X (more towards medium)

Active Labour Market Policies

Regarding active labour market policies, both structure-related and individualising measures are implemented. In the terminology of Pohl and Walther (2007), there are both measures for increasing the employability of young people and for improving the access of young people to the job market and enhancing their opportunities. For instance, İŞKUR -Employment Office- (İŞKUR, 2020) provides both vocational training (individualised) and support for the establishment (structure-related). Moreover, there are both preventive and compensatory measures. For instance, to prevent early school leaving (at primary and secondary levels) conditional cash support is provided to the parents of children with no social security (TC. Aile, Çalışma ve Sosyal Hizmetler Bakanlığı, Sosyal Yardımlar Genel Müdürlüğü, 2020 b). Moreover, as a compensatory measure for the unemployed, youth counselling is provided (İŞKUR, 2020).

ALMP

	Compensatory	Preventive
Structure-related	X	X
Individualizing	X	X

Health Policies

Turkey has universal coverage in health care. Following Wendt (2014) and Bambra's (2005)'s classifications, Turkish healthcare is characterised by low total health expenditure and low public financing. Health care is provided by both public and private institutions. While patient contributions are rather high for private healthcare services, ownership of private health insurance policies is low.

Health policies

	High (universal) access	Low (status-related; i.e. student, employee) access
High commodification	X	
Low commodification		

Active Citizenship

Youth has long been characterised as apolitical and embracing passive citizenship in Turkey. Nonetheless, their participation in conventional political processes has been increasing lately. Social media has also been a medium where they express their opinion.

Active citizenship

High involvement	X
Low involvement	

Housing

Rental social housing for the young does not exist in Turkey. Nonetheless, rent assistance is provided to households facing material deprivation. Yet, the scope is fairly limited. The Mass Housing Administration TOKI contracts housing for the low-income households, yet it is very selective. In terms of Olsen (2013), social housing is highly commodified and selective.

Housing

	Universal access	Selective/targeted access
High commodification		X
Low commodification		

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