Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Turkey

Fatoş Gökşen, Deniz Yükseker, Sinem Kuz and Ibrahim Öker

Koç University Social Policy Center

WP4 - Policy transfer and Comparative Frameworks
Version 1.0

12 August 2015
**STYLE Working Papers** are peer-reviewed outputs from the [www.style-research.eu](http://www.style-research.eu) project. The series is edited by the project coordinator Professor Jacqueline O'Reilly. These working papers are intended to meet the European Commission’s expected impact from the project:

i) to ‘advance the knowledge base that underpins the formulation and implementation of relevant policies in Europe with the aim of enhancing the employment of young people and their transition to economic and social independence’, and

ii) to engage with ‘relevant communities, stakeholders and practitioners in the research with a view to supporting employment policies in Europe.’ Contributions to a dialogue about these results can be made through the project website [www.style-research.eu](http://www.style-research.eu), or by following us on Twitter @STYLEEU.

To cite this report:


© Copyright is held by the authors

### About the authors

- **Deniz Yükseker** – [http://www.style-research.eu/team/deniz-yukseker](http://www.style-research.eu/team/deniz-yukseker)
- **Sinem Kuz** – [http://www.style-research.eu/team/sinem-kuz](http://www.style-research.eu/team/sinem-kuz)
- **İbrahim Öker** – [http://www.style-research.eu/team/ibrahim-okker](http://www.style-research.eu/team/ibrahim-okker)

### Acknowledgements

The research leading to these results has received funding from the European Union’s Seventh Framework Programme for research, technological development and demonstration under grant agreement no. 613256.
Executive Summary

This report presents a detailed analysis of the institutional framework and policy learning process regarding school to work (STW) transition, youth employment, and the vocational education and training (VET) system in Turkey. The report is based on a desk study and a qualitative fieldwork which included 11 in-depth elite interviews with key personnel from several ministries, representatives of civil society organizations, one major corporation, and representatives of international agencies.

Turkey’s working age population will expand by over 800,000 every year during the next decade and will reach 68.6% of the population in 2023. The increase in the productive population will either lead to a demographic advantage or a threat of youth unemployment. Despite the potential of labour capacity with a significant proportion of the population below age 15 compared to other OECD countries; quality and equity remain as challenges for youth’s further education and employment. In the field of STW transition, Turkey has various issues to solve, including improving equity between regions and urban and rural areas; addressing the needs of disadvantaged students; preparing quality teachers and school leaders, improving access to and completion of upper secondary education, VET and tertiary education; strengthening links to the labour market and adequately funding the education system.

Regarding the labour market, the employment rate for the working age population (15+) is around 45%, significantly lower than the OECD average of around 55%. The low level of female LFP lies behind Turkey’s low employment rates. While male LFP was recorded as 76% in 2012, female LFP is only 30%, less than half of the average of OECD countries. The unbalanced relation between Turkey’s employment protection legislation (EPL) and job quality has been one of the main controversial issues which shapes Turkey’s labour market. Turkey’s employment protection rules are still one of the most rigid among OECD countries in terms of temporary employment, employment through work agencies and severance pay. On the other hand, Turkey performs poorly among the OECD countries in three job quality dimensions: earnings quality, labour market security and quality of the working environment. Furthermore, Turkey still has the highest proportion of NEETs among 15 to 29 year-olds across OECD countries: 29.2% compared with the OECD average of 15%. Under these conditions, policy learning is a major issue in terms of implementing structural changes.

Since 2004, the EU accession negotiations process has left a big mark on Turkey in terms of policy making and projects. The conditionality for the EU accession process has shaped policy frameworks in diverse fields in Turkey, leading to legislation in line with the EU acquis. However, in the past few years, EU’s impact on Turkey’s political agenda has slowed down, which is also reflected in policy making on employment-related issues. EU-funded projects are still actively operated by state bodies, whereas the EU’s agenda setting role is diminishing. Rather national programs/projects, originally
derived from EU projects, have started to be implemented for increasing youth employment with the same objectives.

The centralized structure of the major policy making institutions in Turkey leads to a significant rigidity in policy design and change. The two chief state authorities in employment and education policy-making are the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MoLSS).

In recent years, through various projects and programs, the government has sought to tighten the link between students’ skills and the demands of the job market, and improve teacher quality and curricula. In 2001, the Board of Vocational Education was established with representatives from government, employees, employers and other social partners, while a Provincial Board of Vocational Education was also established in each province. In 2002, the Government initiated The Project on Strengthening the Vocational Education and Training System (SVET), a 5-year project with support from the EU, to design new national vocational standards developed in co-operation with the industrial sector and other social partners. The Modernization of Vocational Education and Training Project included initiatives to improve VET teacher quality.

The reform has been effective in developing occupational standards and respective training standards with the foundation of VQA. However, MoNE’s unwillingness to involve social partners in the reform process curtailed its reach to other areas of VET. One of the considerable problems of the reform process was the failure to develop competency-based and modular VET curricula and learning outcomes in line with VQA’s vocational qualifications.

Alongside national actors, policy players from global and international level assist in reforming Turkey's VET system. In terms of policy learning, the EU has an impact on designing the VET system, since Turkey lacks policy experience for facilitating the transition from education to the labour market. The conditionality for the EU accession process has shaped policy frameworks in diverse fields in Turkey, leading to legislation in line with the EU acquis. The EU is a significant channel of policy influence also because it provides technical and financial support throughout the accession process. Aside from projects, “The Instrument of Pre-accession Process 2007-2013” (IPA) funds are one of the major channels that make the EU a significant facilitator of policy change. Turkey’s 9th Development Plan’s (2007-2013) objectives were aligned with the IPA Programme so that the implementation can be carried out in an environment of collaboration and social dialogue. The EU IPA 1 Programme focused on reducing regional inequalities between eastern and western provinces of Turkey. In collaboration with the MoLSS, “IPA 2 Sectoral Operational Programme 2014-2020” offers a policy agenda for Turkey whose goal is increasing employment and the quality and access to education for social inclusion.

The World Bank (WB) and the ILO stand as two major international actors in Turkey that provide
loans & technical expertise, issue policy reports and work with the government in order to facilitate STW transition. Among WB projects, Growth with Decent Work for All: A Youth Employment Programme in Antalya (2009-2012) in collaboration with İŞKUR and the UN Joint Programme (ILO, FAO, IOM and UNDP) investigated the needs and difficulties that youth and women experience in Antalya during STW in order to improve the work opportunities for youth (aged 15-24). Restoring Equitable Growth and Employment Programmatic Development Policy Loan-I & II (2010-2011) was aimed at supporting Turkey's efforts to promote equitable growth and job creation over the medium term.

Policy changes in STW transition and youth employment can be summarized as follows: (a) incremental, marginal adjustments; (b) changes in policy instruments; (c) changes that redeploy old institutions to new purposes; and (d) radical changes in the actual goals of policies.

The establishment of İŞKUR and the Vocational Qualification Authority (VQA) as the main institutions of employment and skill generation is the chief policy change in the last decade in the context of EU harmonization process. Since the 1990s, supranational bodies such as the OECD, the WB and the EU have been increasingly playing active roles in the dissemination of employment and education strategies through projects and programs in Turkey. Until the EU accession process started, policy transfers by IGOs were rather fragmented, diverse and project-basis. Accession negotiations brought fundamental changes to youth employment and training policies through a more coherent agenda, accompanied by the necessary funds, projects, and more importantly institutions. In this scope, the restructuring of İŞKUR in 2004, as an example of change of policy instruments, led to the creation of jobs through activation measures such as on-the-job trainings and vocational programs in a more active and systematic way. This process led to enactment of a law for the establishment of an Occupational Standards Institution in 2000, and the VQA in 2006.

İŞKUR’s restructuring presents a transformation that redeploy old institutions to new purposes like ALMPs, whereas VQA is more likely to be considered as a change in policy instruments by founding new institutions for establishing the National Qualification Framework.

Nevertheless, these newly established institutions face certain constraints in terms of their role in the decision-making process of education and employment policies. Even though MoNE and MoLSS have been the primary actors, the collaboration between these ministries and newly established institutions are relatively weak. Our interviews show that the dialogue between public institutions remains weak, despite joint projects and programs. Interestingly, İŞKUR and VQA, in their administrative structures, have strong relations with private sector organisations and local partners such as municipalities and regional directorates. Nevertheless, interviewees stated that the lack of communication with upper bodies such as MoNE weakened the influence of the activities of İŞKUR and VQA, and hindered the spread of new policies. The deepening gap between old and new public
institutions creates major problems in the implementation phase, which translates into an obstacle for comprehensive and inclusive agenda for youth employment.

Overall, for the specific case of Turkey, it is possible to talk about three main trends that lie at the root of likely failures of such policy transfer projects concerning STW transition: 1) Decreasing impact of European Union harmonization process; 2) over-centralized structure of the governance of education and the labour market, and 3) the dominance of fragmented series of project-based solutions and inability to convert such projects into long-term, sustainable policies.

Before decentralization attempts are accomplished, it seems difficult for IGO-led or funded projects to turn into long-term and sustainable policies. Likewise, as long as the overall structures of MoNE and MoLSS remains such centralized, these kind of project initiatives are likely to remain as short-term development programs; since they cannot include diverse social actors into the decision making and implementation processes by simply forcing them to implement projects approved by the central authorities of MoNE and MoLSS. As a result, all these programs and projects discussed above appear as fragmented series of projects, which can only provide temporary solutions. Particularly, the inability to receive feedback from local actors and to conduct impact analysis makes it even harder for such programs to provide sustainable solutions to the problems characterizing STW transition.

In terms of welfare policies, the family still represents the core supporting mechanism for the young employed. Families are still expected to protect youth from the risk of unemployment and to facilitate their STW transition by providing financial support. Despite this situation, some policy reforms have direct or indirect benefits for youth. Since healthcare became universal in 2012, it has decreased the destructive effects of unemployment, including for youth. Another policy measure that has an indirect impact on disadvantaged youth is social assistance programs for alleviating poverty. For instance, conditional cash transfers for poor households have played a role in encouraging the school enrolment of girls and boys.

In conclusion, reflecting major features of the sub-protective regimes, policy making in Turkey can be characterized by a clash between comprehensive reform initiatives and very centralized and monolithic structure of the institutions to implement these reforms. While formulating policies geared towards preventing youth unemployment and increasing employment, the strengths and weaknesses, threats and opportunities of the demographic structure of Turkey and unique features of the labour market should be taken into account. In the long-term, policies designed to eliminate disparities that prevent youth from participating in education and the labour force, to mitigate the negative effects of rural-to-urban migration on youth and to keep students in school longer must be implemented.

First, there has to be systematic and reliable data collection on the activities undertaken. In the absence of data to conduct impact analysis, their effect on changing the existing labour market structures remains to be seen. Second, barriers to VET reforms are mostly of the structural kind and
need sustained commitment for resolution. All of these are important for success in STW policies and improving youth’s access to higher quality jobs. For all efforts and budget spent to be successful and sustainable, there is need for holistic approaches, which take into consideration the multifarious barriers that stand in youth’s labour force participation. While what is currently done produces an impressive array of experience and expertise in the field, this needs to be translated into future models and sustainable policies rather than program applications.

Key words:

School-to-work transition; governance; innovation; policy learning/transfer; youth policies
Table of Contents

1. Introduction ......................................................................................................................... 11
2. Dynamics of Policy Change/ Innovation: The Macro Level Perspective .......................... 12
   2.1 Governance and Socio-Economic Structure ..................................................................... 12
   2.1.1 Structural Barriers and Enablers of Innovation ......................................................... 13
   2.1.2 Key Actors in the Governance of VET System in Turkey ......................................... 18
   2.2 Policy Learning Framework ............................................................................................ 21
   2.3 Outputs from Social Learning and Policy Change ......................................................... 27
3. Policy Change within and Across Institutions ...................................................................... 29
   3.1 Institutional Structure of the Labour Market Affecting Policy/ Change and Innovation ... 29
      3.1.1 Active Labour Market Policies .................................................................................. 30
      3.1.2 The Wage Setting Institutions and Minimum Wage ................................................ 32
      3.1.3 Employment Protection Legislation and Labour Contracts .................................... 32
   3.2 Institutional Structure of VET and Basic Mechanisms behind the Transition ............... 33
   3.3 Welfare Policies .............................................................................................................. 38
4. Conclusion ............................................................................................................................ 40
5. Bibliography .......................................................................................................................... 42
6. Recent titles in this series ..................................................................................................... 44
7. Research Partners .................................................................................................................. 49
8. Advisory Groups .................................................................................................................... 50
# Table of Figures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Turkey’s Demographic Window of Opportunity</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>Employment Rate (Percent of Total Population 15+), 2007-2012</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>Labour Market Performance in Turkey</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4</td>
<td>Job Informality</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5</td>
<td>Informality among Women and Youth</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6</td>
<td>Educational Attainment in Turkey by Age</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7</td>
<td>Informality among Woman and Youth</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8</td>
<td>Percentage of 15-29 Year-Olds in Education and Not In Education, By Educational Attainment and Work Status, 2011</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 9</td>
<td>Distribution of All Education Decisions by Decision-Making Location Turkey, OECD Average, and EU21 Average</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 10</td>
<td>Youth Unemployment and Youth Labour Force Participation in EU and OECD Countries</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 11</td>
<td>The expenditure on ALMPs and Unemployment Benefits</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 12</td>
<td>Employment Rates by Educational Attainment (2013)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 13</td>
<td>Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment (2013)</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ALMP</td>
<td>Active Labour Market Policies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CPS</td>
<td>Country Partnership Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EU</td>
<td>European Union</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAO</td>
<td>Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GDP</td>
<td>Gross Domestic Product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HRD</td>
<td>Human Resources Development Program</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMF</td>
<td>International Monetary Fund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPA</td>
<td>Instrument for Pre-Accession</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ISKUR</td>
<td>Turkish Employment Agency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JVC</td>
<td>Job and Vocation Counselling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LFP</td>
<td>Labour Force Participation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoLSS</td>
<td>Ministry of Labour and Social Security</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MoNE</td>
<td>Ministry of National Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MVET</td>
<td>The Modernization of Vocational Education and Training Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYK</td>
<td>Vocational Higher Authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MYO</td>
<td>Vocational Higher Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEETs</td>
<td>Not in Education, Employment, or Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-governmental Organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualification Framework</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OECD</td>
<td>The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDO</td>
<td>Project Development Objectives</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PISA</td>
<td>Programme for International Student Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RDA</td>
<td>Regional Development Agencies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SEP</td>
<td>Secondary Education Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STW</td>
<td>School to Work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SVET</td>
<td>The Project on Strengthening the Vocational Education and Training System</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOBB</td>
<td>The Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TurkStat</td>
<td>Turkish Statistical Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UN</td>
<td>United Nations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UNJP</td>
<td>United Nations Joint Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VET</td>
<td>Vocational Education and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WAP</td>
<td>Working Age Population</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>YÖK</td>
<td>The Council for Higher Education</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1. Introduction

The report presents a detailed analysis of the institutional framework and policy learning process considering school to work (STW) transition, youth employment and vocational education and training (VET) system in Turkey. Specifically, effective innovations in the youth labour market for eliminating poverty and social exclusion risks, as well as promoting youth employment will be outlined. The obstacles to and triggers of the policy innovations will be examined to understand to what extent these policies are effective.

The report is based on a desk study and a qualitative fieldwork which included 11 in-depth elite interviews with key personnel from several ministries, representatives of civil society organizations, one major corporation, and local representatives of international agencies. The interviews were conducted in İstanbul and Ankara between January and March 2015.

The List of Interviews

- Ministry of National Education : Directorate of Lifelong learning
- Ministry of Labour and Social Security: Deputy Secretary
- Ministry of Development
- Vocational Qualifications Authority
- Turkish Employment Agency
- Education Reform Initiative
- Bilgi University Youth Studies Research Center
- Young Lives Foundation
- TOBB University Vocational Training Program Directorate
- Koç Holding
- ILO Turkey Office
2. Dynamics of Policy Change/Innovation: The Macro Level Perspective

2.1 Governance and Socio-Economic Structure

Turkey needs to empower its young people to utilize the potential of the significant young cohort in the labour market. Turkey’s working age population will expand by over 800,000 every year during the next decade and will reach 68.6% of the population in 2023 (see Figure 1) (WB, 2008). The increase in the productive population will either lead to a demographic advantage or a threat of youth unemployment. The advantage of a large youth cohort will be jeopardized if high numbers of young people have difficulty in entering the labour market and the labour market does not generate more and better jobs for them.

Figure 1: Turkey’s Demographic Window of Opportunity

In this respect, managing the transition into work is important for achieving stability, equity and competitiveness in Turkey. The integration of youth in the labour market does not only require basic education and knowledge, but also necessary skills for the market. In the last decade, Turkey has taken essential steps for improving the competences and skills of young people towards
employability. Achievements in the area of education aim to build a strong base by increasing educational attainment of youth and improving formal education and the VET system. On the labour market side, generating new employment opportunities and bridging the skills gap are necessary for the future viability of the labour market. The key issue for the STW transition is “whether the education and skills of Turkish youth are sufficient to prepare them to get good jobs” (WB, 2008, 10).

2.1.1 Structural Barriers and Enablers of Innovation
This section briefly outlines the barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in the school to work transition of youth in Turkey.

2.1.1.1 Structural Barriers

2.1.1.1.1 Centralized Structure of the Education and Labour Market Policy Making
The centralized structure of the major policy making institutions in Turkey leads to a significant rigidity in policy design and change. Education is a case in point for two reasons. First, education is a multi-layered field of public administration with a very complex structure of division of labour and accountability frameworks. Second, education is a highly contentious field of state-society relations including the length of compulsory education, its relation to social mobility and the socioeconomic inequalities in access to quality education.

The Ministry of National Education’s (MONE) general directorates and their sub units are responsible for all aspects of education policy. Provincial and District National Education Directorates across 81 provinces implement the decisions taken centrally at MoNE’s general directorates. Among the OECD countries, Turkey has the most centralized and top-heavy system, leaving no room for self-governance, local innovation, and initiatives for local institutions and schools.

2.1.1.2 The Labour Market
The employment rate for the working age population (WAP) (15+) was around 47%, significantly lower than the OECD average of around 55%. The employment rate for men was around 70% in 2012, only 3% points lower than the OECD average. On the other hand, the employment rate for woman is only 28%, less than half of the average of OECD countries at 57% in 2012 (see Figure 2). While woman (aged between 25 and 29) has the highest rate of employment with 34% among all women population, young women (aged between 15 and 24) in particular, have very low employment
rates - only 20% in 2012 (see Figure 3). The primary reason for this is the inactivity of young women aged between 15 and 24 (almost 74%).

Figure 2: Employment Rate (Percent of Total Population 15+), 2007-2012

Figure 3: Labour Market Performance in Turkey

2.1.1.1.3 Informality

More than a third (37%) of jobs was informal in 2013, down from 48% in 2005 (see Figure 4). Most informal workers are in agriculture. Women and youth are affected disproportionally by informality. Informality among women (52%) is much higher than among men (30%) due to unpaid work in agriculture (see Figure 5). In non-agriculture sectors, informality among women is only 5 percentage points higher than among men. On the other hand, informality among young workers is significantly
higher than the population average (50% versus 40%) even in non-agriculture sectors as the young often experience entry barriers to formal employment (Figure 5) (Tansel and Kan, 2011).

**Figure 4: Job Informality**

![Graph showing job informality from 2005 to 2012](image)

*Source: TurkStat (Labor Force Survey data)*

**Figure 5: Informality among Women and Youth**

![Graph showing informality among women and youth](image)

*Source: TurkStat
Note: Informality is defined as the ratio of workers without social security registration to total employment.*

### 2.1.1.1.4 Problematic Reform Process in Education

Education reform has been a topic of debate in Turkey for many decades. The period of compulsory education was extended in 1997 from 5 to 8 years and then in 2012 to 12 years. However, other reforms such as the reintroduction of early streaming and frequent changes to the secondary school examination system do little to reduce the still high level of socio-economic segregation in the education system or address major issues of education quality. Reforms to break down barriers between general and vocational secondary education to ensure a foundation of common skills and competencies for all students and to modernize and expand higher education are still missing.
STW transition is highly affected by the formal education frameworks and Turkey is no exception. The education system plays a role as triggering factor, as well as a barrier for entering the labour market. Younger generations have higher educational attainment at secondary and tertiary levels (between ages 15 to 29) compared to older age cohorts. However, there is room for improvement (Figure 6). For instance, compared to OECD average, the attainment rates in tertiary education remain low in Turkey, which is 13.81% and 9.45% respectively % (men, women) (LFS Micro data, 2013).

Figure 6: Educational Attainment in Turkey by Age

![Educational Attainment in Turkey by Age](source.png)

The quality of education is a matter of concern. PISA test results in 2012 show that Turkish students perform poorly. The performance of the students varies by region, family income, and type of school, which also points out the lack of equity in the education system.

Lack of job skills hampers job opportunities for youth, while companies are in search of skilled manpower. Upon leaving school, young people go through long periods of unemployment and the jobs they are able to find are most of the time temporary, in the informal sector or at relatively low wages (WB, 2008, p.ii). Figure 7 shows that only 30% of youth (15-24) is employed and that the youth unemployment rate is almost double the national rate. “NEETs” is another crucial matter; Turkey still has the highest proportion of NEETs among 15 to 29 year-olds across OECD countries: 29.2% compared with the OECD average of 15% (NEETs) (OECD, Education at a Glance 2013) (Figure 8).
Figure 7: Informality among Woman and Youth

Source: TurkStat
Notes: Informality is defined as the ratio of workers without social security registration to total employment.

Figure 8: Percentage of 15-29 Year-Olds in Education and Not In Education, By Educational Attainment and Work Status, 2011

Source: OECD, Education at a Glance 2013

2.1.1.1.5 Lack of Communication with Governance Structure

Even though very centralized, there is lack of communication and coordination between different levels of governance of education and employment. The dialogue between MoNE, MoLSS and other organizations such as the Turkish Employment Agency (İŞKUR) and the Vocational Qualifications Authority (VQA) are limited, according to representatives of these institutions who were interviewed. There is a need to incorporate vocational qualifications determined by the VQA and private sector representatives into the curricula of VET but the lack of communication between institutions has so far
hindered this. Similarly, feedback on policy implementation from local levels of governance is met with reluctance by the central policy making institutions.

2.1.1.2 Triggers

2.1.1.2.1 Restructuring of Turkish Employment Agency (İŞKUR)
The Turkish Employment Agency (İŞKUR) was established in 2003 to conduct activities related to the labour market. Besides its function in matching job seekers and jobs, the agency implements passive employment policies for providing income support to the unemployed, active employment programmes for improving the employability of the labour force and collecting labour market data. In 2008, significant funds were allocated to active employment programmes in order to effectively respond to labour market needs in the wake of the financial crisis. Since 2008, İŞKUR has increased vocational training programs, introduced Job and Vocation Counselling (JVC) and, recently, started to register social assistance beneficiaries in its database of job seekers. Consequently, the number of unemployed registered with İŞKUR has increased.

2.1.1.2.2 Establishment of Vocational Qualification Authority
The VQA was set up in 2006 to lay down the guiding principles for competencies in technical and vocational branches and to conduct activities related to inspection, measurement, documentation and certification. The basic duty of the institution is to set up and operate the “National Occupational Competence System” in alignment with the EU National Qualification Framework. The institution is supposed to perform this duty in cooperation with MoNE, the Council of Higher Education (CoHE) and employers’ and workers’ organizations. In Turkey there is no unified system defining occupational qualifications, setting training standards specific to professions and documenting trainings delivered in line with these standards with diplomas and certificates. This creates problems in youth’s entry into the labour market. The creation of VQA is expected to provide competence-based objectives to VET curricula.

2.1.2 Key Actors in the Governance of VET System in Turkey
Since the beginning of the EU accession process in 2005, governance of VET has started to undergo a transformation. However, the government’s approach to the EU accession process as an anchor for institutional change has been weakening in the past several years. In this section, we discuss the key actors of policy change with regard to VET and challenges represented by the centralized yet fragmented structure of VET institutions. The two chief state authorities in employment and education
policy-making are the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) and the Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MoLSS).

2.1.2.1 The Ministry of National Education (MoNE)
Under the Basic Law of National Education of 1973, MoNE, which has a centralized structure, is responsible for the design and delivery of all education services in Turkey. VET education including apprenticeship training is under the jurisdiction of the Vocational Education Council which was formed as stipulated by the Law on Vocational Education.

In 2011, an organizational restructuring of the MoNE took place that further consolidated its centralized nature. Accordingly, the General Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education was created and it holds all decision making power concerning VET. This governance structure provides very limited autonomy to local actors and schools. Local educational institutions lack decision making power on the allocation of resources and self-governance.

2.1.2.2 The Ministry of Labour and Social Security (MoLSS)
In the recent years, MoLSS has taken up regional minimum wage, unregistered work, severance pay and flexible work into its agenda related to youth employment. New regulations regarding these issues have been reflected in the National Employment Strategy.

2.1.2.3 ISKUR
Within the MoLSS, the Turkish Employment Agency serves as a portal to mediate between employers and jobseekers. İŞKUR also aims to increase labour market participation and the employability of the active population in Turkey. As part of its Active Labour Market Programs (ALMP), İŞKUR conducts annual labour market analyses in all cities and organizes routine training programs on employment and entrepreneurship.

İŞKUR offers general vocational training courses. The training courses are outsourced to institutions under MoNE (nearly 50%), ¹ or to universities or other private providers. Those who complete the courses are given vocational qualification certificates.

Table 1 below shows the numbers of men and women who received vocational training services throughout the years provided either by İŞKUR or by public or private contractors.

---

¹ Turkey: Evaluating the Impact of ISKUR's Vocational Training Programs, World Bank Report, May 2013, p.3
Table 1: Vocational Trainings, Courses and Trainees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of Courses</strong></td>
<td>6,985</td>
<td>9,631</td>
<td>2,239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Number of Trainees</strong></td>
<td>140,415</td>
<td>206,946</td>
<td>33,282</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Men</strong></td>
<td>68,678</td>
<td>93,451</td>
<td>14,952</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(49%)</td>
<td>(45%)</td>
<td>(45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Women</strong></td>
<td>71,737</td>
<td>113,495</td>
<td>18,330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(51%)</td>
<td>(55%)</td>
<td>(55%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Retrieved from monthly statistics bulletin on 28.02.2013

Source: Statistical Data Report, 24.03.2013 and authors’ calculations.

However, recent studies on İŞKUR programmes reveal low attendance and low completion rates which are interpreted by the interviewees as indicators of low quality of or low expectations from these courses. These studies show that the average impact of these vocational training programs is very modest. Results suggest that there is some potential for vocational training to improve the short-term employment prospects of the unemployed, but that this potential will be best realized, when courses are offered by providers that have both the incentives and ability to respond to market demands. However, overall the results suggest that this large-scale vocational training program struggles to meet a cost-benefit test.

2.1.2.4 Vocational Qualification Authority (MYK)

The Vocational Qualifications Authority (VQA) was set up in 2006 to lay down the guiding principles for competencies in technical and vocational branches and to conduct activities related to inspection, measurement, documentation and certification. VQA is to set up and operate the “National Occupational Competence System” in alignment with the EU Qualification Framework. The institution is supposed to perform this duty in cooperation with MoNE, the CoHE, and employers’ and workers’ organizations. In Turkey there is no unified system defining occupational qualifications, setting training standards specific to respective professions and documenting trainings with diplomas and certificates. This creates some important problems in youth’s entry into the labour market.
2.1.2.5 Regional Development Agencies

Regional Development Agencies (RDAs) pursue programs concerning vocational education in their regions. These agencies not only provide support in career development to students but also seek to diagnose areas of needs and accordingly develop special education programs at schools. In Turkey, the role of public-private partnerships in several fields of education, and especially in vocational education, is likely to increase. Under the Private Educational Institutions Law, the government provides public funds to a small number of private vocational and technical schools in organized industrial zones. There are already some examples of cooperation between industrial firms and public vocational schools. It is estimated that along with the increasing engagement of RDAs in vocational education, more public-private partnerships at the local level could be realized with better coordination and commitment of local stakeholders.

Despite reforms aimed at regionalization, current trends in Turkey point towards the adoption of a state-based model of RDAs. Therefore, the relation between state bodies and RDAs may “lack anchoring within the regional socio-economic structure” (Lagendijk, Kayasu and Yaşar, 2009).

2.1.2.6 The European Commission

Within the framework of the Operational Programme for Developing Human Resources prepared under the leadership of MoLSS, the EU’s Instrument for Pre-Accession (IPA) (whose objective is to prepare candidate countries for the European Social Fund) focuses on priorities consisting of four major axes. These are i) employment, ii) training, iii) lifelong learning and iv) social inclusion. These envisage enhancing the participation of women in the labour force, enhancing youth employment and combating informal employment as three major problem areas in the labour market. Between 2007 and 2011, the EC earmarked approximately 200 million Euros for measures geared to promoting youth employment.

In February 2015, Turkey signed an agreement with the EU Commission for a seven-year, 920 million-Euro “Employment and Social Innovation Program.” The agreement aims to provide a high level of quality employment, guarantee adequate and decent social protection, and combat social exclusion and poverty. The Turkish EU Ministry stated that this fund would serve as a financing instrument to promote modernization of employment and social policies.

2.2 Policy Learning Framework

Despite the potential of labour capacity with a significant proportion of the population below age 15 compared to other OECD countries; quality and equity remain as challenges for youth's further
education and employment. In the field of STW transition, Turkey has various issues to solve, “including improving equity between regions and urban and rural areas; addressing the needs of disadvantaged students; preparing quality teachers and school leaders, improving access to and completion of upper secondary education, VET and tertiary education; strengthening links to the labour market and adequately funding the education system.” Under these conditions, policy learning is a major issue in terms of implementing structural changes.

Since 2004, the EU accession negotiations process has left a big mark on Turkey in terms of policy making and projects. The conditionality for the EU accession process has shaped policy frameworks in diverse fields in Turkey, leading to legislation in line with the EU acquis. However, in the past few years, EU’s impact on Turkey’s political agenda has slowed down, which is also reflected in policy making on employment-related issues. EU-funded projects are still actively operated by state bodies, whereas the EU’s agenda setting role is diminishing. Rather national programs/projects, originally derived from EU projects, have started to be implemented for increasing youth employment with the same objectives.

Sustainability for further improvements regarding VET will be provided with the new national projects such as “Specialized VET Centres for Unemployment (UMEM) (2010-2015) and “Movement of Increasing Opportunities and Improving Technologies FATİH (2010-2013)” as well as new EU-funded projects such as “Operation to Improve Quality of VET (2011-2015)” and “Increasing School Rate of Girls (2013-2015).

The EU is a significant channel of policy influence also because it provides technical and financial support during the accession process. “The Instrument of Pre-accession Process 2007-2013” (IPA) funds are one of the major channels that make the EU a significant facilitator of policy change. Turkey’s 9th Development Plan’s (2007-2013) objectives were aligned with the IPA Programme so that the implementation can be carried out in an environment of collaboration and social dialogue.

The EU IPA 1 Programme focused on reducing regional inequalities between eastern and western provinces of Turkey. In collaboration with the MoLSS, “IPA 2 Sectoral Operational Programme 2014-2020” offers a policy agenda for Turkey whose goal is increasing employment and the quality and access to education for social inclusion. This agenda also corresponds with the Europe 2020 Strategy to raise the employment rate to 75% of the population aged 20-64, to lower the share of early school leavers to under 10% and to give tertiary education to at least 40% of the younger generation and reduce the risk of poverty to less than 20 million people.

In addition to these, Turkey actively follows other EU programs such as the “Employment and Social Reform Programme,” “Community Programme for Employment and Solidarity (PROGRESS),” “FRAME PROJECT,” and “Torino and Bruges Process” while it seeks to set its own youth employment strategy.
The World Bank (WB) and the ILO stand as two major international actors in Turkey that provide loans & technical expertise, issue policy reports and work with the government in order to facilitate STW transition. Due to the extended nature of the areas that the WB operates in Turkey, the organization works in cooperation with diverse institutional/ governmental actors including MoNE, MoLSS and İŞKUR.

WB’s and ILO’s operations' impacts on STW transition in Turkey can be discussed under two subtitles with reference to distinct modes of governance employed by the institutions: projects and policy loans targeting education and employment; and reports and papers published in order to identify the problems and developments characterizing the fields of education and employment.

In 2009, the Protocol of Understanding “Decent Work Country Programme” was signed by the MoLSS and the ILO Regional Directorate for Europe and Central Asia. National priorities of cooperation according to this protocol were combating child labour, strengthening social dialogue, drafting a national action plan for youth employment and ensuring gender equality and promoting women’s employment.

Another project, Growth with Decent Work for All: A Youth Employment Programme in Antalya (2009-2012) in collaboration with İŞKUR and the UN Joint Programme (ILO, FAO, IOM and UNDP) investigated the needs and difficulties that youth and women experience in Antalya during STW in order to improve the work opportunities for youth (aged 15-24). This evidence-based project revealed the need for a more decentralized structure and accordingly, the ILO developed “Clustering Working Plans” with İŞKUR in order to enable local actors from various sectors to strengthen sector-based development. After detecting the occupations available, the UN Joint Programme started to support İŞKUR’s vocational training courses.

Restoring Equitable Growth and Employment Programmatic Development Policy Loan-I & II (2010-2011) was aimed at supporting Turkey's efforts to promote equitable growth and job creation over the medium term. Even though youth in education and/or at the age of employment do not appear as the main targets of the loan, its scope has significant implications for STW transition as improved educational access and employment were among the main fields the loan aims to contribute.

Within the scope of the program, vocational training increased from around 60,000 unemployed people per year to 200,000 per year and small stipends were paid to those who attended courses. Even though by end of the program there was an increase in labour market participation of the trainees, due to the unpredictable economic climate, it is not possible to gauge whether it had a durable impact. Nevertheless, the increase in the number of people attending vocational training programs “resulted in a plan to expand it further to 300,000 people per year, with the aim to increase labour market participation, reduce unemployment and ensure relevant skills for a dynamic economy.”
Secondary Education Project (SEP) (2012-2015) focuses on education for the knowledge economy and education for all. Among the goals of the project, “developing a secondary education curricula that is more closely aligned to student competencies and international standards of learning; providing new career guidance and counselling to the students in secondary education; implementation of vocational training initiatives in 46 targeted vocational schools including training of teachers; providing school development grants for schools in sub-provinces” are significant for STW transition.

According to the WB, the achievement of the program remained moderately unsatisfactory. Reportedly, the program was weak in targeting and identifying the neediest schools, while “participatory processes and local community decision-making turned out to be limited than expected.”

Turkey cooperates with the WB and the ILO in the field of STW transition on a voluntary basis. Involvement in these projects is also driven by domestic needs and desire for international acceptance. While implementing such policies, the national agencies, relying on the assumption that policies that have been successful in one country will be successful in another, hope that implementation of international standards and practices supported by the WB and the ILO will result in facilitation of STW policy transfer in Turkey (Dolowitz & Marsh, p. 14). While some of the projects (i.e. World Bank Restoring Equitable Growth and Employment Programmatic Development Policy Loan-I & II) were successful, other projects’ (i.e. Secondary Education Project) effectiveness is open to discussion.

What Turkey experiences is an incomplete transfer, which is likely to take place when the crucial elements of what made the policy or institutional structure a success in the originating country may not be transferred, and an inappropriate transfer that is likely to occur when insufficient attention is paid to the differences between economic, social, political and ideological contexts in the transferring and borrowing country (Dolowitz & Marsh, p.17).

Overall, for the specific case of Turkey, it is possible to talk about three main trends that lie at the root of likely failures of such policy transfer projects concerning STW transition: (a) decreasing impact of European Union harmonization process, (b) over-centralized structure of the governance of education and the labour market and (c) the dominance of fragmented series of project-based solutions and inability to convert such projects into long-term, sustainable policies.

The over-centralized governmental structure of the education and employment systems in Turkey results in a rather fragmented web of institutional bodies that is decisive for STW transition. In other words, the dominance of MoNE and MoLSS as two main governmental bodies; lack of dialogue between the two and local institutions; inability to include the voice of NGOs to the decision-making and implementation processes results in a two-pronged body with weakly coordinated organs. Both
ministries have overly bureaucratic and vertically structured administrations, where all decisions are taken by the heads of units.

Particularly, MoNE’s over-centralized structure is of significance here. The Vocational Education Council that takes decisions on employment including VET and apprenticeship remains within the body of MoNE. In order to improve the quality of vocational education and secure effective STW transition, Turkey needs to restructure its extremely centralized education governance which leaves no room for self-governance, innovation, and initiatives by local institutions and schools (Ergüder & Üçkardesler, 244) Such a hierarchical, multi-layered structure in turn results in lack of cooperation at the implementation phase since diverse actors that could have had significant impacts on STW transition lack institutional powers necessary to be involved in decision making processes.

Figure 9: Distribution of All Education Decisions by Decision-Making Location Turkey, OECD Average, and EU21 Average

As Figure 9 shows, among the OECD countries Turkey has the most centralized and top-heavy system. In the current structure, more than 60% of education decisions are taken in Ankara by MoNE’s core bureaucracy. The directorates of the MoNE in provinces and districts (which cannot be called truly local institutions) take 20% of all education decisions, and schools are responsible for the remaining 20%. As one can see in Figure 9, the level of autonomy schools exercise in decisions is very low in Turkey. Our interviewees noted that even school-level decisions are taken within a strict framework of regulations set by MoNE.

While local institutions and schools have little say in decision making, the role of actors outside the education system (i.e. municipalities, local & national NGOs, private actors) is even more limited. Nevertheless, there have been some attempts to restructure this organizational scheme and to
secure decentralization in the field of education. Since the 1990s, these attempts appeared as one of the priority areas of public policy reforms. Yet, most of these attempts remained short in achieving decentralization.

A recent attempt to decentralize the governance of education emerged with the MEBGEP Project. The MEBGEP Project was a comprehensive analysis of the MoNE’s administrative structure and the Green Paper suggested a policy reform to decentralize education governance and to increase both participation and accountability. The reform plan was largely informed by the notion of democratic governance and inspired by the EU accession strategy. The Green Paper’s policy proposals have not been translated into practice. Instead, the government, in 2011, chose to restructure MoNE’s central administrative structure. The structure of MoNE’s central administration has been scaled down, the number of personnel was reduced, and several directorates were closed and/or merged with others. (Ergüder & Üçkardeşler)

Strong decision-making powers once held by the Board of Education (Talim Terbiye Kurulu) were curtailed in regards to the organization of instruction. The decree itself, however, did not envisage the decentralization of the whole education system. It simply aimed at creating an efficient central administration. This restructuring of the MONE prioritized quick and non-bureaucratic decision-making by the Minister and the Undersecretary but did not spread decision-making power across MoNE’s central administration, its directorates in provinces, districts, and schools (Ergüder & Üçkardeşler, p.250). Likewise, MoNE’s 2010-2014 Strategic Plan and the recently passed 2014-2018 Development Plan also refer to the goal of decentralization of the education system. Nevertheless, the extent to which education governance reform ideas in policy documents will be put into practice is yet to be seen.

Before decentralization attempts are accomplished, it seems difficult for IGO-led or funded projects to turn into long-term and sustainable policies. Likewise, as long as the overall structures of MoNE and MoLSS remains such centralized, these kind of project initiatives are likely to remain as short-term development programs; since they cannot include diverse social actors into the decision making and implementation processes by simply forcing them to implement projects approved by the central authorities of MoNE and MoLSS. As a result, all these programs and projects discussed above appear as fragmented series of projects, which can only provide temporary solutions. Particularly, the inability to receive feedback from local actors and to conduct impact analysis makes it even harder for such programs to provide sustainable solutions to the problems characterizing STW transition.
2.3 Outputs from Social Learning and Policy Change

This section aims to analyse important policy changes in STW transition and youth employment that may be outlined as: (a) incremental, marginal adjustments; (b) changes in policy instruments; (c) changes that redeploy old institutions to new purposes; and (d) radical changes in the actual goals of policies. While analysing these policy changes by type, the characteristics of policy learning/transfer may be described as the subject of transfer, the degree to which transfer occurred, and the constraints and facilitators of these policy transfers (Dolowitz, 2000, p.21).

The establishment of İSKUR and the Vocational Qualification Authority (VQA) as the main institutions of employment and skill generation is the chief policy change in the last decade in the context of EU harmonization process. Since the 1990s, supranational bodies such as the OECD, the WB and the EU have been increasingly playing active roles in the dissemination of employment and education strategies through projects and programs in Turkey. Until the EU accession process started, policy transfers by IGOs were rather fragmented, diverse and project-basis. Accession negotiations brought fundamental changes to youth employment and training policies through a more coherent agenda, accompanied by the necessary funds, projects, and more importantly institutions. In this scope, the restructuring of İSKUR in 2004, as an example of change of policy instruments, led to the creation of jobs through activation measures such as on-the-job trainings and vocational programs in a more active and systematic way. Separately, the EU and the WB provided funding support to the establishing of occupational standards in Turkey. This process led to enactment of a law for the establishment of an Occupational Standards Institution in 2000, and the VQA in 2006 (ILO, 2010, p.41).

Educational and employment policy transfers are voluntarily carried out by Turkish authorities “as a rational response to the perceived process” of EU harmonization (Dolowitz and Marsh, 2000, p.14). The establishment of both institutions are voluntary processes for following the international and EU standards in employment and education which also affect the motivations of the actors engaged in the process. In this respect, İSKUR’s restructuring presents a transformation that redeploys old institutions to new purposes like ALMPs, whereas VQA is more likely to be considered as a change in policy instruments by founding new institutions for establishing the National Qualification Framework.

Nevertheless, these newly established institutions face certain constraints in terms of their role in the decision-making process of education and employment policies. Even though MoNE and MoLSS have been the primary actors, the collaboration between these ministries and newly established institutions are relatively weak. Our interviews show that the dialogue between public institutions remains weak, despite joint projects and programs. Interestingly, İSKUR and VQA, in their administrative structures, have strong relations with private sector organisations and local partners such as municipalities and regional directorates. Nevertheless, interviewees stated that the lack of
communication with upper bodies such as MoNE weakened the influence of the activities of İŞKUR and VQA, and hindered the spread of new policies. For instance, although the VQA has to a large extent completed its work on developing occupational standards with the involvement of several social partners, MoNE is yet to integrate these qualifications into the VET curriculum. Likewise, based on interviews, İŞKUR has similar difficulties with other public institutions such as the lack of information sharing across bodies. The deepening gap between old and new public institutions creates major problems in the implementation phase, which translates into an obstacle for comprehensive and inclusive agenda for youth employment.

For the dissemination of new systems, the social dialogue with different stakeholders such as civil society and private sector organisations is a prerequisite. As indicated in the interviews, private sector organisations need to be involved in the process of determining qualifications. The committed and well-developed sectoral organizations are able to facilitate the adoption of the NQF and also trigger competition and awareness among other sectors, with the impact of increasing number of qualified and skilled labour in the market. Members of these institutions/organizations are authorized to take part in NQF-related activities (occupational standard development) by signing the protocols of cooperation with the VQA. However, many sectors still do not participate due to lack of vision or information, as well as lack of resources and capacity.
3. Policy Change within and Across Institutions

3.1 Institutional Structure of the Labour Market Affecting Policy/Change and Innovation

Turkey’s labour market represents many features of dual labour markets of middle-income countries. The shift from agriculture to manufacturing and services was combined with an informal urban sector, which employs recent arrivals to the city in low skilled jobs. Female LFP declined as women left active employment in the rural economy. As a result LFP rates were low and unemployment was relatively high (Figure 10). Heavy labour market regulation led to significant segmentation between the formal and informal sectors (World Bank, 2010).

Figure 10: Youth Unemployment and Youth Labour Force Participation in EU and OECD Countries

Turkey has the strictest employment legislation among OECD countries according to the employment protection index created by the OECD. Cross-country evidence suggests that a heavier regulatory burden might induce informality (Loayza et al., 2005). Firms may choose to hire workers informally in order to escape the cost of hiring or firing due to rigid regulations.
The tax rate on labour in Turkey is among the highest in the OECD for low-wage workers and those with families. As the World Bank (2006b) and others have emphasized, this tax burden creates disincentives for employers to hire labour and for these workers to seek employment, especially in the formal sector. Because young people are overrepresented in the low-wage sector, they are particularly affected by the tax wedge. At the same time, their employment is very sensitive to changes in labour costs. Papps (2007) finds that female employment (in addition to youth employment) is very responsive to labour cost changes. International evaluations tend to find that tax reductions (subsidies) can increase employment for youth and can be most effective when combined with some form of training (Kluve 2006; Betcherman et al. 2007).

Turkey's experience and capacity in providing job search assistance to workers is very limited compared to other OECD countries. As mentioned earlier, an important institutional development did occur in 2000 with the establishment of İŞKUR, and, in recent years, İŞKUR's capacity has been enhanced by the European Commission support. However, it appears that Turkey invests relatively little in public employment services and young people represent a small proportion of the limited number of participants in these programs.

In spite of the success of Turkey in job creation, after 2009, Turkey's employment rate remains below that of most of its peers. The employment rate for the working age population (15+) is around 45%, significantly lower than the OECD average of around 55%. The low level of female LFP lies behind Turkey's low employment rates. While male LFP was recorded as 76% in 2012, female LFP is only 30%, less than half of the average of OECD countries.

Turkey has been taking further steps and in order to integrate young people to the labour market and to provide the essential skills for youth. There have been some policy reforms in the different areas of labour market. The key actors in these changes, the role of collective negotiation and the impact of these changes emanating in a context of policy changes need to be assessed in order to understand the institutional structure affecting STW transition. Active labour market policies, minimum wage and employment protection legislations are the major themes.

3.1.1 Active Labour Market Policies

While different modes of employment measures in the EU have influence on shaping İŞKUR's programs, the WB's recommendations about activation measures also pave the way for the development of ALMPs in Turkey. Since 2004, policy reforms have taken place through implementation of different ALMPs at the national level. İŞKUR carries out the following activities: vocational training programs, trainings for entrepreneurship, on-the-job training programs and public
benefit work programs as human capital investment. In addition to training programs, job and occupation counselling aims to provide employment assistance for the unemployed people. Based on interviews, the evaluation of the ALMPs has not been implemented yet, but İŞKUR will soon launch a project for the assessment of these programs. Nevertheless, the interviews point out that ALMPs operate as tools for poverty alleviation and social inclusion, rather than a permanent solution for youth unemployment. They are designed for a short period of time, without any job guarantee, to provide work experience or skills for young unemployed.

Figure 11: The expenditure on ALMPs and Unemployment Benefits

As Figure 11 indicates above, the expansion of the scope of activities included in ALMP has required an increase in the budget allocated to İŞKUR for these programs. This also has a triggering effect in policy innovation in the sense that a larger budget may serve to initiate diversity in the courses targeting different sectors; to establish a stronger link between supply and demand through investing in feasible market analysis and to offer employers incentives for hiring youth and women. Nevertheless, there aren’t any regulations that prioritize the STW transition of disadvantaged groups or youth specifically. An impact analysis of İŞKUR programs in 2013 carried out by the WB shows that there is little variation of the impact of these programs on different age groups, gender and levels of education. The WB impact analysis underlines that the trainings make a small but significant impact on the quality of employment, while there appears to be no significant impact on the likelihood of working, number of hours worked, and the monthly income of the beneficiaries (WB, 2013, p.22).
As the responsible body of ALMPs, İŞKUR’s relations with other stakeholders vary upon the position of different actors. Even though ministries are primary actors on decision-making of employment and education policies, the over-centralized governance structure creates a barrier to a better communication. On the contrary, İŞKUR’s relations with regional offices, municipalities and local stakeholders such as chambers function well, which can be a triggering factor for STW transition. Our interviewees underlined the importance of private sector’s role on shaping ALMPs and İŞKUR’s further strategies.

### 3.1.2 The Wage Setting Institutions and Minimum Wage

Centralized governance on policy-making reveals itself in policies affecting the labour market such as the minimum wage. Even though the Minimum Wage Fixing Board, composed of representatives of five state institutions, five employees’ organizations and five employers’ organizations, is a good example of social dialogue, decisions are made by a majority of the votes. In case of a draw of votes, the MoLSS’s vote determines the majority. Thus, the board’s structure is an important obstacle in the context of social dialogue. Interviews indicate that social dialogue in many policy areas is distorted due to the heavy presence of state representatives, which may prevent the participation of all stakeholders.

On the other hand, the percentage of unionization hit the bottom at a 4.5% of all workers, with 64 unions remaining below the 1% membership threshold required for collective bargaining. Nevertheless, having taken into account the low level of unionization and serious limitations on unionization in Turkey, the role of the Board is still very significant, since the decision affects all employees including young workers.

A policy reform has taken place, mainly in minimum wage and as regards to youth employment, but they have not been used to promote employment among the youth and their impact is not known as yet. An amendment for minimum wage was introduced in April 2014 according to which employees aged between 16 and 18 will be subject to the same minimum wage standards as regular employees. The disadvantage of young labour will be disappearing in terms of earnings through the elimination of youth-specific minimum wage.

### 3.1.3 Employment Protection Legislation and Labour Contracts

The unbalanced relation between Turkey’s employment protection legislation (EPL) and job quality has been one of the main controversial issues which shapes Turkey’s labour market. Turkey’s employment protection rules are still one of the most rigid among OECD countries in terms of temporary employment, employment through work agencies and severance pay. Based on OECD
EPL Indicators (2013), Turkey has 2.47 points out of 6 (most rigid) in terms of protection of permanent workers against individual and collective dismissals. On the other hand, Turkey performs poorly among the OECD countries in three job quality dimensions: earnings quality, labour market security and quality of the working environment (OECD Employment Outlook, 2014, p.114).

The severance payment system in Turkey is claimed by some as one of the main reasons of informality, as well as the rigidity in EPL. Currently, severance payment is based on tenure in the job. Employers’ associations demand a transformation of the system to ease their burden, but legislation on this has been set back due mainly to trade unions’ opposition. Flexible forms of employment introduced through the 2003 Labour Law has created grounds for part-time work, temporary work and over-work for the first time. The implementation of flexible types of employment has so far been relatively limited. Related to these issues, the activities of private employment agencies are strictly regulated.

Even though there have not been any major changes yet, these issues have been outlined in many strategy documents. As indicated in the interviews, the MoLSS and the Ministry of Development would like to promote more flexible modes of employment, and increase the employment rate, especially for women and youth. EU’s stance also impacted the development of policy ideas in this regard. The lack of flexibility was highlighted as one the problems impeding the well-functioning of the labour market by the EU. Nevertheless, trade unions are strictly opposed to flexible employment and the transformation of the severance payment system.

### 3.2 Institutional Structure of VET and Basic Mechanisms behind the Transition

Turkey with its STW mechanisms and the organization of VET is a textbook case for the sub-protective transition regime. Near lack of standard work arrangements and the high rate of unprotected living conditions have led to a dualistic welfare regime where familial social policies and high rate of informality are key features (Walther, 2006). VET has been a high policy priority since 2006. It is predominantly provided by the very centralized MoNE while the involvement of industry is rather limited. STW transitions are characterized by long periods of joblessness and ending up in the informal economy. Labour market segmentation and low rates of schooling contribute to youth unemployment, especially for women. Very limited childcare and elderly care provisions, recent familialist social policies and lack of incentives in the labour market make labour force participation particularly difficult for women.
Reflecting major features of the sub-protective regimes, policy making in Turkey can be characterized by a clash between comprehensive reform initiatives and very centralized and monolithic structure of the institutions to implement these reforms. Recent VET policies (or education policies, in general) aim to increase school enrolment and integrating and standardizing vocational education. Parallel to this, labour market policies focus on job creation, providing incentives for employers, and assistance for entrepreneurship and self-employment. As such, the transition regime in Turkey cannot provide choice or flexibility, and it mostly relies on family.

The vocational and technical education system in Turkey includes two main dimensions: theoretical (school training) and practical (in-company training). Vocational training policies and activities are mostly carried out by the MoNE. Vocational and technical high schools provide training in more than 130 occupations. Apprenticeship training, which is a combination of mainly practical training, takes place in enterprises and vocational education centres. Despite a growth of vocational enrolment at secondary education level, the lack of prestige and lower quality associated with this sector means few students opt voluntarily for VET as an alternative to general education. For many young people vocational high school is a “second” option after they fail to enrol in general education giving high schools. Likewise, higher vocational schools (MYO) are a second option for those who cannot get into 4-year degree programs in universities. Furthermore, once they join the vocational and technical streams, very few students are able to change their program or continue into higher education.

The percentage of NEET between the ages of 15 and 19 is very high in Turkey. 35% of women (ages 15-19) are in the NEET category as opposed to 13% of men. When the age range is widened to working age population (+15), this figure goes up to around 50% for women. The demographic transition of Turkey provides opportunities as well as challenges and weaknesses. High unemployment rates, very low labour force participation of women, difficulties in STW transition of the educated youth, skill deficiencies mostly as a result of the rapid transition from agricultural sector to manufacturing and services and low rates of increase in labour demand pose threats of unemployment and poverty for the youth.

The employment rate for young people (aged 15 to 24) is 30%, well below the rate for adults at 44% (LFS, 2013). An important reason for the low youth employment rates is that a large proportion of young women do not join the workforce. Their labour force participation rate in 2013 was 31%, half of the rate for young men. These gender differences are an important factor in explaining why labour market outcomes for youth in Turkey do not compare well with countries in the EU. Both males and females leave school at an accelerating rate between the ages of 15 to 18 years. However, their transition differs significantly. For young men, the labour market is the major destination, for young women, most school-leavers stay out of the labour force. The unemployment rate of young women is 22.3%, well above the rate for young men at 16.4% (LFS, 2013). Employment rates are very low for
poorly educated youth. Around 27% of those with less than secondary education and only 13.7% of youth with primary education degree were employed in 2013. These employment rates rise significantly with age for all levels of education but they increase most rapidly for the most educated (Figure 12). On the other hand, for the well-educated, early labour market problems are most evident in high unemployment rates – for vocational colleges and tertiary education graduates the rates are 43% and 52%, respectively. However, unemployment among the most educated falls most rapidly by age 30.

**Figure 12: Employment Rates by Educational Attainment (2013)**

[Employment Rates Chart]

**Figure 13: Unemployment Rates by Educational Attainment (2013)**

[Unemployment Rates Chart]
Although public education spending has increased by over one third as a share of GDP since 2006, it is still low by OECD standards and will need to rise further. There is still a major access problem in the education sector. Enrolment rates in secondary (70%) and tertiary (23%) education are low. Enrolment rates are notably lower in eastern provinces. Moreover, despite achievements in recent years, girls are particularly disadvantaged in general and more so in the east.

Beyond access there is a need to further improve the quality of education. The nature of the skills required in jobs in Turkey has changed over the last decade (World Bank, 2013.c). The need for routine cognitive skills is on the rise while jobs that require non-routine manual skills are on the decline. At the same time, Turkish employers experience difficulty in filling jobs due to the unavailability of the right skills. According to the Talent Shortage Survey 58% of Turkish employers experience difficulty filling jobs, compared to 35% at the global average (2013).

Since 2001 to strengthen completion rates and develop skills suitable for the labour market, Turkey has focused on improving vocational education and training. Through various projects and programs, the government has sought to tighten the link between students’ skills and the demands of the job market, and improve teacher quality and curricula. In 2001, the government passed a law establishing the Board of Vocational Education at the central level with representatives from government, employees, employers and other social partners, while a Provincial Board of Vocational Education was also established within each province. In 2002, the Government initiated The Project on Strengthening the Vocational Education and Training System (SVET), a 5-year project with support from the EU, to design new national vocational standards developed in co-operation with the industrial sector and other social partners. The creation of institutional development programs to provide high quality education for school administrators and teachers and a new certification system to ensure quality were also among SVET’s goals. The Modernization of Vocational Education and Training Project (MVET, 2003-2006) included initiatives to improve VET teacher quality, such as the introduction of VET teacher competencies; development of modular curricula based on competencies; seminars on student-centred education and basic skills in selected provinces; and quality assurance based on the European Network System.

The reform has been effective in developing occupational standards and respective training standards with the foundation of VQA. However, the interviews show that MoNE’s unwillingness to involve social partners in the reform process curtailed its reach to other areas of VET. One of the considerable problems of the reform process was the failure to develop competency-based and modular VET curricula and learning outcomes in line with VQA’s vocational qualifications. Although the VQA has to a large extent completed its work on developing occupational standards with the involvement of several social partners MoNE is yet to integrate these qualifications into VET curricula.
One of the most emphasized elements of the reform was the necessity for both qualitative and quantitative labour market analyses. The aim was to provide VET institutions and policy makers with a background document containing well-analysed data on the long-term developments in the labour market in relation to developments in educational output. Special focus was given to the identification of gaps in labour market information in Turkey. This study was expected to guide MoNE in opening new programs in different regions based on their labour market needs. However, several social actors we interviewed argued that MoNE followed a conservative political agenda rather than a need-based approach in establishing new programs. Vocational schools were used as a means to integrate girls into a gendered education. The number of vocational and technical schools has almost doubled in the last five years.

Higher vocational schools (MYOs), which in theory should respond to local and regional needs for education and training, remain the weakest part of the education system. Many MYOs are still poorly equipped. In some cases the MYOs have departments that regions do not need or they lack departments that are vital for the area. Professional organizations are rarely involved in designing or restructuring the curricula and many faculties do not have recent industrial experience.

The improvements take place unevenly and the issue of sustainability is often raised. The pressure on the VET system will also grow as the number of young people entering the education system at secondary and tertiary levels increases, and as a result of the expansion of adult learning. The awareness of social partners of the need to invest in education and training is a very important asset. Social dialogue platforms have been set up and the legal framework for cooperation exists. There are some gaps, however. Our interviews suggest that at secondary VET level these links are developed, although they are mostly the result of individual contacts more than institutional strategies. The challenge is also to develop an attractive work placement and apprenticeship system closely related to the formal education system, and in building up assessment and certification practice.

Our interviews show that the incentive system to support business and education cooperation is at a rudimentary stage of development. Enterprises are involved in education and business cooperation because firstly, with regard to apprenticeship and dual training they have a legal obligation to provide training places, and secondly due to the genuine interest (or a sense of moral obligation) to contribute to the training of a highly qualified labour force. It has to be remembered, however, that this currently mainly concerns public enterprises, bigger private enterprises and more traditional craftsmen and artisan communities. Companies pay apprentices one third of the minimum wage while insurance and social contributions are paid by the state.

Other problems include the lack of proper control over internships and their inadequate length in particular in case of higher vocational education students, and problems in matching VET profiles with regional needs. Furthermore, many of the above-mentioned instruments and approaches that are
used on a pilot and project basis (e.g. skills needs analysis) and their mainstreaming remains a challenge. Finally, the data that could be used to better plan, monitor and assess the education and business cooperation are not readily available.

There is an urgent need to upgrade the infrastructure of vocational technical schools as well as the skills of their instructors. This must be a part of an overhaul of the whole system. The slow moving bureaucracy of the MoNE and its reluctance to relinquish any part of its authority in matters concerning vocational schools is a major hindrance concerning this necessity. MoNE should be more willing for the accreditation of vocational training programs designed and conducted by other labour market actors. Municipalities and unions must have freer hands in vocational training.

In higher education, progress has been made with the introduction of a qualifications framework and learning outcomes approach. The Bologna Process has been the top priority of the CoHE since Turkey’s involvement in the process from 2001. In higher education business and education cooperation has been rather sporadic until now.

As can be seen from the above discussion many education related projects have been conducted in Turkey in the light of necessities emerging in the process of EU accession. However, there are still problems in structuring formal and non-formal training so as to be complementary. There is no sufficient coordination covering all institutions offering vocational training. MoNE is yet to revise existing training programmes by taking into account the recent standards and competencies developed by the VQA. Also, national measurement and assessment, crediting and certification works for graduates are yet to be implemented. There is yet no measurable and transparent quality assurance system whereby graduates can have diplomas and certificates that are recognized internationally.

There are yet ambiguities regarding the roles of different policy institutions. There is need to improve mutual trust in institutions and to make VET more functional. Since there are loopholes in ensuring the coherence in related practices and objectives, the VET system cannot function smoothly. Due to the lack of social dialogue, there are still differences between occupational competencies identified as a result of recent labour market analyses designed to shed light on program development efforts on the one hand and competencies identified by the VQA. These differences make the validity and reliability of training programmes dubious.

### 3.3 Welfare Policies

The sub-protective regime implies a “dualistic” welfare regime, where informal work and family have crucial roles (Pohl & Walther, 2007, p.547). Since the young employees “engage in precarious jobs either in the informal economy, or on fixed-term contracts, which are extremely prevalent,” they are
deprived of social benefits, strongly affiliated with the employment status of youth in Turkey. Thus, Turkish youth primarily rely on family support for surviving “the waiting phase” of long unemployment (p.548).

Nevertheless, recent reforms in healthcare and unemployment, although not specifically addressing youth’s transition, provide safety nets for their survival. In this respect, the introduction of universal health insurance and a single retirement regime present the fundamental change and also in terms of providing a safety net for disadvantaged people, mostly unemployed. In 2008, Social Security Institution was established as an umbrella institution unifying the previously multi-pillar structure of the social security system. Additionally, since healthcare became universal in 2012, access to healthcare services became less strict than before and decreased the destructive effects of unemployment. It became possible to access free or low-cost healthcare, although the standard varies significantly from region to region. On the other hand, the new system continues to exclude all workers in the informal economy, which still represents 45.7% of the economy.

The family still represents the core supporting mechanism for the young employed. The primary responsibility of the family is still regarded as protecting youth from the risk of unemployment and to facilitate their STW transition by providing financial support and assistance. The coverage of unemployment insurance launched in 2002 by İŞKUR is relatively weak. The duration of unemployment benefit is 4 months. The schemes are also contribution-based and the replacement ratios remain very low despite recent reforms in the system. (Ertugrul and Bolukbasi, 2011, p.243)

Another current policy measure for disadvantaged youth is social assistance programs for alleviating poverty and providing social care. In addition to these programs, the conditional cash transfers for poor households have played a role in encouraging the enrolment of girls and boys. These social assistance programs currently carried out by the Ministry of Family and Social Policy (MFSP) make it conditional for mothers to keep their children in school. The expected impacts of the increase in girls’ education level on the overall STW transition process will be observed more clearly in the following decades. For the time being, it may be conjectured that women’s increasing educational attainment is likely to have a positive impact on young women’s employment in the future, since, currently, the labour force participation rate of women with high school and higher education degrees is 49%, significantly higher than that of women with eight or fewer years of schooling, that is around 25% (LFS, 2013).
4. Conclusion

In this final section, we summarize our findings and conclude with policy suggestions. The policy learning framework and several programs discussed in this report predominantly address issues and policies related to education. However, in the absence of data to conduct impact analysis, the effect of policy learning and subsequent policies and programs on changing the existing labour market structures remains to be seen. Existing figures reveal, however, there is weak transition from training to employment unless they are bolstered with additional measures, such as employment guarantees in the case of employment, or, decentralization of certain decision making systems. For all the efforts and the budget spent to be effective and sustainable, there is need for holistic approaches, which take into consideration the multifarious barriers that stand in front of youth employment.

The centralized structure of major policy institutions in Turkey leads to a significant rigidity in policy design and change. Most challenging of all these institutions is education. There is a lot to be gained from a certain scale of decentralization and governance reforms, especially if the education outcomes are kept at the center of the reforms. Reforms to break down barriers between general and vocational secondary education to ensure a foundation of common skills and competencies for all students and to modernize and expand higher education are still missing. Even though centralized, the Turkish governance system shows evidence of lack of communication and coordination between different levels. The dialogue between the MoNE, MoLSS and other organizations such as İŞKUR and the VQA are limited. Policy feedback from local governance structures is met with reluctance by the central policy institutions.

While formulating policies geared towards preventing youth unemployment and increasing employment, the strengths and weaknesses, threats and opportunities of the demographic structure of Turkey and unique features of the labour market should be taken into account. In the long-term, policies designed to eliminate disparities that prevent youth from participating in education and the labour force, to mitigate the negative effects of rural-to urban migration on youth and to keep students in school longer must be implemented. It must be kept in mind that problems are of mainly structural character corresponding to significantly diverse policy design domains which require a more tolerant platform for social dialogue. Local means for integrating youth to employment and transforming the local governance structure should be utilized by developing projects jointly by private and public sectors and nongovernmental organizations.

A serious problem we noted during our research was the lack of available data on various aspects of the youth employment related programs: from the budgets to the target group specifications, from the characteristics of the beneficiaries to the outcomes of the programs. Available data also appears to be severely fragmented. There is a dire need for more structured and continuous data collection to be
able to assess the impact of the money spent. This is also crucial for achieving any sort of sustainability in these programs.

In recent decades, changes to the constitution, labour law and social policy have addressed some aspects of youth unemployment. Yet the current legislation is piecemeal and often has internal contradictions, dampening possibilities for the youth in the labour market. In conclusion, we would like to repeat our suggestions for the configuration and governance of these programs. First, there has to be systematic and reliable data collection on the activities undertaken. In the absence of data to conduct impact analysis, their effect on changing the existing labour market structures remains to be seen. Second, barriers to VET reforms are mostly of the structural kind and need sustained commitment for resolution. This requires programs that are permanent parts of the budget, beyond activities conducted on a project basis. Third, there has to be close follow up of program implementation to check for divergences from original plans. All of these are important for success in STW policies and improving youth's access to higher quality jobs. For all efforts and budget spent to be successful and sustainable, there is need for holistic approaches, which take into consideration the multifarious barriers that stand in youth's labour force participation. While what is currently done produces an impressive array of experience and expertise in the field, this needs to be translated into future models and sustainable policies rather than program applications.
5. Bibliography


ETF, (2013), Mapping of VET educational policies and practices for social inclusion and social cohesion Country Study: Turkey, Contract No. CON/12/ETF/0012.

ETF, 2012c; adapted from Workshop 4 outcomes – ETF multilevel governance conference conclusions, http://www./go.php?q=World+TVET+Database&ct=TUR#par0_6


OECD (2013), Education Policy Outlook Turkey, October 2013


VET Strategy Document, 2014-2018

WB First and Second Restoring Equitable Growth and Employment Development Policy Loans Implementation Completion and Results Report, 2012

WB Secondary Education Project Implementation Completion and Results Report, December 2012


6. Recent titles in this series

Available at: http://www.style-research.eu/publications/working-papers/

WP3 POLICY PERFORMANCE

Key Indicators and Drivers of Youth Unemployment
Hadjivassiliou, Kirchner Sala and Speckesser (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP3.1

The Effectiveness of Policies to combat Youth Unemployment
Gonzalez Carreras, Kirchner Sala and Speckesser (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP3.2

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Qualitative Country Case Studies
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP3.3

Country Reports
Policy Performance and Evaluation: Germany
Eichhorst, Wozny and Cox (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Germany

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Estonia
Eamets and Humal (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Estonia

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Spain
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Spain

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Netherlands
Bekker, van de Meer, Muffels and Wilthagen (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Netherlands

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Poland
Ślezak and Szopa (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Poland
Policy Performance and Evaluation: Sweden
Wadensjö (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Sweden

Policy Performance and Evaluation: Turkey
Gökşen, Yükseker, Kuz and Öker (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance Turkey

Policy Performance and Evaluation: United Kingdom
Hadjivassiliou, Tassinari, Speckesser, Swift and Bertram (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP3.3 Performance UK

WP4 POLICY TRANSFER

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP4.1

Country Reports

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Belgium
Martellucci and Marconi (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/BE

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Denmark
Carstensen and Ibsen (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/Denmark

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Spain
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/ES

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in France
Smith (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/FR

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Greece
Petmesidou and Polyzoidis (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/GR

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in the Netherlands
Bekker, van der Meer and Muffels (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/NL
Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Slovakia
Veselkova (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/SK

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in Turkey
Gökşen, Yükseker, Kuz and Öker (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/TR

Barriers to and triggers of policy innovation and knowledge transfer in the UK
Hadjivassiliou, Tassinari and Swift V
STYLE Working Paper WP4.1/UK

---

WP5 MISMATCH: SKILLS AND EDUCATION

A Comparative Time Series Analysis of Overeducation in Europe: Is there a common policy approach?
McGuinness, Bergin and Whelan (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP5.1

Are student workers crowding out low-skilled youth?
Beblavý, Fabo, Mýtna Kureková, and Žilinčíková (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP5.3

Recruitment Methods & Educational Provision effects on Graduate Over-Education and Over-Skilling
McGuinness, Bergin and Whelan (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP5.4

---

WP6 MISMATCH: MIGRATION

Re-emerging migration patterns: structures and policy lessons.
Akgüç and Beblavý (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP6.3

---

WP7 SELF-EMPLOYMENT AND BUSINESS START UPS

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment: A Policy Literature Overview
Sheehan and McNamara (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP7.1
Country Reports

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in Germany
Ortlieb and Weiss (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 Germany

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in Estonia
Masso and Paes (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 Estonia

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in Spain
González Menéndez and Cueto (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 Spain

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in Ireland
Sheehan and McNamara (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 Ireland

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in Poland
Pocztowski, Buchelt and Pauli (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 Poland

Business Start-Ups and Youth Self-Employment in the UK
Hinks, Fohrbeck and Meager (2015)
STYLE Working Paper WP7.1 UK

Mapping patterns of self-employment
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP7.2

WP8 FAMILY DRIVERS

Work-poor and work-rich families: Influence on youth labour market outcomes
Berloffa, Filandri, Matteazzi, Nazio, O’Reilly, Villa and Zuccotti (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP8.1

Leaving and returning to the parental home during the economic crisis
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP8.3
WP9 ATTITUDES AND VALUES

Aspirations of vulnerable young people in foster care
Hart, Stubbs, Plexousakis, Georgiadi and Kourkoutas (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP9.3

Value system shared by young generations towards work and family
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP9.1

The impact of youth unemployment on social capital
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP9.2

WP 10 FLEXICURITY

Mapping Flexicurity Performance in the Face of the Crisis: Key Indicators and Drivers of Youth Unemployment
Eamets, Beblavý, Bheemaiah, Finn, Humal, Leschke, Maselli and Smith (2015)
STYLE Working Papers, WP10.1

From entry jobs to career employment
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP10.2

Flexicurity and Subjective Insecurity
(forthcoming)
STYLE Working Papers, WP10.3
## 7. Research Partners

| 1. University of Brighton – BBS CROME | United Kingdom |
| 2. Institute for Employment Studies | United Kingdom |
| 3. Institute for the Study of Labor | Germany |
| 4. Centre for European Policy Studies | Belgium |
| 5. TARKI Social Research Institute | Hungary |
| 6. University of Trento | Italy |
| 7. National University of Ireland Galway | Republic of Ireland |
| 8. Democritus University of Thrace | Greece |
| 9. University of Oxford | United Kingdom |
| 10. Economic & Social Research Institute | Republic of Ireland |
| 11. University of Salerno | Italy |
| 12. University of Oviedo | Spain |
| 13. University of Tartu | Estonia |
| 14. Cracow University of Economics | Poland |
| 15. Slovak Governance Institute | Slovakia |
| 16. Metropolitan University Prague | Czech Republic |
| 17. Grenoble School of Management | France |
| 18. University of Tilburg | Netherlands |
| 19. University of Graz | Austria |
| 20. Copenhagen Business School | Denmark |
| 21. Norwegian Social Research | Norway |
| 22. Swedish Institute for Social Research | Sweden |
| 23. Koç University Social Policy Centre | Turkey |
| 24. University of Turin | Italy |
| 25. EurActiv | Belgium |

http://www.style-research.eu/research-organisations
8. Advisory Groups

**Consortium Advisory Network**

Business Europe  
[www.businesseurope.eu](http://www.businesseurope.eu)

ETUI: European Trade Union Institute  
[www.etui.org](http://www.etui.org)

European Youth Forum  
[www.youthforum.org](http://www.youthforum.org)

European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions  
[www.eurofound.europa.eu](http://www.eurofound.europa.eu)

ILO: International Labour Office  
[www.ilo.org](http://www.ilo.org)

OECD: Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development  
[www.oecd.org](http://www.oecd.org)

OSE: Observatoire Sociale Européen  
[www.ose.be](http://www.ose.be)

SOLIDAR: European network of NGOs working to advance social justice in Europe  
[www.solidar.org](http://www.solidar.org)

EurActiv  
[www.euractiv.com](http://www.euractiv.com)

European Commission, DG Employment, Social Affairs & Inclusion  

**Local Advisory Boards**

including employers, unions, policy makers and non-government organisations  