



EuroMed Youth III Programme



STUDIES ON YOUTH POLICIES IN THE MEDITERRANEAN PARTNER COUNTRIES

TURKEY



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The third phase of the **Euromed Youth Programme*** (Euro-Med Youth III), funded by the European Commission (DG EuropeAid) and launched in October 2005, is a regional Programme set up within the framework of the third chapter of the Barcelona Process '*Partnership on Social, Cultural and Human Affairs*'. The overall objectives of the Euro-Med Youth Programme are to promote intercultural dialogue among young people within the Euro-Mediterranean region, motivate active citizenship as well as to contribute to the development of youth policy.

The overall aim of the studies undertaken in **Algeria, Egypt, Israel, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestinian Authority, Syria, Tunisia and Turkey** on Youth Policies, was to be a reference tool which would give all stakeholders in the field of youth, as well as youth project organisers, an overview of the situation of young people and of provisions available for them in the 10 partner countries. The objectives were to identify whether there was a Youth Policy, legislation or any other national strategy addressing the needs of youth and what kind of provision was made through non-formal education and youth work in the relevant partner countries.

Research for the studies was carried out by 7 experts and involved gathering of information, during a 5-month period, on basis of available written materials and resources, and as a result of missions to the studied countries to interview relevant youth authorities, organisations and young people individually or through focus groups.

The outcomes of the studies, each produced in a report format following a common structure for all the ten studies, give an enlightening overview of the definition and situation of youth in the Mediterranean partner countries. The studies focused on young people's rights and entitlements as active citizens, such as opportunities to vote, get elected and contribute to the decision-making process; the challenges faced by youth such as unemployment, immigration, housing, marriage, generational and cultural conflict, young women's place in society; young people's reactions in response to such challenges and description of provision for leisure-time activities and non-formal education through governmental and/or non-governmental youth institutions and organisations.

A reading of all the studies shows that a national youth policy is not yet fully implemented in any of the partner countries. However, each of them has a number of national directives, legislations, policies and/or strategies to address youth issues, usually at cross-sector level, even if youth are not, in some cases, recognised as a priority. The definition of youth varies from country to country, sometimes even within the same country depending on the responsible national authority. Non-formal education has no, or limited, place in most of the studied countries, formal education being the main priority of national authorities. The Euromed Youth Programme is assessed positively and considered to be an essential tool for the promotion of youth work and non-formal education.

Each report, published individually, provides a factual background on youth issues on basis of information collated by the relevant researchers. In addition, one document bringing together the executive summaries from each of the ten studies has been also produced to highlight an overview on the situation of youth within the Mediterranean region.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

.....	6
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COUNTRY REPORT : TURKEY

1. INTRODUCTION	10
1.1 Objectives	10
1.2 Methodology	10
1.3 Challenges of the study	11
2. SITUATION OF YOUTH	12
2.1 Definition of Youth:	12
2.2 General Statistics: Demography, young people's rights and conditions	13
2.3 Youth culture and trends:	16
2.4 Young people's needs and challenges:	17
3. STRUCTURAL, INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGISLATIVE ASPECTS OF YOUTH POLICY	19
3.1 Provisions	19
3.2 Institutional approach to the Youth Sector	21
3.3 Non-formal education and youth work	26
4. THE YOUTH ASSOCIATIONS AND NGOs DEALING WITH YOUTH	28
5. THE EUROMED YOUTH PROGRAMME	34
6. OTHER YOUTH SUPPORT MECHANISMS	36
7. PERCEPTION OF THE ACTORS	38
8. CONCLUSION	41

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Acknowledgements	43
Annex 2: Country Profile	43
Annex 3: List of Abbreviations	45
Annex 4: Glossary	46
Annex 5: Bibliography and resource materials	47
Annex 6: Additional statistical tables/charts	50

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Since the early years of the Turkish Republic, “youth” existed in public debates. The positive and progressive role attributed to young people as pioneers of modernisation and owners of the Republic, started to change gradually in the 1970s. The military coup d'état in 1980 and the 1982 Constitution shaped a new vision of youth not only in changing the approach to youth but also resulting in limitations in the rights of young people and forms of youth activities. In the post-1980 period, public debate tended to represent contemporary youth as “apolitical consumers” and “selfish”. Today both approaches exist simultaneously: while on the one side young people are seen as “good-for-nothing”, on the other side “youth myth” continues to exist.

There are about 12.4 million young people aged 15-24 in Turkey. This is 17.6% of the total population. The statistics show that there is not only one category of young people in Turkey. One-third of young people aged 15-24 are students, one-third is working, and the rest are called “idle” and “invisible or less visible” as stated by the UNDP (2008): women who are neither studying nor working; the physically disabled; young people who stopped seeking jobs; juvenile delinquents; street children and youth, internally displaced, or victims of human trafficking and others.

Average schooling rates in Turkey are 89% at primary, 56% at secondary and 18% at higher education. Illiteracy among young women is 6%. Although school enrolment rates for girls have increased, there are gender gaps of 4% in primary and 8% in secondary education in 2006. Young people make up 16.7% of the total employed in Turkey and youth unemployment is 18.7%. The participation of young women in the labour force is very low. Rate of poverty among young people is 26%. It is very common that single young people live with their parents. In Turkey, rural-urban migration is mainly a young age phenomenon: two thirds of young people live in urban areas. International mobility is very low. The most common pattern of political participation is voting but young people are not interested in politics.

Young people in Turkey spend their largest amount of time together with their families and the parents' influence on the young people's lives is very high. Young people cannot afford to move out of the family home and they need financial help. Many young people do not exercise sports regularly and are not interested in developing their hobbies. The most popular activities are going to cinema and football matches (for young men). Most young people like to go to shopping malls to enjoy themselves. About 42% of young people, especially young men, consume alcohol. The ways of enjoying themselves differ according to their socio-economic status. Young people do not read much: only 36.1% read newspapers daily and 27.4% read books; young women read more than young men. Watching TV is the favourite leisure activity (81%). Young people extensively use internet, at home or at the internet cafes. Nearly 27% of young people claim that they are exposed to crime in their social environment, and 20% have friends who have a gun or who use drugs. Although there are some common trends among young people in Turkey, young women and young

men go through different experiences, which shape their participation in social life differently. Socio-economic and educational status, urban-rural differences and ethnic/religious backgrounds also result in different patterns of behaviour among young people.

The cultural and traditional roles attributed to young women differ from that of young men considerably. Early or forced marriages and ‘honour killings’ are two brutal examples of discrimination against young women in Turkey. Family often intervenes with young people's own decisions and not only pressure but also over-protection of family hinder young people to develop their personal independence, participation and self-confidence. Besides the fact that not all young people receive education, the quality of education do not always adequately meet the needs of young people in Turkey. The increase in the number of private schools at all levels of education influences the disparities and creates visible divisions among young people especially in terms of socialisation patterns. Thus, young people in Turkey need support from their social environment, families and the state in many aspects of their lives such as spaces for their self-development, identity, self-confidence and creativity free from conservative and traditional prejudices and pressures; further, cheaper and better quality education; work and career opportunities.

In the Turkish legislation, there is only one single provision which addresses youth in the Constitution of the Turkish Republic (Article 58) and youth is referred to as people to be protected. A specific law devoted to youth does not exist and the rights and services for youth are included in general laws and regulations. Eight years of primary education is compulsory for all citizens aged 6-14 and it is prohibited to employ children aged below 15. When young people are 18, they are eligible to vote, to establish or become a member of an organisation, to get a driver's licence, or to buy tobacco products. Military service is compulsory for all male citizens starting from the age of 20. Minimum age to be elected is 25. Children who commit crimes before the age of 12 do not have criminal responsibility. Many of these age-related rights are results of recent amendments in the Turkish legislation, often resulting from the liberalisation waves, Turkey's official candidacy status to the EU, development of civil society and increasing civil movements, which have in the end given way to partial modernisation of provisions regarding the status and conditions of youth in Turkey.

The services included in general laws and regulations are carried out by various ministries and departments in different public institutions. Four of them require particular attention: General Directorate for Youth and Sports (GDYS), Ministry of National Education (MoNE), Social Services and Child Protection Agency and the Turkish National Agency for the ‘Youth in Action’ Programme. In addition, local governments (municipalities) and the Southeast Anatolia Project are also important to mention due to the local and regional character of their work for young people. Some of the other public institutions which work on different dimensions of youth issues are Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Internal Affairs. This structural approach towards youth issues and problems is sector-based and fragmented. The absence of a single governmental unit or one single policy document results in the multiplicity of state actors both regarding youth related decision-making and provision/implementation of services. This situation often causes either repetitive provision of the same services or its non-provision. This fragmented structure also causes inconsistencies in approaches to youth.

Although the recent Five-Year Development Plans and the Government Programmes mention the importance of youth for the development of the country, they do not propose any concrete measures or action plans for the elimination of existing youth problems. The shares of the main public institutions in the national budget do not seem sufficient when the number of young people in Turkey is considered.

MoNE is the institution officially in charge of informal education, which covers all the educational activities besides and out of formal education categorised as public education, apprenticeship training and distance (open) education. Non-formal education as a method of learning is relatively new and often used by civil society. In the Turkish context, it is more relevant to the activities and methods of youth work than those of the public authorities, but there are two exceptions: the National Agency and the Department of Youth Services of GDYS. The notion and mobilisation of volunteering is high and voluntary activities through civil organisations increase. However, support to the non-profit youth sector (services and financial resources), provided by public institutions is limited. In spite of a high number of volunteers in youth work, there is not a formally defined profession of youth workers. Apart from the civil society organisations, youth work training is provided only by a limited number of public institutions. Both the civil society organisations and public institutions depend on trainers, who have a vague official status, but are reliable and experienced due to their international and national involvement.

The development of youth work in Turkey owes a great deal to NGOs working on youth issues and youth organisations. As the major users of non-formal education, there are various categories of organisations, which have different legal statuses: associations, foundations, youth clubs, youth centres, student clubs, private companies (non-profit activities) and youth branches of the political parties. The exact number of youth related NGOs at the country level is difficult to indicate but it is stated to be around 60, and there are some 120 organisations whose activities affect young people in different ways. These organisations often share similar aims and they function in almost all fields and activities related to youth. While there are experienced and institutionalised youth organisations, relatively new ones with fewer experiences face problems on the way to get institutionalised. By 2008, there is not yet a National Youth Council (NYC) in Turkey. However, the need for a NYC is increasingly voiced since the 1990s. Three major groupings of NGOs and youth organisations are associated with the attempts to establish a NYC in Turkey, but the existing legal framework and lack of sufficient infrastructure made an establishment impossible.

In Turkey the Euromed Youth Programme created some dynamics in, and impacted on, the development of youth work, NGOs and youth organisations, rather than directly influencing the youth policy. It has contributed to the capacity building of organisations working in the youth field by providing training courses; enhanced communication among the youth work actors through new platforms; considerably increased the opportunities for funding; and facilitated access to international youth work for inexperienced or disadvantaged youth organisations.

The international organisations in Turkey also get involved in issues of youth policies within the framework of cooperation schemes, often by devising and funding campaigns, projects and programmes. Support is sometimes given to the relevant public authority or sometimes directly to the youth organisations. Depending on the themes, different public institutions, private sector actors and NGOs are included as partners. The impact of the involvement of international organisations can be observed at the implementation stage, which directly aims at the elimination of a perceived youth problem, or sometimes the outcomes of various activities are noted as policy recommendations to the Turkish government. The most active international actors in the field of youth in Turkey are the World Bank, United Nations Agencies, Council of Europe, British Council and European Union.

The public authorities admit the absence of a separate tangible youth policy and law directly regulating youth policy in Turkey. Other perceived problems are multiplicity of actors dealing with youth issues; absence of a NYC; low levels of education and mobility of young people and difficulties in disseminating the information. The youth leaders, youth trainers and NGOs, individually or collectively voice their concerns and perceptions about the work of public authorities; about the youth related legislation and policies; about the civil society, youth work and the involvement of international mechanisms in the youth related activities in Turkey. Young people's views on youth policy focus more on their own problems, politics and politicians, and civil society and voluntarism. Their two biggest concerns are the limitations of the education system and lack of work opportunities. While young people do not trust politics, they attribute positive values to civil society and the voluntarism.

Evidence shows that young people in Turkey have considerable needs and challenges on the way to their self-development and participation in society. Different categories of youth require different emphasis in terms of policy. However, the actual policies related to youth do not seem comprehensive and inclusive and the existing institutional approach to youth is rather problem-based and sectorial. Although youth is attributed an important role for the development of the country in many general plans and programmes, there are no youth specific action plans or concrete measures to ensure youth participation. The existing problems of young people and of youth work show that the quality and quantity of the youth services, as well as the financial support, provided by public institutions for youth related issues such as education, employment, housing and participation are not at satisfactory levels. However, youth organisations' interest towards youth policies is on the increase since the early 2000s.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Objectives

This study⁽¹⁾ aims to identify the current evolution of the youth related policies and youth work in Turkey. It intends to examine whether or not there is a specific youth policy in Turkey, and aims to understand the nature of youth related policies and the public structure(s) through which those policies are made and implemented.

An analysis of the situation of young people, their needs, trends, as well as the challenges they face in Turkey provides a basis for the analysis of existing youth related policies and the legislative provisions. The development, characteristics and elements of youth work in Turkey is an important component of analysing youth policies, to the extent that it addresses various needs of young people within society and promotes young people's active involvement in the society. In that sense, the analysis of the role and impact of NGOs and youth organisations becomes important.

One important objective of the study is to understand the place of the Euromed Youth Programme, as well as of the other support mechanisms (international and regional institutions, bilateral cooperation and private sector) in the framework of youth policies and youth work in Turkey. This provides insights for the analysis of external factors on the development of youth policies and youth work in Turkey.

By examining all these components of youth policy, this study intends to answer the following questions: Do the actual youth policies match the needs of young people in Turkey? How are the public structures making and implementing the youth related policies structured? Do youth work and its organisations and international support mechanisms help the elimination of the problems of young people in Turkey?

1.2 Methodology

For data gathering, two main research methods were used: literature survey and face-to-face interviews. The literature survey covered the relevant written materials: legislative resources (constitution, laws and regulations regarding components of a youth policy or youth related legislation); plans and programmes (governmental and public); evaluation and activity reports prepared by public authorities and international organisations; official statistics; academic resources (regarding the situation and problems of young people, NGOs and youth organisations, youth work, youth related legislation); civil society texts (brochures, activity reports etc.); and, surveys conducted with young people and NGOs/youth organisations.

Face-to-face interviews with the relevant youth policy actors in Ankara and Istanbul were conducted in May-June 2008, to collect their perceptions about the actual youth policy and youth work in Turkey. For this study, interviews focused on youth experts and NGO representatives experienced in national and international youth work, and in the development of the youth policies. The perceptions of public authorities were also gathered to a limited extent through the interviews, but also through the materials produced by those authorities. Perceptions of the young people were compiled from a considerable number of comprehensive and scientifically reliable surveys conducted in Turkey with a large number of balanced samples of young people.

1.3 Challenges of the study

Reflecting the fragmented nature of the youth policy and related structures in Turkey, the information on young people and legislation is scattered and not well-documented. Accordingly, the biggest challenge for the study has been to reach the statistics and information regarding youth, produced by the public authorities.

(1) An extended version of this study can be obtained from the author (e-mail: agoksel@metu.edu.tr).

2. SITUATION OF YOUTH

2.1 Definition of Youth

Throughout the history of the modern Turkish Republic, youth clearly existed in the public debates. The definition of youth and the role attributed to young people in the society have varied in line with the political and social developments in the country.

With the foundation of the Turkish Republic in 1923, young people were attributed a positive and progressive value and represented as the pioneers of modernisation and owner of the Republic. The founder of the Republic, Atatürk, identified young people as the main actors to protect and maintain the Republic and directly addressed to them in 1927⁽²⁾. Youth and their education were also enshrined for the cultural development and modernisation required by the newly established Republic. As a sign of trust and faith in youth, 19 May⁽³⁾ was dedicated to young people as the “Youth and Sports Day”⁽⁴⁾ in 1938 and has been celebrated with various activities every year⁽⁵⁾.

The positive vision of Turkish youth started to change gradually in the 1970s, which was characterised by the widespread politicisation of youth (Neyzi, 2001: 419). Throughout the political instability of 1970s and its right-left conflicts all young people were rather seen as “contentious and dangerous” (UNDP, 2008: 14). Public debate had started to interpret youth as the “potential yeast of social disintegration” (Aytürk, 2005: 32) and “rebels and a major threat to the nation” (Neyzi, 2001:412).

The military coup d'état in 1980 and the 1982 Constitution shaped a new vision of youth and created new barriers for their lives. The military regime took measures to keep young people away from politics, and defined a new mission for them: to be loyal to the military regime (Lüküslü, 2008: 290). The 1980 military coup has not only changed the definition of youth but also resulted in limitations in the rights of young people as well as in the forms of youth activities.

The post-1980 period is considered as a “serious rupture” with the modernist construction of youth in Turkey and public opinion has tended to represent contemporary youth as “apolitical consumers” and “selfish”, implying the lack of a sense of collective responsibility (Neyzi, 2001: 423-424). The trend was towards apoliticisation, individualisation and conformism (Lüküslü, 2008: 294).

The attempts to define youth are explained in two categories. On the one hand, youth was as an “ideal”, something that “should be”, which Lüküslü (2008: 287) prefers calling “youth myth”. This myth, which is not only peculiar to Turkey, affirms youth as “active”, “dynamic”, “citizens of future”, and “potential human sources” to develop the society. Specific to Turkey in this approach is seen

(2) At the end of his speech delivered to the Second Congress of the Republican People's Party on 15–20 October 1927,

Atatürk addressed to Turkish Youth with “Atatürk'ün Gençliğe Hitabesi” (Atatürk's Speech to Youth).

(3) 19 May 1919, the day when Atatürk arrived at Samsun, is considered as the starting day of the Turkish War of Independence.

(4) Since 1981, 19th of May has been celebrated as “Commemoration of Atatürk, Youth and Sports Day”.

(5) The Council of Ministers Decision no. 83/6394 adopted on 15 April 1983, since when it has been celebrated as the “Youth Week” (15-21 May) throughout the country.

as the role of youth in the modernity, industrial society and urbanisation in the early periods of the Republic. This was an attempt to create a youth typology that is well-educated in Western style schools and accordingly, that forms the cadre of “enlightened/ intellectual” to “save the country” (Lüküslü, 2008: 288). This is a progressive and political mission attributed to young people. On the other hand, there is an approach which concludes that contemporary young people are far away from fulfilling the “ideal”; that new generations are different than the previous ones; and accordingly, that criticises the youth as a whole (Lüküslü, 2008: 287). This approach often attributes negative characteristics to youth and call them “children of 12 September⁽⁶⁾”, “children of consumerism”, “without carrying any values” and “insensitive”. These two approaches may exist simultaneously: while on the one side young people are seen as “good-for-nothing”, on the other side “youth myth” continues to exist (Lüküslü, 2008: 288).

2.2 General Statistics: Demography, young people's rights and conditions

In 2007, there were about 12.4 million young people aged 15-24 in Turkey. This is 17.6% of the total population. However, it is not possible to talk about one homogenous category of young people in Turkey. Although young people are often thought of being students, single, healthy, dynamic and usually middle-class, the students in fact constitute only one-third of those aged 15-24 (UNDP, 2008: 4); the other one-third works. However, the rest, almost 5 million, are “idle”: they neither work nor go to school. This category of “invisible or less visible” youth includes women who are neither in education nor at work (about 2.2 million); the physically disabled (some 650,000); young people who have given up all hope and stopped seeking jobs (300,000); juvenile delinquents (some 22,000); and street children and youth living on the streets, internally displaced, or victims of human trafficking and others (UNDP, 2008: 4). In addition, when approaches of young people (aged 18-28) to various aspects of life (employment, identity, citizenship, migration etc.) were analysed⁽⁷⁾, it was also confirmed that demographically and socially there was not only one type of youth in Turkey, but many different groups existed (Pultar, 2008: 261).

Regarding education, average schooling rates are 89% at primary⁽⁸⁾, 56% at secondary and 18% at higher education (UNDP, 2008: 28). In Turkey, there are still illiterate young people and illiteracy among young women is 6% (Yentürk, 2007: 15). There are 5.5 million students in 34,000 primary and 3.5 million students in 7,500 secondary schools⁽⁹⁾ (UNDP, 2008: 27). Although school enrolment rates for girls have increased, there are gender gaps of 4% in primary and 8% in secondary education in 2006-2007. This shows that opportunities for girls to get an education are lower than for boys (UNDP, 2008: 15)⁽¹⁰⁾. Only 56% of young people continue to study after primary school; only 18% make it to university (UNDP, 2008: 27-28). In 2006-2007, 2,294,707 students (981,755 women, 1,312,952 men)⁽¹¹⁾ were registered at 68 state universities⁽¹²⁾.

(6) 12th September is used to refer to the military coup d'etat of 12 September 1980.

(7) Milliyet-KONDA Social Structure Survey 2006: Who are we?, KONDA Research and Consultancy, 2006.

(8) The increase of compulsory education from five to eight years in 1997 increased the net enrolment ratio to 89%. These fall below the country level rates especially in Southeastern and Northeastern Anatolian regions (UNDP, 2008: 27). Many joint campaigns are organised to increase this ratio, especially for the young women. “Haydi Kızlar Okula!” (Girls, let's go to school!) Campaign is an example of cooperation between MoNE and UNICEF since 2003.

(9) 4,200 of which are vocational schools.

(10) The data depends on MoNE National Education Statistics for Formal Education 2006-2007, Ankara, 2007.

(11) Ministry of National Education, Number of Students at the State Universities for the Academic year 2006-2007.

(12) Turkish government opened 17 new universities in 2007. However, they did not accept students by 2007-2008.

There are also 25 private universities⁽¹²⁾ which increases this number to almost 2.5 million students. Around 1.6 million students took the university entrance exam (ÖSS) in 2007 (UNDP, 2008: 31). Currently only 560,000 university students benefit from the state loans and 130,000 from scholarships (UNDP, 2008: 32-33)⁽¹⁴⁾.

In 2006, the 15-24 year-olds made up 18.5% (4.6 million) of the total labour force and 16.7% of the total employed in Turkey (UNDP, 2008: 60). Youth unemployment was 18.7% in 2006 (HDR, 2007: 298) and young unemployed was 35% (858,000) of the total number of unemployed (UNDP, 2008: 60). The percentage of the long-term unemployed is higher among young women (25.3%) than young men (16%) (UNDP, 2008: 66). Employment constitutes a serious problem for the educated youth, partly because they participate more in the labour market (UNDP, 2008: 63).

Table 1: According to age groups rates of young people in school and out of school, employed and unemployed, and participation in the labour force (2003)

	Age	In School	Out of School			
		Ratio in School	Ratio out of school	Employed	Unemployed	Out of labour force
			1=2+3+4	2	3	4
Turkey (total)	15-19	46	54	39	9	52
	20-24	16	84	43	12	44
	25-29	4	96	55	8	37
Turkey (men)	15-19	52	48	53	13	34
	20-24	20	80	63	19	18
	25-29	5	95	81	12	8
Turkey (women)	15-19	39	61	27	5	68
	20-24	12	88	28	7	65
	25-29	2	98	28	4	68

Source: OECD (2006) Education at a Glance, tabled in Yentürk and Başlevent, 2008: 363.

Table 1 shows that for the three age groups, the participation of young women in the labour force is very low, which means that high number of young women are economically dependent on their parents or their husbands. Many young women, especially in the rural areas, work as unpaid family workers and do not receive any social security benefits (Yentürk, 2008: 54).

The rate of poverty among young people is 26% (Yentürk, 2007: 35). One reason is unemployment and another is the low amount of wages in informal sector and in less quality jobs (Yentürk, 2008: 60). What intensify youth poverty are the non-existence of social security benefits and the high costs of accessing health care for young people, who work in short-term seasonal jobs or at home, work as cleaning ladies or unpaid family workers in agriculture (Yentürk, 2008: 60).

It is very common for single young people to live with their parents. This is also valid for young people who completed their education and start working, as well as for some married couples. Young people cannot establish their own lives before marriage and the control of family in young people's personal lives is very high (YADA, 2007). The ratio of married young men aged 25-29 living with their parents is 18% in the rural and 8% in the urban areas (Yentürk, 2007: 39). Many young people living with their families have to share their living space with many members of the family. For example, almost 18% of young people live in households with a population of 6-8, and this ratio goes up to 40% in three eastern regions of Turkey (Pultar, 2008: 264). Young people who enter universities often need to move to other cities for their education. Only 44% of young people were accepted to benefit from state supported student housing services (provided by Yurt-Kur)⁽¹⁵⁾ in 2004. By April 2007, 200,942 students were living in 219 student dormitories within an average of 13.5m² per student and with only one computer available for 104 students (Kurtaran, 2007: 67-69). The students, who cannot benefit from the Yurt-Kur services, have to rent rooms at private dormitories or houses at market high prices.

In Turkey, rural-urban migration is mainly a young age phenomenon. Two thirds of young people live in urban areas (7.8 million). This is partly due to young people on their own and young families with children moving into the cities (UNDP, 2008: 89).

Out of the 550 deputies in the Turkish Parliament⁽¹⁶⁾, there are only 19 people aged 30-35 after the 2007 elections (UNDP, 2008: 79). The most common pattern of political participation among young people is voting and 80% the percentage of young people who vote is estimated around (Erdoğan, 1999)⁽¹⁷⁾. However, young people do not seem interested in politics and their political participation is low (Lüküslü, 2008: 290). A survey⁽¹⁸⁾ concluded that only 3.7% of the young people are members of political parties; only 10% talk about politics with their friends; and only 3% are members of any political, social or cultural associations (Lüküslü, 2008: 290). About 59% of young people do not participate in any club or organisation (Eurobarometer, 2003: 15).

Nearly 55% of the young people in Turkey do not know any foreign languages well enough to hold a conversation and only 2% visited another country, mostly for holidays (Eurobarometer, 2003), which indicates the limited availability of international youth mobility in Turkey. Language difficulties (53%) and travel not being affordable (17%) are the most frequent reasons (Eurobarometer, 2003: 30).

Regarding crime, during the period 1999-2003, there was more than 60% increase in the number of young people aged 16-18 and 19-21, who were sentenced and kept in prisons (Yentürk, 2007: 58). The most common crimes by young people aged 15-17 are based on economic reasons (e.g. theft, using and selling drugs); and opposition to bankruptcy and enforcement of law by those aged 18-24 (Yentürk, 2007: 59).

(15) Republic of Turkey, Higher Education Credits and Dormitories Institution (Yurt-Kur).

(16) The average age of the Members of the Parliament is 50.8 (Yentürk, 2008: 72).

(17) For the aforementioned study, which aimed to analyse the reasons of political non-participation of young people, a survey was conducted face-to-face with 1242 young people in 12 provinces of Turkey (Erdoğan, 1999).

(18) "Turkish Youth 98: Silent Mass is under the Magnifying Glass" (Kentel, 1999, quoted in Lüküslü, 2008: 290).

(13) There are a total of 124,527 students at the private universities in the 2006-2007 academic year, according to the Ministry of National Education statistics, available at: <http://yogm.meb.gov.tr/Vakifogrenci.htm>.

(14) The data depends on MoNE National Education Statistics for Formal Education 2006-2007, Ankara, 2007

2.3 Youth culture and trends⁽¹⁹⁾

Post-1980 youth was often viewed as “apolitical consumers” living in a depoliticised environment accompanied by the consumerism (Neyzi, 2001: 412). In the neo-liberal globalisation era of the 1990s, young people’s lives and expectations were highly shaped by the free market ideals and they learned to communicate with each other and the rest of the world through communication technologies, internet and satellite systems (Kurtaran et.al., 2008: 7).

Young people in Turkey spend most of their time together with their families and the parents’ influence on the young people’s lives is very high. Young people cannot afford to move out (72%) and they need financial help (32%) (Eurobarometer⁽²⁰⁾, 2003). Living with the family often results in the family’s control on the young people’s out-of-family lives, especially for young women. The financial problems being solved by parents often create young people’s dependency on their families. Young men appear to be relatively freer than young women. Although the family remains a central node of personal identity and social mobility, increased generational and familial conflict are also observed (Neyzi, 2001: 423). The young generations miss an environment for their autonomous and self-confident development due to cultural traits of families that are carried from earlier generations (UNDP, 2008: 78).

The YADA Survey (2008) gives insights on young people’s participation in social life and leisure time activities. Many young people aged 16-24 do not exercise sports regularly and are not interested in developing their hobbies, which means that they are not engaged in activities to develop their physical and mental capacities. Their participation in social and artistic activities out-of-family is also very low. Young men go out more often than young women. Participation in social life is very limited among young people who are preparing for the university examination. The most popular activities are going to cinema and football matches (especially for young men). Most young people like to go to shopping malls to enjoy themselves. Alcohol consumption by young people is high (42%), especially by young men. The ways of enjoying themselves differ according to socio-economic status of young people.

In Turkey, young people do not read much: only 36.1% read newspapers daily, 27.4% read books; young women read more than young men. Watching TV is the favourite leisure activity (81%) (Eurobarometer, 2003: 10). According to the YADA Survey (2008) young people use extensively the internet, often to socialise in a virtual environment, i.e. “chatting”. Almost half of the young people have internet access at their houses and the second most common place is the internet cafes. The use of internet increases according to the education levels of young people.

Majority of young people (82%) have boy/girl friends, among whom 69% have not experienced sexual intercourse. The ratios increase proportionally with the education status of young people.

About 27% of young people claim that they are exposed to crime in their social environment, and 20% of young people have friends who have a gun or who use drugs. Especially for the age group 16-18, the violence and crime rates are higher (YADA, 2008).

(19) Information in this section depends on the YADA survey (2008), if another source is not mentioned. This survey “the State of Youth in Turkey” was conducted in 2007 by YADA for the UNDP National Human Development Report, which was published in 2008. It is carried among 3322 young individuals aged 16-24 in a sample of 12 provinces, representing the whole country.

(20) This Eurobarometer survey (2003) was conducted with 800 representative samples aged 15 and over in Turkey.

The European Union (EU) is high on the Turkish political agenda, especially since 1999⁽²¹⁾. The most frequent meanings that the Turkish youth attaches to the EU are “better future for the youth” (72%), “way to create jobs” (58%) and “moving freely in the EU” (53%). Their expectations from the EU for the next 10 years are shaped in the same lines: “better quality of life” (69%), “more job opportunities” (57%) and “easier to move within the EU” (55%) (Eurobarometer, 2003: 73 and 78). According to the ‘Turkish Youth Speaks Up’⁽²²⁾ survey, almost 70% young people aged 17-18 think that EU membership is something positive and would be beneficial for Turkey (TSBD, 2005: 129). But more than 50% of young people think that economic reasons would make Turkey’s entry into the EU difficult (TSBD, 2005). Although young people in Turkey seem quite aware, and are in support, of the EU in general, they have very limited in-depth knowledge about it (TSBD, 2005: 178 and 193).

As evidence shows, there are some common trends among young people in Turkey. However, young women and young men go through different experiences, which shape their identities and patterns of participation in social life differently. Other reasons for different patterns of behaviour among young people are socio-economic status, educational status, urban-rural differences and ethnic/religious backgrounds.

2.4 Young people’s needs and challenges

Although the “youth myth” of the Republic was egalitarian towards young women and men in Turkey, the cultural and traditional role attributed to young women differs from that of young men considerably. Some socially conservative restrictive attitudes partly associated with some traditional characteristics especially hinder young women (UNDP, 2008: 22) and results in exclusion of women from equal participation in public and private life (UNDP, 2008: 44). The traditional preferences for men and boys over women and girls are visible in every area of life. Early or forced marriage and ‘honour killing’ are two brutal examples of discrimination against young women. In 2002-2007, almost 1,100 women were killed in the name of honour and there are many others which are not reported to police but instead shown as suicide etc. (Şirin, 2007).

Family in Turkey is a culturally valuable entity and provides support for a young person throughout life. However, it is also a factor that limits the freedom of young people (YADA, 2008) as families often intervene with young people’s own decisions. Not only pressure but also over-protection of family hinders young people to develop their personal independence, participation and self-confidence. The widespread hierarchic relations among family members are likely to cause issues like sexuality to be left in the dark (UNDP, 2008: 7). As homes (family) and schools cannot ensure private spaces for young people, they are negatively affected in their personal and psychological self-development.

Besides the fact that not all young people receive education, the quality of education is a challenge for all young people in Turkey. Regular schools and teaching methods do not always adequately meet the needs of young people, especially those of the disadvantaged (UNDP, 2008: 5).

(21) Turkey has been recognised as a candidate country to the EU at the EU Helsinki Council in December 1999.

(22) The “Turkish Youth Speaks Up” survey was conducted with 4545 third year high school students (average age of 17-18) in a total of 60 high schools of five different types: Regular high schools, Anatolian High Schools, Private Schools, Occupational High Schools, Imam Hatip Schools (religious schools) in 12 cities in Turkey.

An increasing number of private schools and courses means that only children or young people from well-off families can benefit from private education. This increases the disparities among young people both in terms of quality of education received, and socialisation patterns and trends that are attached to different types of schools and creates visible rifts and social stratification among young people. Another challenge regarding education is the abundance of exams to access relatively better quality of education. Starting from the primary school, young people feel the psychological pressure of preparing for and passing exams. This is like a chain effect: the ones who get into better high schools supposedly get better education and have higher chances to go to better universities and so on, and inequalities increase at every step (UNDP, 2008: 36). Young people may spend years to prepare for the centralised university entrance exam (ÖSS) under exam pressure, rather than enjoying their lives. Every year, from among one million candidates only a limited number of young people can be placed in a university. Even when they pass the exam, economic and social conditions may hinder young people's access to or ability to sustain the living costs of university education (UNDP, 2008: 6). The inequality for young women also persists since girls often drop out or are withdrawn from school by their families for reasons such as getting married and taking on the traditional role of a wife and mother (UNDP, 2008: 15 and 32).

Although the number of public and private universities increases everyday in Turkey, there exist big divisions among universities in terms of quality. Moreover, having an university diploma does not guarantee a good quality job in the labour markets as young people are also required to develop further skills such as knowing a foreign language or computer skills to get better chances to be employed. High rates of unemployment and unfavourable working conditions as well as insufficiency of social security benefits in the private sector are among other challenges faced by young people. Those who prefer the public sector, for example, for "job security" also face a challenge, the Public Service Personnel Selection Exam (KPSS)⁽²³⁾. At the end, unemployment and tiredness of taking exams drive many young people to desperation (UNDP, 2008: 59).

After the 1980 military coup, for a long time political participation of young people had been limited to voting. Their political activities were controlled by various means such as disciplinary regulations at the universities and family measures trying to keep children away from politics (Yentürk, 2008: 74). These resulted in a sharp decrease for young people to politically or socially get organised. While by the 2000s many young people in Turkey are getting involved in NGO work, such activities can still be met with suspicions (UNDP, 2008: 14) both by the central or local authorities and the families.

All these challenges also point out the needs of young people in Turkey: support from their social environment, families and the state in many aspects of their lives, such as personal spaces for their self-development, identity, self-confidence and creativity free from conservative and traditional prejudices and pressures; further, cheaper and better quality education; work and career opportunities, etc.

3. STRUCTURAL, INSTITUTIONAL AND LEGISLATIVE ASPECTS OF YOUTH POLICY

3.1 Provisions

In the Turkish legislation, there is only one single provision which addresses youth in the Constitution of the Turkish Republic. Under the section IX entitled "Youth and Sports" and section A "Protection of the Youth", the Article 58 states that: "The state shall take measures to ensure the training and development of the youth into whose keeping our state, independence, and our Republic are entrusted, in the light of contemporary science, in line with the principles and reforms of Atatürk, and in opposition to ideas aiming at the destruction of the indivisible integrity of the state with its territory and nation. The state shall take necessary measures to protect the youth from alcohol and drug addiction, crime, gambling, and similar vices, and ignorance."

A specific law devoted to youth does not exist in the Turkish legislation. The rights and obligations of, and services for, youth are included in general laws and regulations, with different emphasis on the definition of youth (UNDP, 2008: 18). In addition, many of those laws and regulations take their basis from different articles of the Constitution. For example, the right of learning and education is stated in the Article 42 of the Constitution.

Particularly important is that Turkey has been a party to many international agreements and conventions on the rights of children and youth. To the extent that those conventions become a part of the national legislation and as Turkey has not put reservations, Turkey is also bound to comply with their provisions. For example, Turkey adopted the Children Rights Convention in 1994 and considered description of a child as a "person before the age of 18". In 2007, Turkey agreed in principle to implement the International Labour Organisation's (ILO) Decent Work Country programme in which youth employment is an important component⁽²⁴⁾.

The services included in general laws and regulations are carried out by various ministries and departments in various public institutions. Besides the general laws, a number of age related regulations and rights can be found in the Turkish legislation.

The duration of compulsory education is eight years⁽²⁵⁾. Primary education is compulsory for all citizens aged 6-14 and it is free of charge in state schools. Military service is compulsory for all male citizens of the Turkish Republic⁽²⁶⁾. The service period starts when the young men are 20 years old; a serious health problem is an eligible excuse to be exempted. Young men who study, or have acceptable reasons, can postpone the service for periods indicated in law. There are four main types of military service: Long-term (15 months); Short-term (6 months, for university graduates only); Reserve officers (12 months, university graduates only, with salary); Service with foreign currency⁽²⁷⁾ (21 days, for Turkish citizens living or working abroad).

(24) Turkey is expected to prepare a National Action Plan on youth employment within the Youth Employment Network framework, which is not still in place (UNDP, 2008: 93; Yentürk, 2008: 47) by August 2008.

(25) Article 22, Basic Law of National Education No. 1739, adopted and published in the Official Journal in 1973. With an amendment in 1997, the duration of compulsory education is increased to eight from five years.

(26) The conditions of military service are regulated by the Law on Military Service No.1111 adopted in 1927.

(27) Amount of the payment is 5.112 or 7.668 Euro according to the age.

(23) In 2007, 1.5 young people applied to this exam and many of them cannot achieve sufficient scores to be placed in a public office (UNDP, 2008: 59).

Both women and men can marry legally (without parental consent) at the age of 17⁽²⁸⁾. The age of voting is 18 years⁽²⁹⁾. In 2006, the age to stand for elections (as a Member of Parliament or governor) was decreased to 25 from 30⁽³⁰⁾. The age of being a member of a political party was decreased to 18; the ban to establish youth and women's branches of the political parties was removed; and the restrictions on the freedom of setting up associations, trade unions and civil society organisations were abolished in 1995⁽³¹⁾. With regards to establishing associations, individuals aged 15, upon written permission from their parents, can set up, or be affiliated to, "a child association"⁽³²⁾. Children aged 12 also have the same right, but they can not take part in the administrative and supervisory councils of those associations. All Turkish citizens above 18 can establish or become a member of an association and its administrative bodies.

It is prohibited to employ children aged below 15⁽³³⁾. Under certain conditions, children aged 14 can be employed at "light jobs"⁽³⁴⁾. A child worker is a person who is 14 years old and has completed his/her primary education; and a young worker is a person who is aged 15-18. The children who completed their primary education can work maximum seven hours and the ones above 15 maximum eight hours per day. A child or young worker cannot be employed in underground and underwater work, night shifts, heavy and dangerous works etc. There is no direct regulation referring to young people's health care and social insurance for health is family oriented (Atalay, 2004: 72). Young women, who are neither married nor working (without any age restrictions), may benefit from their parents' social security schemes for health care services.

In Turkey, tobacco products cannot be sold to young people below the age of 18. Those below 18 cannot be employed in enterprises or for marketing and selling of tobacco products. The age to legally get a driving licence is 18 years (for automobiles and minibuses)⁽³⁶⁾.

In Turkey, children who commit crimes before the age 12 do not have criminal responsibility⁽³⁷⁾. They cannot be prosecuted, but specific security measures can be applied. If it is proved that the young person aged 12-14 has the capacity to perceive the committed crime and to direct his/her acts accordingly, he/she can be sentenced to prison, not more than 6 years for several crimes. For the ones aged 15-17 the duration of imprisonment increases but it cannot be more than 8 years for several crimes⁽³⁸⁾. A child court is supposed to be established in all the provinces⁽³⁹⁾. These courts deal with the crimes committed by children and young people below the age of 18⁽⁴⁰⁾. Children aged 12-15 are sent to a child house of correction or child prisons.

(28) According to the Article 124 of the Civil Law No. 4721, adapted in 2001. Under extraordinary circumstances, the judge may allow women and men to get married at the age of 16.

(29) It was 21 in the 1982 Constitution, 19 for 1987-1995 and was decreased to 18 in 1995 with an amendment.

(30) With the amendment of the Article 76 of the Constitution in 2006.

(31) With the Constitutional amendment of 1995.

(32) The Law of Associations No. 5253, adopted in 2004

(33) Labour Law No. 4857 adopted in 2003, Article 71.

(34) The Ministerial Regulation on the Procedures and Basis of Employment of Child and Young Workers, published by the Ministry of Labour and Social Security and published in the Official Journal No. 25425 on 6 April 2004.

(35) Article 3 of the Law on the Control and Prevention of Damages caused by Tobacco Products No. 4207, dated 07 November 1996, also amended in 2008.

(36) This age is 17 for driving motorcycles and tractors, and for disabled and sick people who will drive specially designed motorcycles and automobiles. It is 22 for driving trucks and buses/coaches. Article 41 of Highways Traffic Law No. 2918. Adopted and published in 1981 and age related regulations were amended in 1983, 1996 and 2000.

(37) Article 31 of the Turkish Penal Law No. 5237, adopted in 2004.

(38) For heavy crimes, those aged 12-14 can be sentenced to prison longest from 9 to 12 years; and those aged 15-17 from 14 to 20 years.

(39) Establishment, Duties and Judgement Procedures of the Child Courts, Law No. 2253 dated 1979.

(40) This is increased to 18 from 15 with an amendment in 2003.

It is important to state that many actual age-related rights are the results of recent amendments in the Turkish legislation, especially after the 1990s. Many restrictive articles of the 1982 Constitution, especially those on organisation and participation of youth in political and social life, and various basic laws were amended, and sometimes replaced by new laws (although none of them exclusively deals with youth). These changes are often due to the liberalisation waves in 1990s, Turkey's official candidacy status to the EU, development of civil society and increasing civil movements (lobbying, campaigns etc.), which have in the end given way to partial modernisation of provisions regarding the status and conditions of youth in Turkey.

3.2 Institutional approach to the Youth Sector

Definition of youth as a concept is not easy to find legally in Turkey as a specific law devoted to youth does not exist. A common definition of "youth" is not observed. Some of the laws cover the age group of 15-18 (such as Penal Law and Labour Law), while some of 18-24 or of 15-24. The age when young people can claim the same rights as adults seem to be 18⁽⁴¹⁾.

Looking at the Constitution (Article 58) and basic laws and regulations, it is possible to argue that an approach to youth exists: "youth is a population to be protected (from bad habits such as alcohol and drugs)" and "problems regarding the leisure time activities of youth should be regulated" (Acar, 2008: 7). Reflecting the restrictive trend in the aftermath of the 1980s, this approach is a negative one based on the perceived need to protect young people against the dangers that young people may easily be diverted into (Acar, 2008: 8). This approach rather refers to the "rights of the state" in order to ensure its sustainability by intervening in the possible negativities that could be caused by young people than "rights of the young people" (Kurtaran, 2008: 133). While youth is visualised in a "passive" position, the state is "active" to protect young people (Kurtaran, 2008: 133) rather than to support them (Acar, 2008: 8). Youth used to be "object" rather than "subject" of legal provisions (Neyzi, 2001: 412).

Although there are many different *public institutions and authorities* dealing with youth in Turkey, four of them are officially recognised during the EU accession negotiation process: General Directorate for Youth and Sports (GDYS), Ministry of National Education (MoNE), Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK) and Turkish National Agency for the Youth in Action Programme (UNDP, 2008: 114). In addition, local governments (municipalities) and the Southeast Anatolia Project Regional Development Agency (GAP/RDA) require attention due to the local and regional character of their work for young people. Some other public institutions which work on different dimensions of youth issues are the Ministry of Labour and Social Security, Ministry of Health, Ministry of Justice, Ministry of Internal Affairs⁽⁴²⁾.

The General Directorate for Youth and Sports (GDYS) is the only and most active public institution working in the youth field, except education. It functions under the Prime Ministry and has a directorate in each of the 81 provinces. It is composed of two main fields of activity - youth and sports - and a big share of its budget and human resources is allocated to sports.

(41) In the Five-year Development Plans the youth age groups differs: in the 4th and 5th Plans (1979-1983 and 1985-1989 respectively), the youth is taken as ages 12-24; in the 6th (1990-1994) and 7th (1996-2000) it is 15-24; while it is 19-24 in the 8th (2001-2005).

(42) A list of issues of youth policy, relevant legislation and public institutions in charge of making and implementing legislation can be found in Annex 9.

The unit directly responsible for youth issues in GDYS is the Department of Youth Services (DYS)⁽⁴³⁾, where activities are carried out with the aim of providing youth the opportunity to enrich their free time with social and cultural activities. The vision of DYS is contributing to the social and cultural development of youth and their empowerment; ensuring active participation of youth in all areas of the society; enhancing youth with skills to become productive, questioning and practical; taking measures to protect the youth from bad habits; cooperating with relevant public and private institutions and the civil society organisations for youth; ensuring the integration of the youth with the youth in the world; developing the concept of youth work and its dissemination; and contributing to the policy formulation for youth. The DYS's mission is to establish and adapt modern and technologically advanced physical structures for the youth; create platforms for youth to share knowledge and skills and to live, learn and share together with people from different cultures; organise national and international activities for learning and developing history, culture and social life; organise training for youth to express themselves, for their integration to social life and for creating new employment opportunities; provide support to scientific works carried out in the field of youth.

There are six major fields of activities on which DYS actively works. It opens, operates and prepares regulations for "Youth Centres" for mainly young people aged 12-24. These are attached to the Provincial Directorates for Youth and Sports. The Directorate organises "Youth Camps" for young people aged 13-24 during summer holidays (sea and nature camps). Throughout the year DYS realises "Cultural Activities" such as Turkish traditional and folkloric music and dance festivals and competitions, and youth feasts in order to assist young people to grasp their culture and keep it alive, develop their competencies and products in the field of culture. In addition, it organises the Youth Week (15-21 May) with various activities such as symposiums about youth issues, theatre, folk dances and concerts, exhibitions for the works produced by young people. The DYS and its Provincial Directorates register, coordinate, supervise, financially support and monitor "Youth Clubs" and provide "Guidance and Counselling" on issues such as drug addiction, first aid etc. in cooperation with other relevant institutions, universities and NGOs. Finally, the DYS carries out "International Relations" on issues relating to youth, except for the EU Youth Programme. It concludes and puts in effect international cooperation in the youth field and realises activities within these frameworks. It also informs and works to ensure young people's and youth organisations' participation in youth related international activities and events such as seminars and training courses. It represents Turkey in the Council of Europe's European Steering Committee on Youth (CDEJ).

The Ministry of National Education (MoNE)⁽⁴⁴⁾ is the institution responsible for formal and non-formal education, except tertiary education. MoNE has the task of implementing a contemporary style of education for Turkish citizens by opening primary and secondary schools and other institutes within the education policies. It also regulates the working conditions for teachers and administrators and draws up the respective rules, regulations and programmes. In addition to provision of basic education and curricula development, MoNE provides accommodation and scholarship opportunities for secondary school students. The General Directorate of Higher Education Credit and Dormitories Institution (Yurt-Kur), functioning under MoNE, provides accommodation services in dormitories and monthly student loans and credits for university students, who can prove that they are in a state of economical need.

Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK), under the Prime Ministry, is the main agency to provide social protection and services for women, the disabled and elderly, but also for children and young people under 18, who are economically, socially, psychologically and physiologically deprived. For children and young people, SHÇEK carries out relations with protective families; offers child adoption services; provides aids; operates nurseries, dormitories, children houses, and special care and rehabilitation centres for the disabled and those living and working in the streets. In 2007, 10,041 children aged 0-12 in 103 care and protection houses and 10,554 children aged 13-18 in 113 rearing dormitories were served (SHÇEK, 2008: 42).

In January 2003, the Directorate of EU Education and Youth Programmes Centre, also known as the National Agency (NA), was established within the State Planning Organisation (SPO) and it started managing three EU programmes⁽⁴⁵⁾. Turkey started to fully benefit from the EU Education and Youth Programmes in 2004 within the framework of EU accession process. The NA has financial and administrative autonomy for the introduction of EU's Lifelong Learning and Youth in Action Programmes, their coordination and implementation in Turkey. It also receives the projects submitted within those programmes, evaluates, selects and finances the successful projects. It also cooperates with public authorities, public and private education institutions, private sector, NGOs, local governments, profession organisations and youth organisations in Turkey. In addition, the NA organises information meetings and various training courses for youth organisations.

Local governments play a role in the implementation of policies regarding youth and enhancing youth participation. Local governments are required to establish "City Councils"⁽⁴⁶⁾, to cooperate with the civic initiatives and to consider the proposals of the city councils in the municipality councils (Sütlü, 2007: 136). The Regulation on the City Councils⁽⁴⁷⁾ guarantees the establishment of Youth Councils and Women Councils as working groups and supports the development of local youth work. After 2005, municipalities have started to set up youth councils, with varying degrees of importance attached to those structures. In addition, other activities and opportunities for young people depend on the initiative of different municipalities. They open youth centres; provide counselling services; initiate youth camps, trips, sports tournaments; and organise training seminars and international youth camps (Certel, 2007: 22).

The Southeastern Anatolia Project (GAP)⁽⁴⁸⁾, Regional Development Administration (GAP/RDA) provides youth services and activities, especially in the field of employment, for social and economic development of the GAP region. The GAP Action Plan (2008-2012) focuses on youth employment and necessity of actions for cultural, artistic and sportive development of young people in the region, as well as their economic and social participation in the society. In the framework of the GAP Social Development Project for Youth, "Youth and Culture Centres" have been established and various capacity building activities, employment programmes and social, cultural and social sensitivity programmes have been realised (Baykuş, 2008: 55). Despite the limited scope of the project, the peculiarity of GAP's focus on youth in comparison to other public authorities has been its cooperation with national or local NGOs and private sector⁽⁵⁰⁾ for the implementation of its projects.

(45) The Law No. 4968 amended the structure of SPO in August 2003.

(46) Article 76 of the Municipality Law No. 5393, adopted in 2005.

(47) Issued by Ministry of Interior on 8 October 2006 and published in the Official Journal No. 26313.

(48) GAP Regional Development Administration functions under the Prime Ministry.

(49) GAP region covers 9 provinces: Kilis, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Adıyaman, Diyarbakır, Mardin, Batman, Siirt, Şırnak.

(50) For example see www.gap.gov.tr/Turkish/Pepsi/pepsi.html.

(43) Vision and mission of GDYS from www.genclikhizmetleri.gov.tr/index.php/genclik-hizmetleri-dairesi.

(44) MoNE is bound with the Basic Law of National Education No. 1739.

Youth policies in Turkey are not covered by a single policy document. Similarly, the provisions and services related to the welfare of youth are regulated by various state institutions. This *fragmented structure* refers to a sector-based approach to youth related issues and problems. It is possible to list policy fields such as employment, education, justice, health, social care and protection, leisure time, military service, housing and family among the issues which fall under the authority or field of action of different ministries, departments or institutions. The only institution directly related and responsible for youth is the General Directorate for Youth and Sports (GDYS). The absence of a single entity first results in the multiplicity of state actors in relation to youth related decision-making and second leads to the provision of services by different institutions. This situation may cause either repetitive provision of the same service or even worse its non-provision (Certel, 2007: 7). Such a fragmented structural approach to youth also causes inconsistencies in approaching youth. Sectoral regulations (e.g. in education) do not guarantee or reinforce the conditions and opportunities of young people in regards to other sectors (e.g. in employment) and hence do not enhance the living standards of young people in a holistic way.

Objectives and national priorities regarding youth can be identified from the Five-Year Development Plans, the five-year roadmaps for development, and Government Programmes, which reflect the approach of the party in power towards young people, and the intention and measures proposed to overcome any stated problem regarding youth. In general, the way in which youth has been mentioned in the Five-year Development Plans displays differences. Although the Plans mention the importance of youth for the development of the country, they do not propose any concrete measures or action plans for the existing problems of youth in Turkey (Acar, 2008: 6). Rather issues such as providing young people leisure activities and ensuring their participation in sport events have been emphasised (Acar, 2008: 6). In the Plans, one cannot find a comprehensive approach to youth, and youth issues are mentioned in various sector reports such as education, health and employment (Acar, 2008: 6). In addition, usually the targets designated in one Plan do not seem to be realised in the following Plan's period (Acar, 2008: 6).

The 9th Development Plan (2007-2013) states some of the problems of young people and proposes measures to solve them (quoted in UNDP, 2008: 19):

- Social affinity of the youth, sensitivity and self confidence will be developed in a manner to foster their confidence in the future.
- Equal opportunities will be provided for the women, the young, and the long-term unemployed, the disabled and former convicts, who encounter difficulties in the labour market.
- Programmes will be developed to provide the young with experience in the labour market.
- Measures will be taken to ensure better communication of the young people with their families and the society, to develop their self-confidence, to increase their sense of belonging to the society and sensitivity towards the society they live in, and to ensure their participation in the decision-making processes.

The Government Programmes provide comprehensive definition or approach to youth. In these Programmes, it has frequently been emphasised that “youth is the future of the country” as a slogan (Acar, 2008: 7). However, no measures or targets to achieve this end have been taken. In the Government Programmes (55th-59th) leisure activities for young people, enhancing equal educational opportunities and the need to prevent young people from drug addiction have often been mentioned (Acar, 2008: 7).

In the 60th Government's Programme⁽⁵¹⁾ (29 August 2007 – present⁽⁵²⁾) youth, qualified as being entrepreneurial, self-confident and having national and moral values, is presented as the main asset of the country. The Programme states ensuring the development of young people as individuals who protect basic values and protecting them from bad habits as a priority within all government policies. In addition, the Programme aims to support young people as important actors to increase the competitiveness of the country by increasing the quality of the education and eliminating the fears of young people about their future. This includes empowerment of young people as democratic and responsible youngsters who internalise pluralist universal values and appreciate differences as richness. Sports also occupy a place as a tool to prevent young people from bad habits. The Programme confirms the intention of the government to establish sports facilities, as well as “Youth Centres”; to increase the number of youth camps; to accelerate youth exchanges with foreign countries and to support young people in the process of preparing for the Olympics.

The shares of the main public institutions in the national *budget* reflect the extent of financial resources allocated for youth in Turkey. The share of the GDYS from the Government's 2006 consolidated budget is only 0.2% (approximately 247 million USD) (UNDP, 2008: 20). Sports Federations are allocated 28.38% of the GDYS budget, while the share is only 1% for the Youth Services. This means that Youth Services tries to enable 12 million young individuals to spend quality leisure time with a budget of only US\$ 3.85 million (UNDP, 2008: 20), which corresponds to less than 50 cents per young people per year. In 2004-2007, GDYS distributed an approximate average of 200,000 Euro per year to more than 100 youth clubs, but there were also geographical and activity-based imbalances among the youth clubs which benefited from this support (Kurtaran, 2008: 142-144). GDYS sometimes increases its resources with the financial support provided by cooperation schemes with the international organisations such as the World Bank funds.

The share of MoNE in the central budget in 2006 was 9.5%, increasing to 10.4% in 2007. The monthly scholarship provided by MoNE was raised from 10 USD in 2002 to 43 per student in 2007⁽⁵³⁾ (UNDP, 2008: 27). However, the share of those supports in 2002 was only 0.02%, which reflects the insufficiency of financial support provided by the state for pre-university education (Yentürk, 2008: 61-62). The share of higher education institutions and the Council of Higher Education (YÖK) is 3.21% of the consolidated budget, amounting to 5 billion USD in 2007 (UNDP, 2008: 32). Yurt-Kur provides 115 USD worth of loans and the same amount of scholarships for university students in need of support (UNDP, 2008: 32). However the percentage of students who benefited from those scholarships is only around 40% (Yentürk, 2008: 61-62).

(51) 60th Government Programme, presented at the Parliament on 31 August 2007 by R. Tayyip Erdoğan.

(52) By the time of the writing of this report, August 2008.

(53) Based on the data from MoNE, National Education Statistics for Formal Education 2006-2007, Ankara, 2007.

In addition to *programmes and measures* provided by the major public authorities dealing with youth, universities provide support for young people, but only limited to their students mostly aged 18-24. They are responsible to take necessary measures for the mental and physical well-being of students; to provide their social needs; to open reading rooms, health centres, medico-social centres, student canteens and restaurants; to provide opportunities for cultural and sportive development of young people⁽⁵⁴⁾. The universities also establish centres for guidance, career services and psychological counselling (Atalay, 2004: 72). Universities cooperate with NGOs and international organisations such as the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) in several projects related to youth (Certel, 2007: 18).

3.3 Non-formal education and youth work

In Turkey, the institution officially in charge of informal education is the Ministry of Education (MoNE). Turkish education system is made up of two main components⁽⁵⁵⁾. “Formal education” covers pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary education institutions and is given to particular age groups through systematic and organised curricula. “Informal education” is extended education given to individuals who are not in the formal education system; are at a particular level of formal education; and seek for knowledge and skills in a particular occupation (Oral, 2007). Informal education covers all the educational activities besides and out of formal education which may be classified as public education, apprenticeship training and distance (open) education. The informal education takes place in “Public Education Centres”, “education rooms”, “Vocational Education Centres”⁽⁵⁶⁾ through activities such as public courses (free of charge reading and writing, professional, technical, social, cultural courses), seminars, vocational courses etc. and also visits, competitions, meetings, fairs etc. which take place out of the courses or education rooms⁽⁵⁷⁾. Some of the aims of informal education are to facilitate the students’ adaptation to scientific, technological, economical, social and cultural developments; to help students acquire the concepts and habits of collective living, supporting, helping, working and organising collectively; to provide opportunities ensuring acquisition of professions in line with the economic development and employment policy; and to provide habit of using one’s free time in a useful way⁽⁵⁸⁾. The Open School system of MoNE uses distant learning methods, in which curricula are taught through TV broadcasting; exams are conducted countrywide and the graduates are awarded official diplomas (UNDP, 2008: 29). The Open Vocational and Technical Schools were established in early 2006 and have reached 56,000 young people either by TV or, in some cases, through face-to-face teaching (UNDP, 2008: 29).

Non-formal education is a method of learning which is relatively new in Turkey and often used by civil society and youth organisations. In some cases it is also used by the private sector to train their staff. In the Turkish context, it is more relevant to the activities and methods of youth work than those of the public authorities, but there are two exceptions due to the international nature of their youth activities: the Turkish National Agency, which is bound with the European terminology and methods, and the Department of Youth Services of GDYS, to the extent that it cooperates in the framework of international cooperation schemes.

(54) Article 47 of the Law of Higher Education No. 2547.

(55) Article 18 of the Basic Law on National Education No. 1739.

(56) In cooperation with other state institutions such as the Administration for Developing and Supporting Small and Medium-sized Industries (KOSGEB) and the Turkish Labour Organisation (İŞKUR). Municipal bodies, private companies and NGOs support these centres with their financial or volunteer assistance (UNDP, 2008: 29).

(57) Every year, in more than 6,000 public education centres and vocational training centres, approximately 1.6 million people receive technical and applied training in computer literacy, handicrafts, and other vocational skills, as well as learning to read and write (UNDP, 2008: 29).

(58) MoNE Regulation on Institutions of Informal Education, published in Official Journal on 2 February 2006/26080.

The notion and necessity of *voluntary work* in Turkey became visible with the massive earthquake of 1999, where many NGOs and volunteers were mobilised for searching and rescuing efforts. The Red Crescent with its 207,000 volunteers in 649 branches constitutes an example of youth supporting aid activities (UNDP, 2008: 81). In the 2000s, voluntary activities through associations and foundations accelerated. With the changes in primary education curriculum, voluntarism programmes are implemented in schools (UNDP, 2008: 81). Some universities established civic involvement projects (e.g. Sabancı University) in their curricula to get university youth actively involved in the larger social life of the country (UNDP, 2008: 84). Participation of Turkey in the EU Youth and Education programmes resulted in the increase in the numbers of young people who work as volunteers in national and international projects. Some NGOs also try to establish a network of motivated and active youngsters⁽⁵⁹⁾.

Although a high number of volunteers exist in youth work, there is not a formally defined profession of youth workers in Turkey (Nemutlu and Kurtaran, 2008: 34). Still, the people working with young people may define themselves as youth workers, owing to their experience with foreign partners and terminology of the Youth Programme. In addition, DYS conceptualises the workers of their Youth Centres as youth leaders⁽⁶⁰⁾.

Support to the non-profit youth sector, i.e. services and financial resources, provided by public institutions for youth work and youth organisations are quite limited in Turkey. Many small-sized youth organisations disappear in time due to the lack of (especially) financial resources to sustain their organisations although they have the motivation and intention to be involved in youth work (Kurtaran et al., 2008: 3).

Apart from the civil society organisations, *youth work training* in line with the non-formal education principles and methods is provided by a limited number of public institutions. The most active ones are the DYS and the National Agency. DYS provides training opportunities for the workers of the “Youth Centres” and “Youth Clubs” which are established in line with the regulations of the GDYS. Those training courses mainly focus on capacity building activities and themes such as organisational management and long-term project management. However, to the extent that these activities target the youth structures registered with the GDYS, their scope and impact are only limited to the members of those organisations. In addition, GDYS informs and selects young people to take part in some international exchange programmes, training courses and activities both in Turkey and abroad. The National Agency provides youth organisations financial support and training opportunity through the Youth in Action Programme. In the provision of youth work training, civil society organisations, public institutions and private sector all depend on the experiences of trainers, who have indeed a vague official status, but are reliable and experienced due to their international and national involvement in various training activities, both as participants and trainers. In the 2000s, the need in qualified trainers for training activities of the Euromed Youth and Youth in Action Programmes has resulted in the further training and pooling of qualified people as trainers.

(59) TOG works with 13,000 volunteers at 73 universities for around 375 social responsibility projects, ranging from support to education, fight against poverty, health education and democracy to entrepreneurship (UNDP, 2008: 81).

(60) Youth leaders are to “ensure young people’s participation in cultural, sportive and artistic activities in their free times and lead them in order to develop their personalities, competencies and human relations.” The Instruction on Training Courses for Youth Centre Leaders, approved on the 4 December 2003, No.1583 and amended in 2005.

4. THE YOUTH ASSOCIATIONS AND NGOs DEALING WITH YOUTH

The 1980 military coup and its aftermath constituted a critical point in the history of civil society with its organisations, as it was the case for the lives of the young people. The restrictive political atmosphere has resulted in serious limitations on the rights and activities of civil society organisations. Accordingly, the youth work of 1979-1995 period can be equated with cultural youth tourism through international youth exchange programmes and voluntary youth camps (Nemutlu, 2008: 170). Some organisations worked as private companies as an alternative way of establishing an NGO at times when it was relatively difficult to establish youth organisations due to the restrictive legal environment (Baykuş, 2008: 54).

The revival and increase of civil society, as actors in the field of civil rights and freedoms has accelerated in the 1990s. The period of 1996-1998 is characterised by “Youth and Participation” due to some developments such as the establishment of the Youth for Habitat Network and its secretariat⁽⁶¹⁾ in Istanbul. This opened a new era for youth work at local levels and enhanced it through local youth houses in cooperation with local authorities and the private sector. In 1998, Turkey’s involvement in the Euro-Mediterranean Youth Programme started to increase the visibility of civil society. The content and coverage of youth work activities in that period considerably expanded towards the rights of young people and youth organisations (Nemutlu, 2008: 173-176).

The period of 1999-2001 witnessed the expansion of international youth work in Turkey. Demands for a “National Agency of EU Programmes” were increasingly voiced. “European Youth Festivals» organised by the Youth Services Centre (GSM) and supported by international funds, created opportunities and the space for youth organisations in Turkey to come together and identify themselves as youth organisations. In 1999, the adoption of the “Youth Clubs Registration Regulation” opened ways for youth organisations to get financed and trained by the state, if they agreed to register with the DYS. In addition, a number of young people started to benefit from international training and mobility opportunities and the Euromed Youth Action Programme. All those resulted in the expansion and diversification of youth civil society in Turkey. (Nemutlu, 2008: 176-179)

The period of 2002-2004 is characterised with the spread of youth work and non-formal education and attempts to establish a National Youth Council (NYC). On the one hand, international support for the development of youth work in Turkey is visible: the Euromed Youth Programme continued to function with various information and training activities for youth organisations. The NA was officially established and Turkey started to benefit from more EU Programmes. A series of training courses for youth leaders were organised within the framework of international cooperation between GDYS and CoE. On the other hand, national developments enriched the content and activities of youth work. Different youth organisations attempted to establish a structure resembling a NYC. The Turkish Youth Council Initiative was initiated in 2003 by a consortium of youth organisations. Another attempt has been the National Youth Parliament.

With a similar aim, the Turkish Youth Federation (TGF) was established in 2005. In short, in this period different organisations of youth work started to meet with each other; the coverage of youth work enlarged; and various attempts to establish a NYC were observed. (Nemutlu, 2008: 180-187)

In the period of 2005-2007, there is a shift towards the development of youth policies, especially due to the involvement of some public authorities and civil society organisations in youth policy-related international cooperation schemes and projects. The World Bank funded projects drew attention to “local capacity building for youth policy”. Different projects of UN Agencies in Turkey aimed to influence the development of relevant youth policies on issues such as health and development. The National Agency has continued to provide trainings and support activities. The cooperation between CoE and DYS has continued with several seminars on topic of youth policies. In this period, there are also examples of dialogue between youth organisations, youth related public authorities and international actors on youth policy issues. The “Youth Studies Unit” of TOG (Community Volunteers Foundation) and Istanbul Bilgi University, established in 2005, reflects a pooling of experiences from youth work and academia to support the development of youth policy. Many youth organisations continued to organise large scale youth activities/festivals and campaigns on issues such as reduction of age to stand for election. In short, this period is characterised by an increasing interest from youth organisations and some public authorities on various aspects of youth policy, often supported by international cooperation schemes. Experiences accumulated by youth organisations have started to be translated into the youth policy agenda. (Nemutlu, 2008: 187-193)

Throughout the development of youth work, civil society organisations (often known as non-governmental organisations - NGOs) working on youth issues and youth organisations played important roles. Being the first and major users of the non-formal education methods, it is possible to identify a number of categories of NGOs and youth organisations according to their legal status.

- “Associations”⁽⁶²⁾ are “legal persons composed of a minimum of seven real or legal persons in order to realise a defined and common reason, without the intention to share profit and which is not prohibited by law, through putting together their knowledge and work continuously”. Any person above the age of 18 can establish an association. There are 79,315⁽⁶³⁾ active associations in Turkey, among which more than 3,500 include the word “youth” in their names (Baykuş, 2008: 53). The associations which aim to work in the youth field have to state it in their statute (Certel, 2007: 12). There are associations which are established by young people themselves, as well as those which are founded to work on young people’s problems.
- “Foundations”⁽⁶⁴⁾ are “the communities of commodities which have legal personality due to allocation of sufficient commodities and rights, by real or legal persons, for a particular and continuous reason”. Two important components of a foundation are assets and a reason to allocate these assets for. By 2006, there were 28 foundations which target young people or have the word “youth” in their names (Certel, 2007: 12). Some foundations also establish youth units, in which young people actively work with young people within the aims of the foundation (Baykuş, 2008: 53).

(62) Article 2 of the Law of Associations No. 5253, adopted on 23 November 2004.

(63) Data from the Ministry of Interior. www.dernekler.gov.tr/_Dernekler/Web/Gozlem2.aspx?sayfaNo=74.

(64) Civil Law No. 4721, entered into force on 1 January 2002.

(61) Its secretariat was given to Habitat and Local Agenda 21 Association.

- “Youth clubs”⁽⁶⁵⁾ are associations, which state in their statutes that they function in the youth field, and are registered with the GDYS. These clubs are recorded and registered in a logbook by GDYS, which supervises their activities. They can benefit from the financial support and capacity building activities provided by the GDYS. By 2007, there were 430 associations with youth club registration⁽⁶⁶⁾.
- “Youth centres” appear in four different types and structures. GDYS opens youth centres for young people aged 12-24 in various provinces of Turkey⁽⁶⁷⁾ which aim to strengthen cooperation among young people, to help young people spend their free time with social, cultural, artistic and sportive activities, and acquire knowledge and skills. They are foreseen as means to enhance young people’s participation in society as active citizens and to protect them from bad habits. There were 135 youth centres with 109,600 members in 2007⁽⁶⁸⁾. Another type of youth centres were established in many provinces under the Local Agenda 21 (LA21) Programme⁽⁶⁹⁾ since 1997 (UNDP, 2008: 83). There are 73 youth councils and 35 youth centres in this context. In addition, some active municipalities also establish youth houses and centres depending on their own resources and provide free of charge opportunities and facilities for young people such as internet and movie rooms and various courses. The third type of youth centres is those established by the GAP Administration within the “Social Development for Youth Project.”⁽⁷⁰⁾ Since 2001, Youth and Culture Houses have been established in nine GAP provinces and the activities of youth centres reached 21,267 people in 2007 (GAP, 2008b). These centres implement social sensitivity, capacity building and socio-cultural and employment programmes and exchange projects. Finally, there are also youth centres established by some NGOs in different provinces of Turkey to support the personal development of young people and their capacities to produce and implement projects in different fields of social life.
- “University/student clubs” are established with the approval of the rectors of the universities and are subject to the regulations of their respective universities⁽⁷¹⁾. The membership to, and establishment of, those university clubs is only limited to the students of those universities. They often raise their funds from the university’s resources or from sponsorship or international funds (Sütlü, 2007: 133). These clubs do not have legal personalities, but have their own statutes.
- Some “private companies” working on youth organise profit-making activities such as international youth camps, but they also conduct and participate in non-profit making activities similar to NGOs.
- “Youth branches of the political parties” are established under the sponsorship of a political party, regarding the ways in which they function and get organised. They often represent some particular political ideas and ideologies (Sütlü, 2007: 133).
- “Branches of international youth NGOs” such as AIESEC and AEGEE also exist in Turkey. They often have the legal status of an association or student club.

Although it is very difficult to indicate the exact number of youth related NGOs operating at country level, the UNDP report (2008: 115) states that it is around 60, and there are some 120 organisations whose activities affect young people in one way or another. Regardless of their legal status, the aims and objectives of the NGOs and youth organisations are similar: to overcome the obstacles

(65) Article 14 entitled “Youth and Sports Clubs” of the Law of Associations No. 5253.

(66) Data available from the DYS of GDYS. www.genclikhizmetleri.gov.tr/index.php/rakamlarla-genclik-hizmetleri.

(67) “Youth Centres Regulation” No. 25167 published in 2003.

(68) Data available from DYS of GDYS. www.genclikhizmetleri.gov.tr/index.php/rakamlarla-genclik-hizmetleri

(69) Supported by UNDP, The LA21 Programme aims to foster partnerships among youth for sustainable development and liveable environment; to enable youth establishing partnerships with government, local authorities and private sector; and to increase the participation of youth in international youth related events (UNDP, 2008: 83).

(70) www.gap.gov.tr/Turkish/Sosprj/genclik.html.

(71) This means that the rules and regulations of university/student clubs may differ in different universities.

of efficient participation in the social life and to help young people, as active actors of social life, have a say in the decision-making processes as well as in their own environments (Sütlü, 2007: 138). Existing NGOs and youth organisations function in almost all fields and themes regarding youth. Some organisations work on networking and youth policy; some on capacity building; some on participation and volunteering; and, others on awareness raising (Sütlü, 2007: 139-141). These activities are carried both at national and regional levels, as well as increasingly at international level.

What defines and conditions the character of youth work in Turkey are the opportunities and challenges that these organisations face in their youth work practices. The youth NGOs can be divided into two, regarding their administrative and institutional sustainability: “Well-structured NGOs” (high cooperation among members and volunteers, and open and transparent decision-making); and those which are “legal persons on paper” but conduct their activities with limited number of people and facilities (Sütlü, 2007: 142)⁽⁷²⁾. Relatively older NGOs with particular areas of expertise and capacity to establish international relations (mostly in big cities) are often more institutionalised (Sütlü, 2007: 142-143). However, most of the NGOs in different parts of the country are fragile. They encounter difficulties in communicating with the public institutions and in their efforts to turn into a mass movement; they suffer from the lack of volunteers and members and often conduct their activities through friendship bonds. Financial income or support is another factor for the institutionalisation of a youth NGO. Most of the NGOs lack their own resources and need external financial support which is not easy to find. Only a limited number of foundations and organisations are exceptions to that situation (Sütlü, 2007: 144). In addition, there exist inequalities and imbalances between youth NGOs organised in different cities in terms of capacity, and access to information regarding youth policy and their making (Sütlü, 2007: 158).

It is difficult to talk about a sustainable and systematic communication and cooperation among youth NGOs. However, there is still a tendency to work together on project or campaign basis. Due to the differences in approach to similar issues, NGOs may also tend to deliberately stay distant from each other (Sütlü, 2007: 147). Relations between youth NGOs and public authorities follow different patterns according to province or region and differences among youth organisations themselves (Sütlü, 2007: 152). There is a common concern from youth NGOs on the difficulties of establishing a relationship with the public authorities. However, there is also a perceived improvement: public authorities’ approach to civil society in general and youth work in particular is more positive compared to 10 years ago (Sütlü, 2007: 152). One of the reasons behind public authorities’ support to youth NGOs is the cooperation agreements with other countries and new responsibilities for them to cooperate with the NGOs. The youth NGOs in bigger cities have easier access to public authorities, compared to those in the Anatolian cities. The cooperation between NGOs and public authorities in the youth field usually appears to be project-based for a limited time span. Strategic cooperation and long-term partnerships are rare (Sütlü, 2007: 153-154). In many cooperation schemes, NGOs usually implement the projects through mobilising their local/national networks. There seems to be a lack of coordination among state institutions and NGOs working in the field of youth (UNDP, 2008: 19).

(72) Sütlü’s study depends on (2007) 22 interviews with youth NGOs and one public authority namely Department of Youth Services of GDYS: 9 NGOs from Ankara, 3 from Erzurum, 6 from Istanbul, 1 from Mardin and 4 from Muş.

By 2008, there is not a National Youth Council (NYC) in Turkey to bring all the youth organisations under one structure and influence youth policies at governmental level. However, the need to establish a NYC started to be voiced in the 1990s. Three major groupings of NGOs and youth organisations are often associated with the attempts to establish a NYC in Turkey, but the existing legal framework and lack of sufficient infrastructure made such an establishment impossible to date. (Certel, 2007: 25).

The “National Youth Council Initiative” (NYCI)⁽⁷³⁾ was started in February 2003 with the support of some 30 NGOs and youth organisations. It is the result of an effort to establish a discussion platform with a legal personality, bringing together from all regions, youth NGOs, student councils, youth branches of the political parties, as well as the youth units of the professional chambers and trade unions. It aims to set up an umbrella organisation to discuss and agree upon common aims, targets and values between youth organisations towards a national youth policy. This proposes to facilitate joint action; strengthen communication; facilitate representation of youth; and helping in the making of youth policies in Turkey (Sütlü, 2007: 149). Through a series of meetings in different cities (2003-2004), the priority of the Initiative was to prepare a youth law including the institutional structure of a NYC and broaden the scope of youth work in Turkey (YFJ, 2004: 13). The European Youth Forum (YFJ) made a study visit to the Initiative and highlighted its character as being a real grass-roots movement, a real process of cooperation and horizontal integration, as a democratic process with all the necessary components, and as transparent in terms of sharing the results (YFJ, 2004: 14). However, the Initiative also received criticisms in Turkey because of being an immature and early initiative; being an NGO project, which does not have the right to represent Turkish youth (Sütlü, 2007: 150). The initiative has been rather silent recently as the vagueness of methodological proposal on how to achieve this establishment and where to restart with are the two basic questions (Sütlü, 2007: 149).

The “Local Agenda 21 National Youth Parliament”⁽⁷⁴⁾ (NYP) gathered for the first time in 2003 and officially declared its establishment, as a national structuring model based on local initiatives, in the Turkish Grand National Assembly⁽⁷⁵⁾ in May 2004. The members of the NYP are the LA21 Youth Councils from all over Turkey, which have been supported by the Youth for Habitat and Local Agenda 21 Association⁽⁷⁶⁾ since 1997. The Parliament proposes a superstructure for joint action, communication, representation of youth initiatives towards a NYC. The NYP proposes that a NYC should not be established with a “top-down” approach, but rather as a “bottom-up” structure based on a local youth movement and initiatives where the backbone becomes the local young people.⁽⁷⁷⁾ NYP periodically holds youth summits, nation-wide coordination meetings or summer schools, on the way to become a structure which takes part in identification, preparation and realisation of national youth policies and programmes; and which forms a basis for a Turkish National Youth Council.⁽⁷⁸⁾ NYP is criticised by other NGOs because of its representation model (i.e. functioning under the municipalities which are political entities); being based on LA21 and its action programme; giving place only to city youth councils; and being coordinated by a central association in Istanbul (Sütlü, 2007: 150).

The “Turkish Youth Federation”⁽⁷⁹⁾ (TYF) was set up in April 2004 by eight founding associations, as a super-structure to bring together youth associations from various provinces. By January 2008, it had 26 member associations, which aim at supporting children and young people; enhancing their participation; and, contributing to making and developing policies in relation to children and youth in Turkey⁽⁸⁰⁾. The Federation aims to establish communication and coordination between its members and represent them at national and international levels. To establish a “Turkish Youth Confederation” and to contribute to the “Turkish Youth Council” are among the targets of the Federation. It has also taken part in the NYCI and supports the idea that youth platforms can only be effective when they have a legal personality (Sütlü, 2007: 151).

(73) This initiative was also financially supported by Civil Society Development Programme (of the European Commission working on capacity building for NGOs in Turkey and now called Civil Society Development Centre) and the Delegation of European Commission in Turkey (Nemutlu, 2008: 186).

(74) www.ulusalgenclikparlamentosu.net

(75) The Parliament of the Republic of Turkey.

(76) The name of the organisation was recently changed into “Youth Association for Habitat”.

(77) www.ulusalgenclikparlamentosu.net/Page.asp?id=51

(78) *ibid.*

(79) www.turkiyegenconfed.org.tr

(80) www.turkiyegenconfed.org.tr/index.php?option=com_content&task=view&id=18&Itemid=28

5. THE EUROMED YOUTH PROGRAMME

Evidence shows that the Euromed Youth Programme has created some dynamics in, and impacted on, the development of youth work, NGOs and youth organisations, rather than directly influencing the youth policy in Turkey.

The Programme contributed to the capacity building of organisations working in the youth field, through basic and advanced training courses, which introduced both non-formal education methods and components of preparing and implementing youth projects such as project management, intercultural learning, evaluation and reporting. An example is the “NGO Youth Training Project” realised in 2002-2003. The Programme also helped Turkish youth workers participate in international training courses, especially those organised by SALTO-EuroMed . A group of youth trainers in Turkey were trained in “3D Training for Trainers”, which helped in creating a pool of trainers for the following years; and initiated a network among those trainers and incentives to work together. The Programme also contributed to the advancement of skilled human resources for the sustainability of not only Euro-Mediterranean but also national, regional and local level youth work in Turkey; and facilitated the transfer of experiences to the newly established National Agency during that period.

The Programme provided new platforms and enhanced communication among the actors of youth work in Turkey through “Information Sharing and Experience Meetings”, where NGOs and youth organisations came together and discussed about their positive experiences and problems, both regarding the implementation of the Programme and the situation of youth work in Turkey. The e-mailing list⁽⁸³⁾, established to disseminate the Programme in Turkey, is still a very active platform for NGOs and youth organisations to share their activities and youth related developments.

The implementation of the Programme in Turkey through cooperation with many experienced NGOs and youth trainers resulted in a two-sided impact on youth work. On the one hand, the spread of the Programme towards less advantaged regions through the networks of these NGOs was ensured and the opportunities for both youth organisations and young people from those regions to participate in the international youth work activities were enhanced. On the other hand, this cooperation gave chance to partner NGOs to further develop their own activities and expertise.

The Euromed Youth Programme considerably increased the opportunities for funding the activities of the NGOs and youth organisations in Turkey, hence the international mobility opportunities for young people. Between 2000 and 2005, 57 youth projects received financial support from the European Commission. During the decentralised phase of the Programme in 2007, 10 out of 20 projects were supported.

Besides facilitating the involvement of experienced NGOs and youth organisations, the Programme facilitated access to international youth work for the inexperienced or disadvantaged youth organisations. Many “invisible” actors (i.e. youth groupings or individual young people who benefited from the voluntary service activities) became visible and got involved in international youth work activities (Nemutlu, 2008: 178) The Programme has even led to the establishment of new youth organisations in Turkey.

(81) In cooperation with the British Council, Connect Youth and GSM.

(82) Euro-Med Resource Centre for Support, Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities.

(83) genclik-stk@yahoo.com started with monthly 14 e-mails in 2000 and reached up to more than 120 e-mails per month delivered to more than 3.250 e-mail addresses (including those of the representatives of NGOs, youth organisations and young people) in 2008 (Nemutlu, 2008: 178).

6. OTHER YOUTH SUPPORT MECHANISMS

In general, the international organisations get involved in youth issues in Turkey in the framework of cooperation schemes, by devising and funding campaigns, projects, programmes etc. The support is sometimes given to the relevant public authority and its personnel, or sometimes directly to the youth organisations. The major partner public authority for such cooperation is the Department of Youth Services of GDYS. Depending on the themes, other public institutions are also contacted. Different combinations of international organisations, public institutions, private sector actors and NGOs are formed for planning and implementation of youth related programmes and projects in Turkey. The impact of the international organisations' involvement and bilateral agreements can be observed at different levels of youth policy. Sometimes, institutions get only involved at the implementation stage, which directly aims at the elimination of a perceived youth problem (e.g. health). Sometimes the outcomes of various activities turn out to be policy recommendations to the Turkish government (e.g. UNDP State of Youth Report). Another impact occurs in the capacity building activities both for the public officials and youth organisations, as an indirect effect on the youth policy, through training of relevant actors to demand/devise youth policy.

The World Bank (WB) has initiated two big youth policy related cooperation schemes. One was the involvement of Turkey in the "Youth Voices" Programme⁽⁸⁴⁾ in 2004, which aimed at creating a more effective dialogue between the youth and the WB, as well as giving young people support with respect to finding their own solutions to their problems. Since 2006, the Youth Voices group has continued to work in two working groups on "youth policy development" and "youth and employment". The second WB initiative was "Youth Social Development Programme" (YSDP) with the financial support of the Government of Japan. The WB mediated this process between Japan and its Turkish partner, Youth and Sports Foundation⁽⁸⁵⁾. The main objective of the project is to contribute to social integration through the inclusion of disadvantaged young people in the social, economic and political life. Since 2006, YSDP, with a grant budget of 1,873,000 USD, has formulated four main components: youth participation and empowerment; youth employment initiatives; youth culture bridges; and youth policies (developing organisational and human resources capacities at local levels and facilitating cooperation between youth NGOs and public institutions);⁽⁸⁶⁾ 3,488 young people participated in the non-formal education activities of the programme.

Since 2002, the Council of Europe (CoE) has developed cooperation with Turkey, through GDYS. Various training courses have been organised for youth leaders on the issues of youth work and youth policy. In addition, the Turkish National Campaign Committee for the "all different-all equal" campaign was established in 2006.⁽⁸⁷⁾

The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) office in Turkey has initiated many activities in the field of youth, especially in cooperation with various NGOs and private sector actors. For example, "Life Plus"⁽⁸⁸⁾ Youth Programme has started in 2005 with a budget of 1.5 million USD and by 2008, 31 projects have been supported. Since 2007 "Youth Post"⁽⁸⁹⁾ aims to develop a virtual network in Turkey that would provide young people information about youth policies, programmes, projects, activities, campaigns, trainings and youth funds. In addition, UNDP in Turkey prepared the National Human Development Report 2008 entitled "Youth in Turkey", which provides comprehensive research findings about the state of youth in Turkey regarding youth policy issues such as participation, education, employment and health. United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) also organises various projects in cooperation with NGOs and private sector in Turkey. An example is the "Reproductive Health Peer Education Project", which aimed at promoting safer sexual behaviour among youth. The project was planned as a three-level peer education and training project starting in 2005, which is also seen as a step towards the institutionalisation of the Turkish Network for Youth Peer Education⁽⁹⁰⁾ (Y-PEER). In addition, "A Youth Story"⁽⁹¹⁾ is a website, which provides information for young people about sexual health.

In the youth field, bilateral agreements with other countries are conducted often by the DYS. In 1994, a "Cooperation Protocol about Youth Policies" was concluded with Germany. Within the Protocol, a Youth and Expert Exchange Programme for NGOs, local authorities, youth centres and youth clubs is conducted and training programmes and German language courses for youth workers (aged 12-26) are organised. The DYS also cooperates with countries such as Japan and South Eastern countries.

The British Council (BC) is another international actor supporting youth work in Turkey. BC provided support for an extensive training project entitled "NGO Youth Training Project"⁽⁹²⁾ in 2002-2003 and for the implementation of "Youth Post"⁽⁹³⁾.

Since 1999, the European Union (EU) through its Youth and Education Programmes has been a major actor for youth work in Turkey, which has a national page in the European Youth Portal⁽⁹⁴⁾. Besides the Euromed Youth Programme, since 2002, the Socrates, Leonardo and Youth Programmes have created new opportunities for the actors of youth work and formal education in Turkey. Almost 20,000 people benefited from 1,476 projects organised by youth between 2003 and 2007 (UNDP, 2008: 82). In 2004-2006, the Youth Programme granted approximately 10.4 million Euros to youth organisations (Kurtaran, 2008: 152).

(88) www.hayataarti.org

(89) Financed by UNDP and the British Council. www.youthpost.org.

(90) www.youthpeer.org.

(91) The website of the Campaign is www.birgenclikhikayesi.com.

(92) In cooperation with Euro-Med Türkiye, Connect Youth and GSM (Youth Services Centre).

(93) In cooperation with UNDP in Turkey and GSM (Youth Services Centre).

(94) http://europa.eu/youth/national_pages/index_tr_en.html

(84) The "Youth Voices" programme launched first in Peru in 2002 by the World Bank and implemented in some other participant countries.

More information is available at: www.worldbank.org.tr/youthvoices.

(85) The agreement No.TF 55800 was signed on 11 November 2005

(86) Information gathered from the official website of YSDP at www.gsdp.org.tr.

(87) www.herkesfarkli-herkesesit.info, <http://herkesfarkliherkesesit.blogspot.com>.

7. PERCEPTION OF THE ACTORS

It is very often argued that the public authorities perceive young people as a threat rather than actors of national development. Although many governmental plans and programmes state that the large number of young people in Turkey is a strong element for the development of the country, the provisions regarding youth related issues display a rather limited approach to youth, which is based on the protection of youth rather than ensuring young people's empowerment and active participation. With the impact of international organisations and especially that of the European Union, civil society and youth work became visible to the public authorities. Some new legislation is enacted and the process of democratisation and participation is also supported by the Turkish government (Atalay, 2004: 68). Another example is that DYS stated positive opinion on the establishment of a national youth council (Sütlü, 2007: 155). In some of the reports prepared by the public authorities for international institutions, the authorities admit that absence of a separate tangible youth policy and no law directly regulating youth policy is one of the weak points regarding the youth field in Turkey. Other perceived problems in the youth field are the multiplicity of different actors dealing with youth issues; absence of a national youth council; low levels of education and difficulties in the mobility of young people. Another problem perceived as an obstacle in youth work is the dissemination of information (Atalay, 2004: 76). In addition, the public authorities appreciate the involvement of Turkey in the Youth Programme and existence of highly motivated NGOs and youth groups.

The youth leaders, youth trainers and NGO representatives, individually or collectively, voice their concerns and perceptions about the work of public authorities; about the youth related legislation and policies; about the civil society, youth work and the involvement of international mechanisms in the youth related activities in Turkey.

One of the biggest concerns of youth leaders is about the public institutions working in youth related areas. GDYS is often criticised because of its structure, which favours and financially support sports and leisure activities, rather than youth work activities. GDYS's youth work related activities are also criticised. For example, the youth centres established by GDYS are perceived as being designed without the involvement of young people themselves and DYS's support system is seen neither efficient nor sufficient (Kurtaran, 2008: 138). The NGO representatives think that local governments and provincial administrations are not always well aware or informed about the working of civil society organisations and the relevant legislation. For example, youth NGOs sometimes have difficulties to receive tax exemption papers locally, and may need to go to Ankara to do that (Sütlü, 2007: 154). Although the recent legal requirement regarding the youth councils to be established by the local governments is perceived as a positive development, the youth leaders are wondering to what extent this requirement will go beyond being a requirement and contribute to the development of youth work at the local level (Kurtaran, 2008: 149).

Youth leaders and NGOs representatives often voice that the public authorities dealing with youth field are multiple and fragmented. It is stated that there is no coordination, communication or institutionalised cooperation between those institutions and among the activities and programmes implemented by those (Kurtaran, 2008: 163) and there is no culture of working together between these institutions (Certel, 2007: 27). Youth leaders perceive the public institutions dealing with youth as implementation agencies rather than decision makers. Both DYS and NA are only involved in the implementation of youth activities and youth services, but they do not transfer their experiences and observations about the needs of the youth into any youth policy making processes as inputs from the field. Moreover, those who plan and make the policies foresee some actions for implementation, however there is still a gap between the fields of action and what has actually been realised (Kurtaran, 2008: 160).

The reluctance of public authorities, regarding the establishment of a national youth council and proceeding towards making legal arrangements, is also perceived as a bottleneck for youth policies in Turkey (Sütlü, 2007: 155). In addition, the existing legal background is also seen as an obstacle towards the establishment of a NYC (Certel, 2007: 27). The majority of the NGOs working in the field of youth have already voiced their concern that a Youth Council is urgently needed, especially to assist in the preparation of a youth law (UNDP, 2008: 19-21). On the other hand, the non-existence of a national youth council is also seen among the reasons why there is no youth policy in Turkey (Certel, 2007: 27).

Youth NGOs repeatedly declare their demand on a comprehensive youth policy, going beyond the official youth approach which reduces youth policy to the protection of youth from deviant habits (Sütlü, 2007: 156). Youth NGOs demand the removal of the obstacles on their way to actively participate in various aspects of social life; and provision of necessary legal and social background for such participation (Sütlü, 2007: 156). Moreover, the non-existence of a youth policy is perceived as the youth policy of Turkey *per se* (Kurtaran et.al, 2008: 3). The argument is that a youth policy which empowers young people and their rights, and enables them to have a saying on their own lives, would force public authorities to accept a new approach towards youth, which is not preferred by the policy makers (Kurtaran et.al, 2008: 3).

The overall results of the international support schemes are not seen sufficient by the youth leaders. For example, the Youth Programme is considered as an important means to develop youth work in Turkey and sustain the activities of youth associations. However, it is also voiced that the inflexibility of the Programme causes youth organisations develop their project only in line with the requirements of the funding structure, and accordingly results in an "activity-based", rather than a "needs-based", approach (Nemutlu and Kurtaran, 2008: 40). The "project culture" is perceived as a threat to the extent that some of these organisations which depend on those sources disappear when the funding stops. Another concern voiced by the youth leaders is related to the complex and not user-friendly procedures of international funding resources. In this regard, the decentralised implementation of the Euromed Youth Programme is highly criticised arguing that the new requirements and application forms are so demanding that NGOs prefer to make instead use of Youth in Action Programme. Another concern is that the funding schemes

of public institutions do not reach to a country-wide balance and while the organisations in some cities or regions of the country benefit from public support, the others face challenges to sustain their organisations and conduct their activities (Kurtaran, 2008: 162).

In general, young people's view on youth policy can be categorised in relation to their views on their own problems; on politics and politicians; and on civil society and voluntarism. Regarding their own problems, young people's two biggest concerns are the limitations of the education system and lack of work opportunities (UNDP, 2008).

Although young people in Turkey participate and vote in elections, they are uncomfortable with politics and aware of the problems related to it (Lüküslü, 2008: 291). Depending on the outcomes of a survey on young people who do not participate in politics, Lüküslü argues that contemporary youth does not trust politics, perceived as incapable of solving the problems of young people and defined as a "rotten" system (Lüküslü, 2008: 292). Young people also perceive the political parties and associations negatively, arguing that they are structures in which they cannot define themselves and take part freely, because they are rather "authoritarian" groups (Lüküslü, 2008: 292). The same perception is also stated by the UNDP report (2008: 79). Youth foster feelings of cynicism and distrust towards political mechanisms believing that "politics is not honest or just" and politicians are "those who protect only themselves and their relatives" and "they are not telling the truth". As a result, young people ask for politics that is more "reliable", "transparent", "honest", "purified from client relations" and "sensitive to youth's primary problems" (UNDP, 2008: 79).

On the contrary, young people perceive civil society and youth work very positively. To the extent that young people do not trust politics and their families to solve their problems, they seem to direct their hopes towards civil society and voluntarism. The findings of the YADA and UNDP (2008: 80-81) survey shows how young people feel about civil society and voluntarism: "I expect solutions to problems only from outside the State. I also do not expect my father to solve problems because I cannot change him anymore. People can succeed in changing certain things by helping each other and making them feel valuable..." (UNDP, 2008: 80). The young people perceive participation and voluntarism as something "emancipating" and think that "taking part in NGO activities have an effect on changing one's point of view towards people" and "youth who are members of NGOs cope with life better than others" (UNDP, 2008).

8. CONCLUSION

The findings show that young people have considerable needs and challenges on the way to their self-development and participation in the society and different categories of youth in Turkey require different emphasis in terms of policy (UNDP, 2008: 4). However, a comprehensive and inclusive youth policy does not exist in Turkey. The institutional and policy framework concerning youth lacks coherence, scope and effectiveness. The existing institutional approach to youth and youth related legislation is rather problem-based and follows a sectoral approach to youth (UNDP, 2008: 4). Although the role of young people in the development of the country is glorified in many general plans and programmes, no youth specific action plans and concrete measures to ensure a progressive role for and participation of youth exist. The problems, challenges and needs of young people are not comprehensively analysed in a long-term and relational perspective, but only the urgent needs are addressed through specific actions and projects, which cannot solve the structural problems in the long run. The scattered nature of the legislation on youth and age-related issues reflects the fragmented nature of the public authorities in Turkey. A lack of coordination, communication and cooperation between the public institutions can also be observed. The existing problems and challenges of young people show that the quality and quantity of the youth services, as well as the financial support, provided by public institutions for youth related issues such as education, employment, health, housing and social and political participation are not at satisfactory levels in Turkey. It is also difficult to argue that the public authorities have acknowledged or supported the development of non-formal education and youth work until the 2000s in Turkey.

Although the working methods of the two institutions directly involved in the youth field (except the field of education), the General Directorate for Youth and Sports and the National Agency, have been criticised to some extent, their active role in the youth field in Turkey cannot be denied. However, with regarding to youth policy-making, those institutions seem silent, since they only act as implementation agencies. This means that the results of the programmes and projects that they implement cannot be transferred back into the policy process as important inputs from the field.

In Turkey, civic actors of youth work seem more informed about the problems and needs of youth than the public authorities. Although the youth organisations and NGOs suffer from problems regarding their own existence (e.g. getting organised, financial difficulties and sustainability of their activities), they have been more dedicated to the achievements of youth work. Assigning youth a more positive and progressive role and acknowledging the diversity among different categories of young people, these NGOs and youth organisations have developed a more homogenous approach towards youth. In Turkey, voluntarism and non-formal education have developed in civil society through different working styles, target groups and activities

of the NGOs and youth organisations. Since 2005, there has been an increasing number of youth organisations getting involved in the field of youth policy in addition to their youth work activities (Nemutlu, 2008: 193). This is partially taken as a result of various international schemes implemented in Turkey, but it also refers to a perceived need among the civil society actors to be involved in and develop youth policies.

One important aspect of youth policy in Turkey is the involvement of the international organisations in the youth field through cooperation schemes. While some of those cooperation schemes have brought issues of youth policy into the agenda, some other international programmes become more effective on the development of national, regional and international youth work. Various youth policy issues have become visible as a result of the content of those schemes between the public authorities and international organisations. In addition, to the extent that such cooperation requires partnerships between public authorities and civil society, the NGOs and youth organisations have become more popular.

ANNEXES

Annex 1: Acknowledgements

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Annex 2: Country profile (part 1)

Full name of the Country	Republic of Turkey	
Government Type	Republic	
Area	814.578 km ²	
Capital City	Ankara	
Other main cities	İstanbul, İzmir, Antalya, Diyarbakır, Samsun, Edirne, Van	
Population	70.586.256	
Gender Ratio (F/M)	F: 35.209.723	M: 35.376.533
Ethnic composition	—	
Age Structure		
0-14	18.642.391	
15-24	12.397.606	
25-30	6.512.838	
Median age	28,3	

Annex 2: Country profile (part 2)

Educational background (F/M ratio)		
Primary	F: 5.162.321 (2006-2007)	M: 5.684.609
Secondary	F: 1.469.528 (2006-2007)	M: 1.917.189
Tertiary	F: 981.755 (2006-2007)*	M: 1.312.952
Literacy rate	Youth (15-24): 95.6% Adult (15 and older): 87.4% (1995-2005)**	
Unemployment rate		
	Youth: 18.7%	Adult***: 9.9% (2006)**
Summary of age related regulations and rights		
Compulsory education (up to.....)	6-14	
Compulsory military service	Yes, responsibility starts at the age of 20.	
Legally employable (from...)	15	
Marriage without parental consent	17 for both women and men.	
Minimum voting age	18	
Minimum age to be elected	25	
Driving licence	18	
Purchase of alcohol and drinkink	N/A	
Purchase of tobacco products and smoking	18	

Local Currency/ Exchange rate (Euro)	1 € = 1,8 Turkish Lira
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* The data includes only the students of public universities.

** Human Development Report 2007/2008.

*** Total % of labour force in Turkey.

Annex 3: List of Abbreviations (part 1)

BC	British Council
CoE	Council of Europe
DYS	Department of Youth Services
EC	European Commission
EU	European Union
GAP	Southeastern Anatolia Project
GAP/RDA	Southeastern Anatolia Project / Regional Development Administration
GDYS	General Directorate for Youth and Sports
GSM	Youth Services Centre
GSV	Youth and Sports Foundation
ILO	International Labour Organisation
İş-Kur	Turkey Employment Organisation
KOSGEB	Administration for Developing and Supporting Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
LA21	Local Agenda 21
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
NA	National Agency
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
NYC	National Youth Council
NYCI	National Youth Council Initiative
NYP	National Youth Parliament
SALTO	Resource Centre for Support, Advanced Learning and Training Opportunities (within the European YOUTH programme)
SHÇEK	Social Services and Child Protection Agency
SPO	State Planning Organisation
TOG	Community Volunteers Foundation
TSBD	Turkish Social Sciences Association
TYF	Turkish Youth Foundation
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
UNFPA	United Nations Population Fund
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Fund
USD	United States Dollar
WB	World Bank

Annex 3: List of Abbreviations (part 2)

YADA	Foundation about Life
YFJ	European Youth Forum
YÖK	Council of Higher Education
Y-PEER	Youth Peer Education Network
YSDP	Youth Social Development Programme
Yurt-Kur	Higher Education Credits and Dormitories Institution

Annex 4: Glossary

ÖSS: “Student Selection Exam” (Öğrenci Seçme Sınavı) is a centralised exam for the selection and placement of students to study in a university. All the Turkish students who would like to get registered and study in a university in Turkey should take and pass this exam. It is organised once every year by the public institution called Centre for Student Selection and Placement (ÖSYM). More than one million (mostly young) people take the exam every year and only a limited number of them can be placed in a university. It occupies an important place in a young person’s life for several reasons. It often requires additional studies in addition to secondary education and this mostly takes place in private courses.

Honour killing: It is a type of honour crime that is often argued to be committed as a consequence of the need to defend or protect the “honour of the family”. It is a typical example of violation of human rights based on archaic, unjust cultures and traditions, rooted in a complex code that allows a man to kill or abuse a female relative or partner for suspected or actual “immoral behaviour”. *Parliamentary Assembly, “So-called ‘honour crimes’” Council of Europe, Resolution 1327 (2003), Text adopted by the Assembly on 4 April 2003 (16th Sitting).*

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Annex 6: Additional statistical tables/charts

Issues of Youth Policy, Relevant Legislation and Public Institutions in charge of Making and Implementing Legislation		
Issues	Relevant Public Institutions and/or Authorities	Relevant Legislation
Employment	Ministry of Labour and Social Security	No. 4857 Labour Law Ministerial Regulation on the Procedures and Basis of Employment of Child and Young Workers
	Ministry of Labour and Social Security – Turkey Employment Organisation (İŞKUR)	No. 4904 Law of İŞKUR
	Administration for Developing and Supporting Small and Medium-sized Industries (KOSGEB)	No. 3624 Law on the establishment of KOSGEB
	Ministry of Education General Directorate of Non-Formal Education and Apprentice Training	No. 3308 Vocational Training Law
Education	Ministry of National Education	No. 3797 Law on the Organisation and Responsibilities of the Ministry of National Education No. 1739 Basic Law of National Education
	Council of Higher Education (YÖK)	No. 2547 Higher Education Law
Justice	Ministry of Justice	No. 5395 Protection of Child Law No. 5402 Law on “Denetimli Serbestlik” and Help Centres and Protection Councils No. 2253 Law on the Establishment, Duties and Judgement Styles of the Child Courts
Health	Ministry of Health	Statutory decree on the Organisation and Duties of Ministry of Health
Social Care and Protection	Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK)	No. 2828 Law of Social Services and Child Protection Agency
	Prime Ministry Administration for Disabled	No. 5378 Law of Disabled People
Leisure time	General Directorate of Youth and Sport	No. 3289 Law of General Directorate of Youth and Sport
Family	The General Directorate of Family and Social Studies	No. 5256 Law on the Structure and Duties of the General Directorate of Family and Social Studies

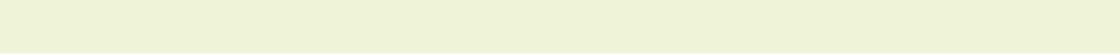
Housing	MEB General Directorate of Higher Education Credit and Dormitories Institution (Yurt-Kur)	No. 351 Law of General Directorate of Higher Education Credit and Dormitories Institution (Yurt-Kur)
Military Service	Ministry of National Defence	No. 1111 Law on Military Service
Development	State Planning Organisation	Five-year Development Plans
Regional Development	Southeastern Anatolia Project, Regional Development Administration (GAP/RDA)	GAP Action Plans
Young women	General Directorate of Women’s Status	
Getting organised	Ministry of Internal Affairs	No. 5253 Law of Associations
Culture and Arts	Ministry of Culture and Tourism	
Non-formal education, mobility	National Agency	N. 4968 Law on making amendments in the Statutory Degree No. 540 about the Establishment and Duties of the State Planning Organisation
Science, technology and mobility	The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (TUBITAK)	EU Framework programmes
Local Participation	Local Authorities and Administrations (Municipalities and metropolitan municipalities)	No. 5393 Municipality Law

Source: Based on and further developed from Certel, 2007: 6-7.

TABLE Number of Projects from Turkey supported by the Euro-Med Youth Programme								
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2007	TOTAL
<i>Action 1 - Youth Exchanges</i>	1	2	6	9	7	1*	-	26
<i>Action 2- European Voluntary Service</i>	0	1	6	4	5	0*	-	16
<i>Action 5 - Support Measures</i>	1	2	4	4	3	1*	-	15
Total	2	5	16	17	15	2*	10	67

Data provided by the National Agency.

Numbers marked with * do not cover all the projects supported by the Programme in 2005.





EuroMed Youth III Programme

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