

Factbook Education Systems: Turkey

Ursula Renold

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List of Abbreviations

CES	Chair of Education Systems
CVC	Curriculum Value Chain
EPL	Employment Protection Legislation
GCI	Global Competitiveness Index
GDLLL	General Directorate for Life-Long Learning
GER	Gross Enrolment Ratio
GII	Global Innovation Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
ILO	International Labour Organization
ISCED	International Standard Classification of Education
KOF	Swiss Economic Institute
LFPR	Labour Force Participation Rate
NEET	Not in Education, Employment, or Training
NER	Net Enrolment Ratio
NGO	Non-governmental organization
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PET	Professional Education and Training
TGNA	Turkish Grand National Assembly
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UIS	UNESCO Institute of Statistics
VEC	Vocational Education Centre
VET	Vocational Education and Training
VPET	Vocational Professional Education and Training
VPETA	Vocational and Professional Education and Training Act
VTEGD	Vocational and Technical Education General Directorate

WEF	World Economic Forum
YLMI	Youth Labour Market Index

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Foreword

The increasing competitiveness of the world economy as well as the high youth unemployment rates after the worldwide economic crises have put pressure on countries to upgrade the skills of their workforces. Consequently, vocational education and training (VET) has received growing attention in recent years, especially amongst policy-makers. For example, the European Commission defined common objectives and an action plan for the development of VET systems in European countries in the Bruges Communiqué on Enhanced European Cooperation in Vocational Education and Training for 2011-2020 (European Commission, 2010). In addition, a growing number of US states and other industrialized, transition, and developing countries (for example Hong Kong, Singapore, Chile, Costa Rica, Benin and Nepal) are interested in either implementing VET systems or making their VET system more labour-market oriented.

The appealing outcome of the VET system is that it improves the transition of young people into the labour market by simultaneously providing work experience, remuneration and formal education degrees at the secondary education level. If the VET system is optimally designed, VET providers are in constant dialogue with the demand-side of the labour market, i.e. the companies. This close relationship guarantees that the learned skills are in demand on the labour market. Besides practical skills, VET systems also foster soft-skills such as emotional intelligence, reliability, accuracy, precision, and responsibility, which are important attributes for success in the labour market. Depending on the design and permeability of the education system, VET may also provide access to tertiary level education (according to the ISCED classification): either general education at the tertiary A level or professional education and training (PET) at the tertiary B level. PET provides occupation-specific qualifications that prepare students for highly technical and managerial positions. VET and PET systems are often referred to together as “vocational and professional education training (VPET)” systems.

Few countries have elaborate and efficient VPET systems. Among these is the Swiss VPET system, which is an example of an education system that successfully matches market supply and demand. The Swiss VPET system efficiently introduces adolescents to the labour market, as shown by Switzerland’s 2007-2017 average youth unemployment rate of 8.1 percent compared to 14.8 percent for the OECD average (OECD, 2017).

Though not many countries have VPET systems that are comparable to Switzerland’s in terms of quality, efficiency and permeability, many have education pathways that involve some kind of practical or school-based vocational education. The purpose of the CES Factbook Education Systems Series¹ is to provide information about the education systems of countries across the world, with a special focus on vocational and professional education and training.

In the CES Factbook Education Systems: Turkey, we describe Turkey’s vocational system and discuss the characteristics that are crucial to the functioning of the system. Essential components comprise the regulatory framework and the governance of the VPET system, the involved actors, and their competencies and duties. The Factbook also provides information regarding the financing of the system and describes the process of curriculum development and the involved actors.

The Factbook is structured as follows: First, we provide an overview of Turkey’s economy, labour market, and political system. The second part is dedicated to the description of the formal education system.

¹ From 2013 to 2019, the Factbooks were produced within the framework of the Education Systems research division at the KOF Swiss Economic Institute. From 2020 they will be produced by the Chair of Education Systems (CES) group.

The third section explains Turkey's vocational education system. The last section offers a perspective on Turkey's recent education reforms and challenges to be faced in the future.

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The Factbook Education Systems series have to be regarded as work in progress. The authors do not claim completeness of the information which has been collected carefully and in all conscience. Any suggestions for improvement are highly welcome!

Contact: factbook@ethz.ch

1. Turkey's Economy and Political System

One of the main purposes of an education system is to provide the future workforce with the skills needed in the labour market. The particularities of a country's economy and labour market are important factors determining the current and future demand for skills. Therefore, these will briefly be described in the first part of this Factbook. In addition, this part provides an overview of Turkey's political system with emphasis on the description of the education policies.

1.1 Turkey's Economy

Turkey has an emerging market economy and is among the world's developed countries. The economy has grown very fast in recent years despite adverse shocks, due to a dynamic and well-diversified but fragmented business sector (OECD, 2018a). In 2018, the **GDP per capita** of Turkey rose to US\$ 28,187². In comparison, the 2018 GDP per capita of Greece, which sums up to US\$ 28,010, the OECD average to US\$ 42,528 and the European Union average to US\$ 41,092 (OECD, 2018b). From 2000 to 2018, the Turkish economy averaged an **annual GDP growth** of 5.1%, as opposed to the OECD average of 1.9% (World Bank, 2019a).

Like most other countries, Turkey also perceived a harsh decrease in GDP growth (-4.7%) during the economic crisis in 2009. Nevertheless, the economy recovered fast, achieving an annual GDP growth of 8.5% and 11.1% in the years 2010 and 2011 (OECD, 2018b).

Since Turkey's economy is emerging and hence has some characteristics of a developed market economy, it is experiencing a shift towards the tertiary sector. However, the tertiary sector is not yet as dominant as in highly developed countries. The primary and secondary sectors combined still make almost half of the total employment in 2018 (Table 1). In comparison, of the total value added in 2018, the primary and secondary sector accounted for about 40 percent compared to the EU-28 average value of about 26% in the same year. Thus, the relative share of the tertiary sector of the total value added of Turkey for 2018 (60.7%) lies below the EU-28 average value of 73.8% for the same year (Eurostat, 2019).

² Constant prices, constant purchasing power parity (PPP), reference year 2015.

Table 1: Value added and employment by sector, 2019

Sector	Turkey: value added (%)	EU-28: value added (%)	Turkey: employment ³ (%)	EU-28: employment (%)
Primary sector	6.5	1.6	19.2	4.2
Agriculture, hunting and forestry, fishing	6.5	1.6	19.2	4.2
Secondary sector	32.9	24.6	26.3	21.7
Manufacturing, mining and quarrying, other industrial activities	24.9	19.1	n/a	15.3
Of which: manufacturing	21.3	16.0	n/a	13.8
Construction	8.0	5.5	n/a	6.4
Tertiary sector	60.7	73.8	54.5	74.2
Wholesale and retail trade, repairs; ho- tels and restaurants; transport; information and communication	28.9	24.2	n/a	27.8
Financial intermediation; real estate, renting & business activities	16.8	27.6	n/a	16.7
Public administration, defence, education, health, other service activities	15.0	22.0	n/a	29.7

Source: own table based on Eurostat (2020a; 2020b), World Bank (2020b).

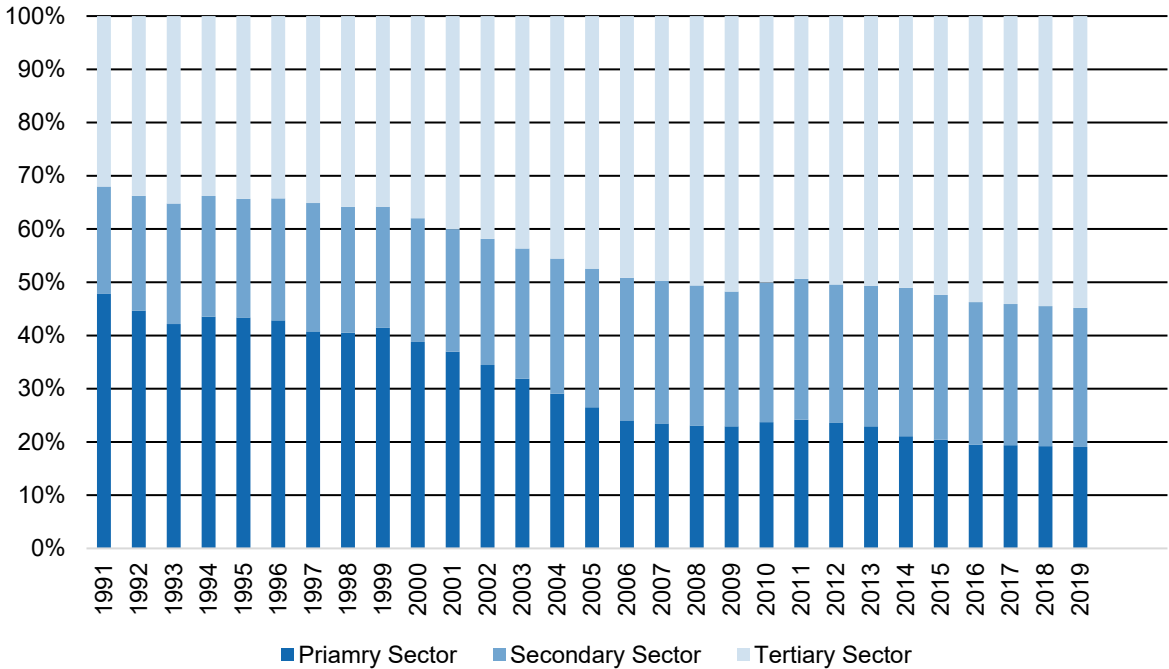
The development of the employment rate by sector between 1991 and 2019 is illustrated in Figure 1. The tertiary sector clearly gained weight over the period from 1991-2019 at the expense of the primary sector, which lost on employment shares and importance. The secondary sector stayed about the same with a slight increase in the last decade (World Bank, 2019a).

In the **Global Competitiveness Index** of the WEF, Turkey ranks 61 out of 141 countries with 62.1/100 points in 2019 which is an improvement of 0.5 points compared to the year before. The reason for the improvement is – besides the large market size – the enhancement of infrastructure, ICT adoption and expansion of the labour market. High inflation and a decline in product market efficiency are factors inhibiting more competitiveness in the world economy (WEF, 2019).

In the **Global Innovation Index**, Turkey lost a few ranks in the recent years but now appears to be innovating more, with an index ranking of 49 out of 129 countries in 2019. This improved positioning is mainly due to trade, and market scale, as well as intangible assets (GII, 2019).

³ Due to rounding differences, the sum of all sectors is above 100 percent.

Figure 1: Employment by sector (as % of total employment), 1991-2019



Source: Own figure based on World Bank (2019a).

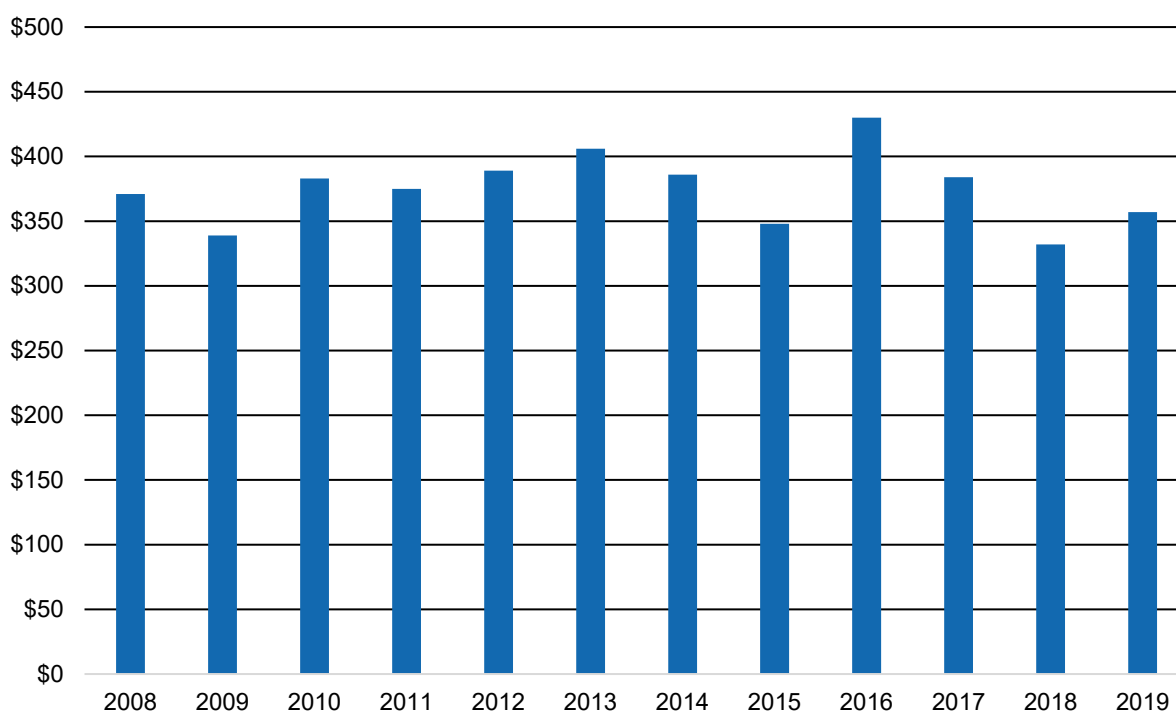
1.2 The Labour Market

In the first part of this section, we will describe the general situation of Turkey’s labour market. In the second part, we will refer to the youth labour market in particular.

1.2.1 Overview of the Turkish Labour Market

The labour force participation in Turkey shows an increasing tendency over the past years, resulting in an overall improvement of the labour market performance. Although the participation rate of women is still much lower than the one of men, and below the EU-Average, it has been increasing for a few years (ETF, 2012). Turkey has a national minimum wage. And the law establishes a 45-hour workweek with one weekly rest day. Nevertheless, the government did not effectively implement the laws concerning minimum wage and working hours in all sectors. Only in the unionized industrial, service and government sectors have the laws been enforced successfully (U.S. Department of State, 2018). Turkey’s minimum wage development is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Net minimum wage in USD, 2008-2019



Source: Own figure based on Bloomberg (2019).

The **OECD Index of Employment Protection** is a multidimensional index that quantifies the strictness of Employment Protection legislation (EPL) across countries. It is scaled between zero to six, where zero refers to a low level of EPL, and six to a high level of protection. In 2019, Turkey reached an average score of 3.0 over the four categories of the index. Where especially in the regulation on temporary forms of employment Turkey reached a high score of 4.9. In comparison, Greece's average score accounts for 2.7, Switzerland's for 2.1 and the average of all OECD countries for 2.3. This shows signs of a somewhat more restricted and protected Turkish labour market, when compared to other OECD countries (OECD, 2019).

Moreover, Turkey ranks 33rd out of 190 countries evaluated in the **Ease of Doing Business Index** (Greece ranks 79th), where a high ease of doing business ranking describes a more favourable regulatory environment to start and operate a local firm (World Bank, 2019b).

Table 2: Labour force participation rate and unemployment rate by age in 2018

Age group	Labour force participation rate (in %)		Unemployment rate (in %)	
	Turkey	OECD average	Turkey	OECD average
Total (15–64 years)	58.5	72.4	11.2	5.5
Youth (15–24 years)	44.0	47.5	20.3	11.1
Adults (25–64 years)	62.6	78.1	9.4	4.7

Source: Own table based on OECD (2018d)

Table 2 gives an overview of the Turkish labour force participation and unemployment rates in 2018. Turkey has in all age groups lower labour force participation rates than the OECD average and at the same time higher unemployment rates. A significant difference can be noted in the youth unemployment

rate (15-24 years), where Turkey has a rate of 20.3% compared to 11.1% of the OECD average (OECD, 2018d).

In terms of actual employment, Turkey has one of the lowest rates among OECD countries. Only 52% of the working age population (15-64 years) had a paid job in 2018. On the other hand, the government began giving out subsidies to businesses on the condition that they hire women and younger workers. This resulted in an increased labour market participation of 25-54-year-old women from 29.3% in 2008 to 37.3% in 2012. This, besides other improvements, raised the labour force participation rate and reduced the unemployment rate of the Turkish labour market in the recent years (OECD, 2018a).

Table 3: Labour force participation rate and unemployment rate by educational attainment in 2017 (persons aged 25–64)

Education level	Labour force participation rate (in %)		Unemployment rate (in %)	
	Turkey	OECD average	Turkey	OECD average
Less than upper secondary education	56.7	64.0	9.3	11.6
Upper secondary education	68.8	80.2	10.1	6.9
Tertiary education	82.8	88.3	9.4	4.6

Source: Own table based on OECD (2018c)

In contrast to Table 2, Table 3 illustrates the labour force participation and unemployment rates by education level. Overall, it clearly can be noticed that higher labour force participation rates go in line with increasing education levels. The only area where Turkey outperforms the OECD average (11.6%) is in the unemployment rate of below upper secondary level graduates (9.3%). Every other education category exhibits lower labour force participation, or higher unemployment, in Turkey than the OECD average (OECD, 2018c).

1.2.2 The Youth Labour Market

The KOF Swiss Economic Institute developed the KOF Youth Labour Market Index (KOF YLMI) to compare how adolescents participate in the labour market across countries (Renold et al., 2014). The foundation for this index is the critique that a single indicator, such as the unemployment rate, does not suffice to describe the youth labour market adequately nor provide enough information for a comprehensive cross-country analysis. To increase the amount of information analysed and to foster a multi-dimensional approach, the KOF YLMI consists of twelve labour market indicators⁴ that are grouped into four categories.

The first category describes the *activity state* of youth (ages 15-24 years old) in the labour market. Adolescents are classified according to whether they are employed, in education, or neither (unemployed, discouraged and neither in employment nor in education or training; see info box to the right). The category *working conditions* and the corresponding indicators reflect the type and quality of jobs the working youth have. The *education* category accounts for the share of adolescents in education and training and for the relevance of their skills on the labour market. The fourth category, *transition smoothness*, connects the other three categories by capturing the school-to-work transition phase of the youth. Each country obtains a score of 1 to 7 on each indicator of the KOF YLMI. A higher score reflects a more favourable situation regarding the youth labour market and a more efficient integration of the youth into the labour market.

Dimensions of the KOF YLMI

Activity state

- Unemployment rate
- Relaxed unemployment rate⁵
- Neither in employment nor in education or training rate (NEET rate)

Working conditions

- Rate of adolescents:
- with a temporary contract
 - in involuntary part-time work
 - in jobs with atypical working hours
 - in work at risk of poverty⁶
 - vulnerable unemployment rate⁷

Education

- Rate of adolescents in formal education and training
- Skills mismatch rate

Transition smoothness

- Relative unemployment ratio⁸
- Long-term unemployment rate⁹

Source: Renold et al. (2014).

One of the major drawbacks of the KOF YLMI is data availability. When data is lacking, a category can occasionally be based on a single indicator or must be omitted entirely when not a single indicator for that category exists in a given country. A lack of indicators can make comparisons across certain countries or groups of countries problematic and sometimes even impossible.

1.2.3 The KOF Youth Labour Market Index (KOF YLMI) for Turkey

In 2017, data for every category of the KOF YLMI was available for Turkey, which allows for a sound comparison with Greece and the OECD average. The OECD average is higher than Turkey in half of

⁴ The data for these indicators is collected from different international institutions and cover up to 178 countries for the period between 2005 and 2016.

⁵ It is calculated as the number of unemployed and discouraged workers as a share of the entire labour force. Discouraged workers have given up the search for work (not actively seeking), although they have no job and are currently available for work (also: "involuntary inactive").

⁶ Those who cannot make a decent living out their earnings, being at risk of poverty as a percentage of the working population.

⁷ Share of the employed population working on their own account or those working in their family business and thus contributing to the entire family income. Both are less likely to have formal work arrangements and are therefore less protected by labour laws and more exposed to economic risk.

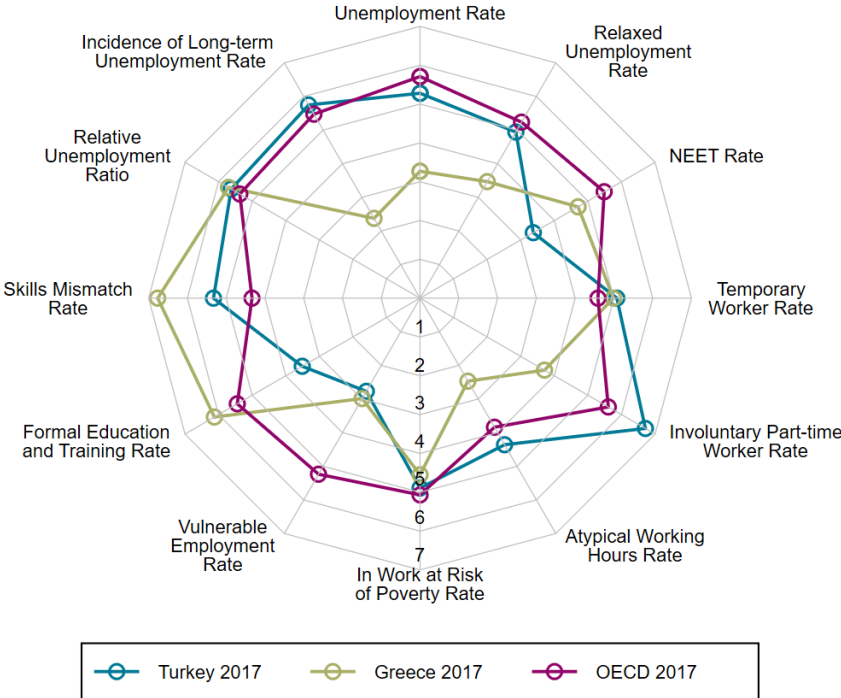
⁸ Is defined as the youth unemployment rate (15-24 years) as a share of the adult unemployment rate (25+). If the youth cohort is affected in the same way than the adult group with respect to unemployment, then the relative unemployment ratio will be equal to one. If the youth are relatively more affected, then the ratio will be bigger than one.

⁹ Those unemployed for more than one year (52 weeks) in the total number of unemployed (according to the ILO definition).

the total 12 sections (Figure 3). The three main differences where Turkey lags behind are: the NEET rate, the vulnerable employment rate and the formal education & training rate. On the other hand, Turkey performs well in the sectors of involuntary part-time worker rate, atypical working hours rate and skills mismatch rate. A similar pattern can be observed when comparing Turkey with the EU state of Greece. Turkey's performance in six indicators is better than Greece's, namely unemployment rate, relaxed unemployment rate, involuntary part-time worker rate, atypical working hours rate and incidence of long-term unemployment rate. Except in the NEET Rate, the formal education and training rate and the skills mismatch rate, Greece reached a considerably higher scores, proving a more favourable situation on the youth labour market overall and thus a more efficient labour market integration of the youth than in the case of Greece.

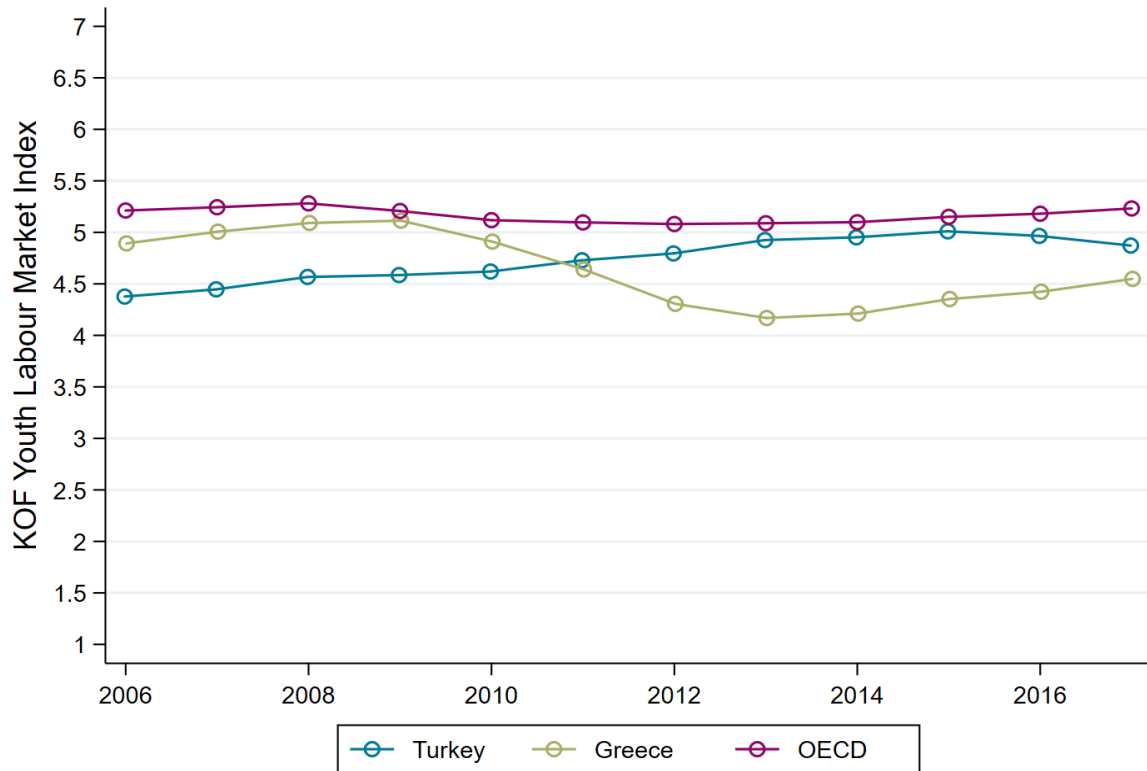
In Figure 4, the development of the KOF YLMI of Turkey over time is shown and is again compared to the one of Greece and the OECD average. Since 2017 was the first year a full data set of Turkey could be obtained, the period from 2006 to 2017 in this figure contains only 10 out of 12 indicators for the three countries. However, Turkey shows a clear improvement in these 10 indicators and therefore an increase of its YLMI over the recent years, converging towards the OECD average value. Only a very slight opposite tendency is visible for the last two years in the data set (2016 and 2017). As can be seen in the case of Greece, the world economic crisis in 2009 also affected the country's youth labour market strongly – as opposed to the average situation in the OECD. This resulted in a weakened YLMI for Greece until 2013. Since then, the index has recovered, but not yet to the pre-crisis level.

Figure 3: YLM Scoreboard: Turkey in comparison to Greece and the OECD average, 2017



Source: Own figure based on KOF (2019).

Figure 4: YLM Index: Turkey versus Greece and the OECD average, 2006-2017



Note: index based on common indicators available for the whole period considered.

Source: Own figure based on KOF (2019).

1.3 Turkey's Political System

Understanding the basics of a country's political system and getting to know the political goals with respect to its education system are crucial points for the understanding of the education system in a broader sense. In the first part, we explain Turkey's political system in general. The politics and goals regarding the education system will be referred to in the second part.

1.3.1 Overview of Turkey's Political System

Turkey has a democratic parliamentary republic system (Ankara Embassy, 2018) and consists of three different branches; the legislative, the executive and the judicial branch. The **legislative branch** is the Turkish Grand National Assembly (TGNA) and is made up of 550 deputies. Deputies stand for the interests and representations of the whole nation and are elected every four years. Duties of the TGNA include supervising of the Council of Ministers or pass and abrogate laws. The **executive branch** consists of the President of the Republic and the Council of Ministers (Cabinet). The President of the Republic represents the unity of the Turkish nation and is the head of the state. His function and authority concern the legislative, the executive and judicial fields and designates the prime minister. Members of the Council of Ministers are appointed by the President of the Republic and are responsible for the execution of general policies, including the formulation and implementation of internal and foreign policies of the state (Burak Sansal, 2019).

The Turkish democracy is considered to be a hybrid regime country with an overall score of 4.1/10 and rank 110 out of 167 countries of the **Economist's Democracy Index** of 2019 (Economist, 2019). In the **Corruption Perception Index** Turkey ranks 78th out of 180 with a score of 41 out of 100 in 2018

(Transparency International, 2018). Moreover, the **Government Effectiveness** of Turkey was evaluated with a percentile rank of 53.8 (0 being the lowest and 100 the highest government effectiveness rank) in comparison to all other ranked countries in 2018 (World Bank, 2018).

1.3.2 Politics and Goals of the Education System

The Ministry of National Education (MoNE) is responsible for the educational administration, the development of the curricula and for building schools in Turkey (OECD, 2018a). Every citizen has the right of education and the compulsory primary education is free of charge. Since Turkey has – compared to other OECD countries – a higher proportion of residents under the age of 15, the main challenge is to ensure the completion of the education for all students. At the same time, trying to maintain the quality and equity of the education on a high level is another challenge which comes with the high proportion of youth population. An additional focus of the MoNE lies on the improvement of access and completion of secondary and vocational education and training (VET), as well as tertiary education (OECD, 2013).

2. Formal System of Education

The Turkish Education System is structured in primary, secondary, and tertiary education (OECD, 2013). Children enter the 12-year compulsory education at the age of 6. Since the new reform in 2012, these 12 compulsory years are divided into “4-4-4” years of primary, lower and upper secondary education. Therefore, graduates finish secondary education with 18 and can then either enter the labour market, or continue on to higher tertiary education (Burak Sansal, 2019). Figure 5 gives an overview of the education system.

Table 4 shows the gross enrolment ratio (GER)¹⁰ and net enrolment ratio (NER)¹¹ by education level for the year 2017. The NER quantifies the total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given education level enrolled at that level expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group. The GER quantifies the number of students enrolled at a given education level – irrespective of their age – as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education. For example, for the primary education level, the NER tells how many students in the typical primary school age are actually enrolled in primary school, while the GER sets the actual number of students in primary education – irrespective of their age – in relation to those who are in the official age to attend primary education¹².

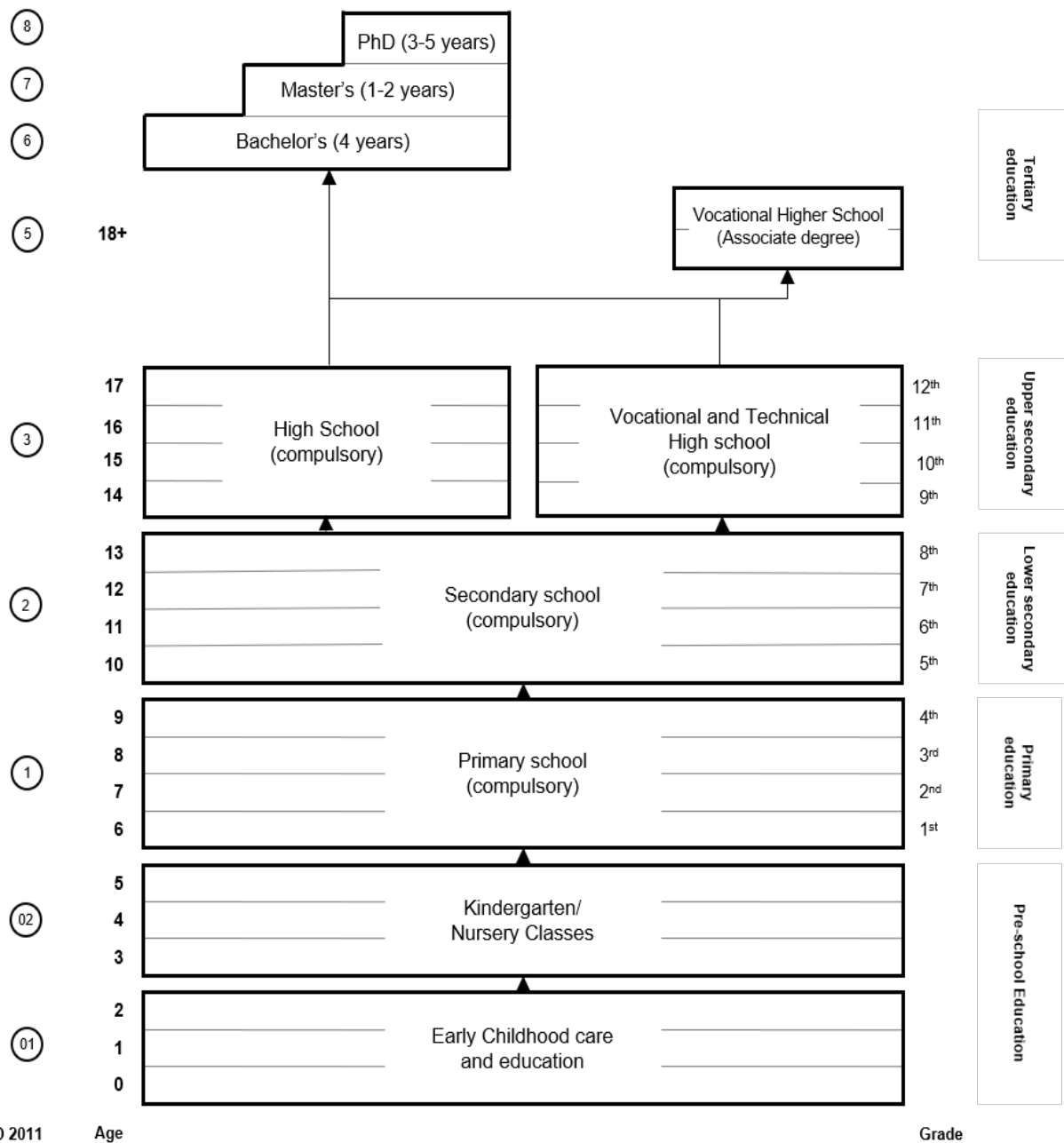
Turkey did undergo a decrease in NER in the recent years (UNESCO, 2019a). However, still more than 87% of the youth population is enrolled in a compulsory education programme, also seen by the high numbers of the GER, where 108.3% (due to the inclusion of over-aged and under-aged students because of early or late entrants, and grade repetition) attended an upper secondary education. This indicates a high supply of educated students, willing to enter the labour market or a higher education institution (UNESCO, 2019a).

¹⁰ The UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) (2017) defines the gross enrolment ratio as the “number of students enrolled in a given level of education, regardless of age, expressed as a percentage of the official school-age population corresponding to the same level of education.”

¹¹ The UIS (2017) defines the net enrolment ratio as the “Total number of students in the theoretical age group for a given level of education enrolled in that level, expressed as a percentage of the total population in that age group.”

¹² A gross enrollment ratio of 100 corresponds to a situation where each child in a given country is enrolled in the corresponding education level. A value above 100 could occur due to students who are older than the typical enrolment age for primary education (e.g. must repeat grade, adult learners). A value below 100 implies that not everyone who is in the typical age for primary education is actually enrolled.

Figure 5: ISCED 2011 Mapping Turkey's Education System, 2018



Source: Own figure based on OECD (2020).

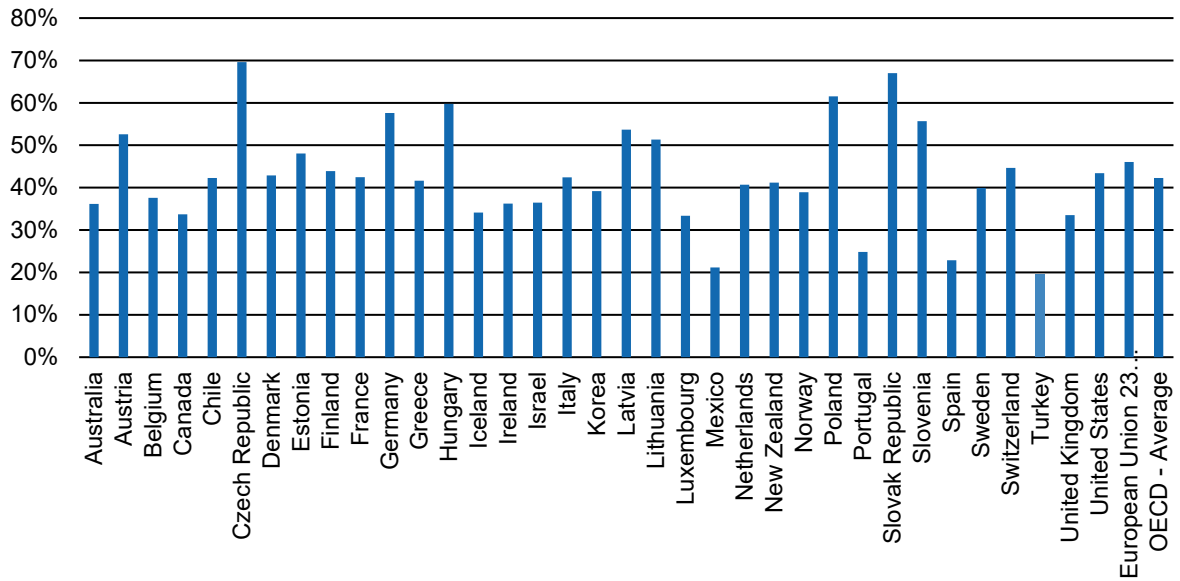
Table 4: Net Enrolment Rate (NER) and Gross enrolment ratio (GER), 2017

Educational level	ISCED 2011	Net Enrolment Ratio	Gross Enrolment Ratio
Early childhood educational development programmes	010	n/a	19.7
Pre-primary education	020	32.7	32.7
Primary education	1	87.9	93.2
Secondary education	2 – 3	87.2	106.0
<i>Lower secondary education</i>	2	89.0	103.6
<i>Upper secondary education</i>	3	81.0	108.3
<i>Percentage enrolled in vocational secondary education</i>	2-3	25.9	n/a
Compulsory education age group	1-3	90.5	n/a
Post-secondary non-tertiary education	4	n/a	n/a
Tertiary education	5 – 8	n/a	n/a
<i>Short-cycle tertiary education</i>	5	n/a	n/a
<i>Bachelor or equivalent level</i>	6	n/a	n/a
<i>Master or equivalent level</i>	7	n/a	n/a
<i>Doctoral or equivalent level</i>	8	n/a	n/a

Source: Own table based on UNESCO (2019a).

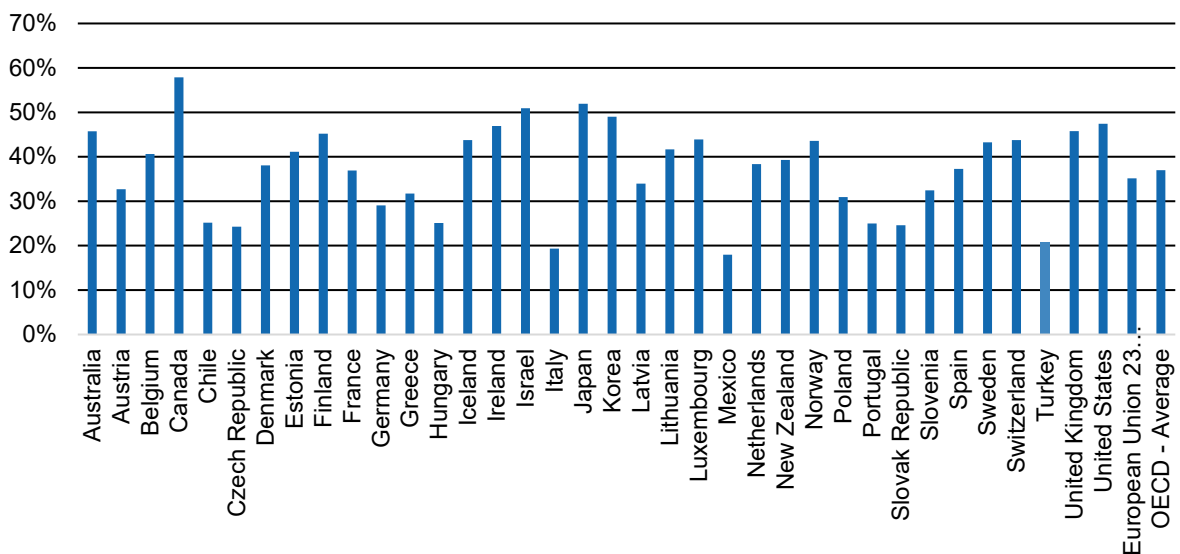
Turkey has the lowest population percentage – in comparison to other OECD countries – that has attained an upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education (Figure 6). The same applies for the percentage of population that has attained tertiary education, where Turkey has the third lowest attendance (Figure 7). This could be another explanation for the high unemployment rate and the low labour market participation. Greece, on the other hand, appears to have a much higher enrolment of both education levels, and is comparable to Switzerland and the OECD average when it comes to the upper secondary level (OECD, 2018c).

Figure 6: Percentage of population that has attained upper secondary or post-secondary non-tertiary education in OECD countries, 2018



Source: Own figure based on OECD (2018c).

Figure 7: Percentage of population that has attained tertiary education in OECD countries, 2018



Source: Own figure based on (2018c).

2.1 Pre-Primary Education

Pre-primary education is optional for children of the ages between three and five. The programmes are financed by the state and offered in independent kindergartens, pre-primary classes in primary schools and practice classes. There are also crèches (day nursery) and other day care centres for children in the age group of 0-5 years. The purpose of these programmes is to educate children in physical, mental, social, and sensory development and to prepare them for primary education. In 2017, 32.7% of the

children in the age of pre-primary education were enrolled in one or more learning programmes (UNESCO, 2019b).

2.2 Primary and Lower Secondary Education

Primary and lower secondary education both last 4 years and are compulsory for every child regardless of their gender in Turkey. Children enter the primary education at the age of six and continue with lower secondary education at the age of ten unless they had to repeat a school year. Public schools are free of charge, whereas private schools do not receive state funds and fees vary from school to school. However, private schools are under state control. The Ministry of National Education is the responsible administrative body. 93.2% and 103.6% were enrolled in a primary or lower secondary education in 2017 respectively (UNESCO, 2019a). The core subjects at primary level are math, Turkish, “Life Knowledge” and a foreign language. The foreign language varies from school to school but in most cases is English. Some public schools teach German or French instead of English and in some private schools even two foreign languages are taught at this level of education. At the lower secondary level, “life knowledge” is replaced by science and social studies, where in the last grade “the Turkish History of Revolution and Kemalism” is considered as a further core subject (OECD, 2013).

2.3 Upper Secondary Education

At this level, students can decide between a general, a vocational, or a technical high school programme. Each programme lasts 4 years and is compulsory for every student graduating from lower secondary school. In case of a successful completion of primary, lower, and upper secondary education, students reach the age of 18 and are then able to enter the labour market or continue onto higher education. In 2017, 108.3% of the corresponding age population were enrolled in an upper secondary education programme (UNESCO, 2019a). High schools are usually owned by the government and offer free educational opportunities. By contrast, private high schools charge tuition fees (Burak Sansal, 2019).

There exist selective entry tests for **general high schools**, which differ from school to school. As a consequence, the entry into an upper secondary general high school depends on the result of the examination at the end of lower secondary level. Students aim to attend a highly selective elite high school to increase the chance to later be admitted to a university. Students at general high schools can typically choose between four different tracks: mathematics, science, social science, and foreign languages. Since the new reform of 2012, all graduates receive the same standard high school diplomas instead of the track-specific diplomas issued prior to the reform. After these four years, students need to pass the high school finishing examination to be granted access to the university entrance exam. The graduation rate for this upper secondary programme of 56% is below the OECD average of 83% (OECD, 2013).

Vocational and Educational Training (VET) in Turkey comes in the form of **vocational or technical high school** programmes including apprenticeships, where students spend most of their time at the workplace. There are two different diplomas graduates can get after successfully absolving a VET programme: Secondary technical school diploma and secondary vocational school diploma. Both diplomas enable students to take the university entrance examination. However, it is more common for VET graduates to enrol in a higher vocational school or enter the labour market (WENR, 2017). The VET system in Turkey will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

2.4 Postsecondary and Higher Education

Admission for higher tertiary education in Turkey is based on a grade average of secondary education and a two-stage entrance admission test (WENR, 2017). Usually, students who have completed a general high school programme pursue university studies, whereas graduates of vocational or technical high school continue their studies at a technical institute. For the first stage of the admission, students must take the so-called Transition to Higher Education Examination (*Yükseköğretime Geçiş Sınavı*), where standard subjects such as Turkish, mathematics, social science and science are tested in a multiple-choice exam. Students with sufficiently high results are then admitted to an Undergraduate Placement Examination (*Lisans Yerleştirme Sınavı*), which also consist of a similar range of subjects. In recent years, the number of students aiming to pass the two-stage university entrance examination has increased drastically. As a result, university admissions have become more competitive (WENR, 2017).

Undergraduate programmes at universities usually last 4 years (WENR, 2017). After the four-year-programme, students receive a bachelor's degree and may continue their studies with a two-year higher education programme which leads to a master's degree. Professional degree programmes such as Medicine, Dentistry, Architecture or Engineering last 5 or 6 years and are equivalent to a master's degree (of applied science). Access to doctoral programmes requires a master's degree and can be completed after a minimum of four years with a doctoral thesis.

Students who want to be further educated in a vocational or technical programme can apply for a non-university associate degree, which lasts two years. Such programmes often include a practical training component and are meant to prepare absolvents for employment (WENR, 2017).

While higher education is optional, graduates of tertiary education within the age group of 25 and 34 can expect to earn 56% more than graduates of upper-secondary education (compared to the OECD average of 40% in 2011) (OECD, 2013).

State universities receive most of their funding from the annual state budget. Other sources of income are services provided by the university itself, and student tuition fees. Public universities, thus, have much lower student fees, because they receive most of the financial support from the government (OECD, 2013; Burak Sansal, 2019).

2.5 Continuing Education (Adult Education)

There is very limited information available regarding continuing education in Turkey. Still, there appears to be an adult education system is administered by the MoNE. The MoNE provides adult education through the General Directorate of Lifelong Learning. The goal of the adult education programmes is primarily to focus on good citizenship and personal development, although there is also great emphasis on employability and skills development for industry (EAEA, 2011, p. 4).

Adult education in Turkey is primarily provided in three different ways: **non-vocational non-formal learning**, **open education programmes** and **e-learning**. The primary providers of non-vocational non-formal learning are public education centres, which exist in all provinces and districts of Turkey. These provide free education services and target individuals who lack some sort of education, workers with no formal qualifications, immigrant workers, and rural workers who have emigrated to the cities (EAEA, 2011, pp. 6-7). Next, open education programmes are provided by the Open High School, the Vocational Open High School, and the Open College. They programme relies on mainly distance learning with only few face-to-face learning sessions. Lastly, e-learning is provided mainly by the Anadolu University. In 2011, over 1 million students were enrolled in an e-learning programme. The courses and degrees

available are expected to increase in the future, due to high demand in the e-learning sector (EAEA, 2011, p. 8).

2.6 Teacher Education

At pre-primary, primary and secondary education levels teacher are required to have a bachelor's degree in order to teach in Turkey. Teacher training curricula include specialisation and pedagogical subjects as well as teacher training and certification. Teacher trainees can either choose between a bachelor's degree in education or a postgraduate training following a bachelor's degree in a non-teaching subject (WENR, 2017). In addition to that, teachers must pass the Public Staff Selection Exam. They are then placed in schools by the MoNE based on the exam results. The test also includes assessments on subject-specific knowledge (OECD, 2013).

3. The System of Vocational and Professional Education and Training

This section of the Factbook describes the vocational education and training (VET) system at the upper secondary level and the professional education and training system (PET) at the tertiary level in more detail. Thereby, the term vocational and professional education and training (VPET) refers to both the VET and the PET system.

3.1 Vocational Education and Training (VET; Upper Secondary Education Level)

As can be seen in Figure 5, Turkey's education system consists of TVET at the upper secondary level. After eight years of primary and lower secondary school, students decide if they want to enrol at a high school to pursue a general education or enter a TVET school to gain more practical knowledge. From this point on, the term TVET is used for the upper secondary TVET education.

The **Vocational and Technical Education General Directorate** (VTEGD), a subdivision of the MoNE, is responsible for the TVET system in Turkey (MoNE, 2018, p. 1).

In general, VET is divided into formal vocational education and non-formal vocational education. While non-formal VET is provided mainly in Vocational Open Education High Schools primarily through distance learning, formal VET is provided by three types of schools: **Vocational Anatolian High Schools**, **Technical Anatolian High Schools**, and **Vocational Education Centres** (VECs) (MoNE, 2018, pp. 23-24).

Furthermore, these programmes consist of one year of common general education (9th grade), after which students engage in field education for one year (10th grade) (MoNE, 2018, p. 25). The 11th and 12th grade then conclude the respective programme with branch-specific education. The students must choose their specialisation from a wide variety of 54 professional fields (e.g. justice, IT, office management, child development, handicraft technology, etc.) and 199 branches within those fields at the end of 9th grade (MoNE, 2018, pp. 23-24). The available branches depend on the preceding choice of professional field. The **main differences between Anatolian institutions and others** is that in Anatolian schools, a foreign language may be used as the primary language of instruction for some subjects (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013, p. 9).

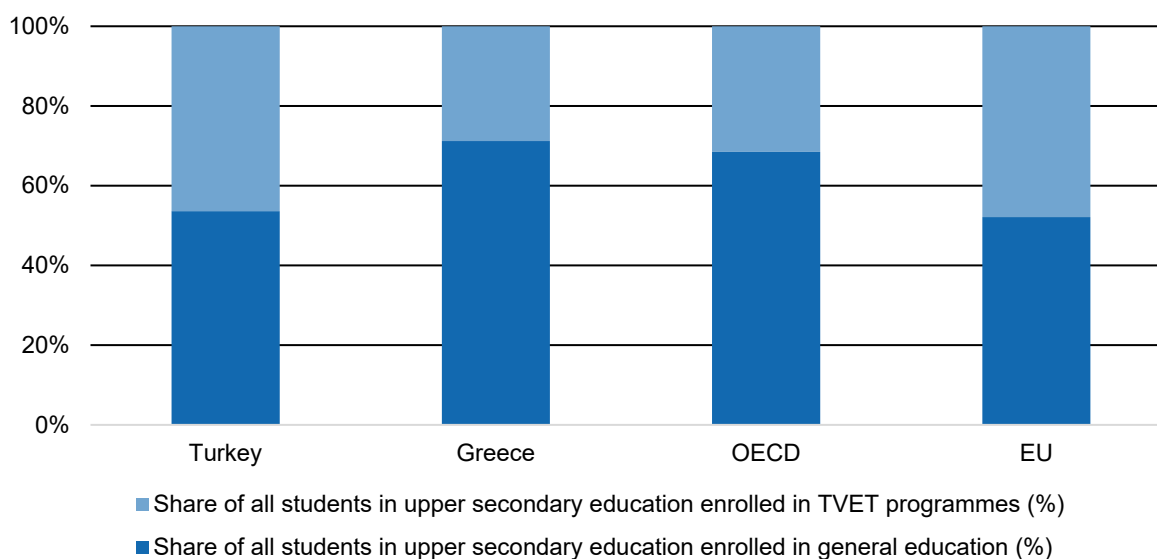
Because of limited on-the-job training at Anatolian institutions, the Turkish Employment Agency offers on-the-job trainings in the summer holidays for students aged 15 and above.

Thirdly, **VECs** offer 4-year journeyman and mastership training, comparable to apprenticeship programmes in other countries (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013, p. 13). Because VECs are more practically focused, their curricula consist of 4-5 days of on-the-job training. In addition, students must find a suitable workplace and master instructor, after which they may submit a vocational education contract with the MoNE to start the training. As part of the VEC training, students must take skill tests at the end of

every year from 10th grade. After successful completion of 12th grade, students receive a mastership and journeyman certificate, which enables them to pursue higher education. In contrast to the Anatolian programmes, the VEC programmes require one to select a branch-specific education at the beginning of the 9th grade. 27 fields and 142 branches are offered in VECs, which is less than in Anatolian programmes. An evaluation of all fields shows that 55.6% of all TVET graduates are males and 44.4% are females. There are significant differences in gender distribution when comparing fields (MoNE, 2018, p. 28).

Figure 8 shows the share of all students in upper secondary education enrolled in VET programmes for different countries. Two things are of note: First, Turkey places 46% of its upper secondary students in VET, compared to neighbouring Greece with only 29%. This indicates that the TVET education is more popular in Turkey. Second, Turkey has about the same share of upper secondary students in VET as the EU average.

Figure 8: Distribution of enrolment by programme orientation, 2017

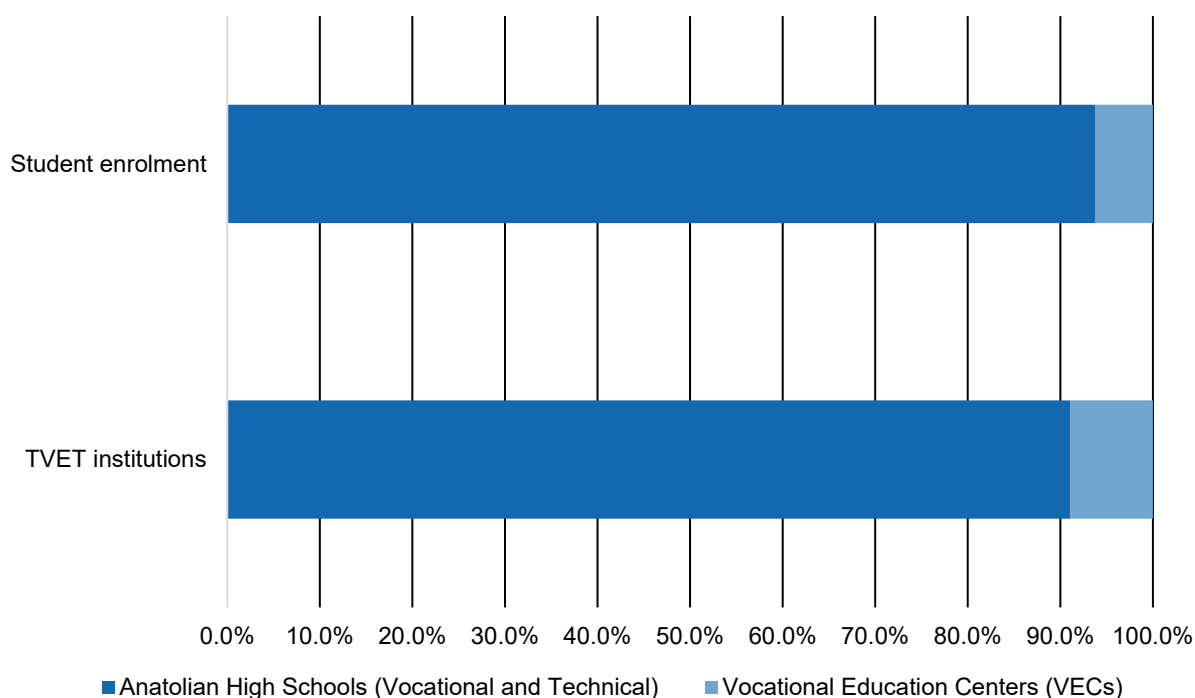


Source: Own figure based on World Bank (2020).

In 2017, the NER for upper secondary education was 81.0% (see Table 4). Furthermore, Figure 8 shows that 46.4% of all students enrolled in upper secondary education are enrolled in TVET programmes instead of general education. Consequently, the **NER for vocational and technical upper secondary education is 37.6%**. In comparison, OECD estimates from 2017 show a NEET rate of 15.5% among the 15 to 19 year olds. Furthermore, estimates show that the NEET rate is 8.9 percentage points higher for women than for men (OECD, 2017b).

Figure 9 shows a clear picture pointing out that Anatolian schools are significantly more popular. In addition, MoNE (2018, p. 34) data from 2017 suggests that 6.7% of all students enrolled in TVET attend private TVET high schools, whereas the same rate is 4.3% for private primary enrolment (World Bank, 2020).

Figure 9: TVET institutions by provider, 2017



Source: Own figure based on MoNE (2018, pp. 33-34).

3.2 Professional Education and Training (PET; Post-Secondary Level)

Graduates from a TVET school have the possibility to enrol in a 2-year programme offered by **vocational higher education** schools without taking the entrance examination. After passing the 2-year programme, students from vocational higher schools get awarded an associate degree. Vocational higher schools are run by foundations and are usually part of a university or higher technology institution. In 2012, there were only eight vocational higher education programmes (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013). Since higher education in Turkey is not under the supervision of the MoNE, higher education institutions are autonomously organised. Nevertheless, higher education is represented in the Council of Higher Education, which itself is part of the MoNE. Higher education institutions annually report changes and developments. Data on those offerings is very limited and hard to come by, as almost all websites are in Turkish.

3.3 Regulatory and Institutional Framework of the VPET System

3.3.1 Central Elements of VPET Legislation

The following are the most relevant administrative legislations concerning Turkey's VPET system (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013; MoNE, 2018):

1973: **Basic Law of National Education no. 1739** (amended by Law No. 2842 and 4306) → Initial specification of education system objectives, structure, and principles.

1977: **Law no. 2089** → Apprenticeship training in VECs included in the vocational education system.

1986: **Vocational Education Law no. 3308** → Basic vocational education was reorganised in a system including “formal”, “apprenticeship”, and “non-formal education”. Furthermore, social partners were given important roles in the planning, implementation, and evaluation of formal, apprenticeship-based and non-formal vocational education. In this regard, the national-level Vocational Education Council within the MoNE and the Provincial Vocational Education Councils were established.

1992: **Law no. 3797** → Restructuring of the MoNE into the following institutions: General Directorate for Boys’ Technical Education; General Directorate for Girls’ Technical Education; General Directorate for Commerce and Tourism Education; Department of Health Affairs; Apprenticeship, Vocational and Technical Education Development and Dissemination Department; and Education Research and Development Department.

2001: **Law no. 4702** (amendment of Law No. 3308) → Stipulates the creation of vocational and technical education zones comprising TVET upper secondary education institutions. The law also enables TVET graduates to have access to 2-year tertiary-level education institutions to pursue further education in their TVET fields.

2006: **Law no. 5544** → Creation of the Vocational Qualifications Authority, which is responsible for the national professional qualifications’ framework¹³ in TVET areas based on professional standards and carrying out activities related to supervision, assessment and evaluation, and certification.

2011: **Decree Law no. 652** → The six units responsible for conducting vocational and technical education at the MoNE have been merged under the Vocational and Technical Education General Directorate (VTEGD). Moreover, non-formal vocational education and open education institutions have been gathered under the General Directorate for Life-Long Learning (GDLLL).

3.3.2 Key Actors

Government

Within the MoNE, the **VTEGD** supervises the administrative legislation related to formal and non-formal education (except for higher education). Further, the MoNE is responsible for preparing the curriculum, maintaining coordination between educational institutions, construction of school buildings, etc. (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013). The execution of educational activities is organised by the **Provincial Directorates of Education** and the **District Directorates of Education**. This includes all TVET schools. Turkey has 81 provinces and 973 districts, each province and district has exactly one directorate of education. Inspectors of the MoNE hold the responsibility for evaluating and supervising the secondary education institutions (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

The Turkish Vocational Qualification Authority, founded in 2006, is responsible for the national qualifications’ framework. It must monitor that professional standards are met in the TVET programmes.

¹³ See. Appendix for Turkish Qualifications Framework.

Representation and advisory bodies

The National Council for Education is the highest decision-making entity of the MoNE. It consists of relevant stakeholders. It delivers decisions on education which are implemented after being approved by the government. In addition, it gives feedback, prepares drafts of regulations and contract models for apprentices, identifies the educational needs for all sectors of TVET, and keeps track of the effects on TVET changes.

The Board of Education consults the Minister of Education (currently, Ziya Selçuk) in all education-related issues. Furthermore, it develops visions (like the 2023 Vision in TVET; see Section 4.1), conducts educational research, and prepares curricula and educational materials.

The Education and Science Workers' Union is a left-wing trade union for teachers and other education workers in Turkey. The union was founded in 1995 and had around 200'000 members as of 2005 (Eğitim Sen, 2020).

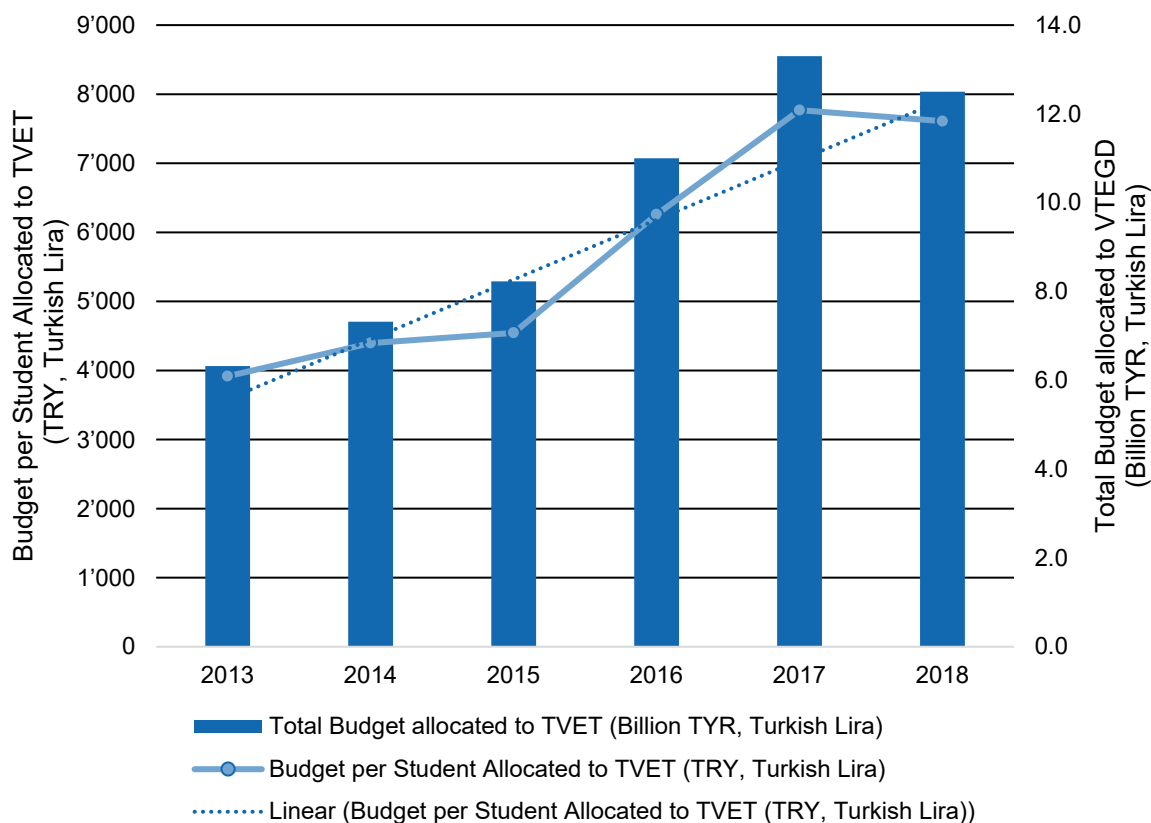
Education and training providers

As outlined in section 3.1, TVET providers can be categorized into vocational and technical Anatolian high schools, vocational education centres, which provide apprenticeship training, religious institutions (*Imam-Hatip* secondary schools), and private vocational high schools. For more information on what programmes these institutions provide see section 3.1. In total, there are over 17 different types of TVET institutions (MoNE, 2018).

3.4 Educational Finance of the VPET System

Figure 10 illustrates the annual budget for TVET and the budget per student. The exponential trend line for the budget per student shows that TVET budget has increased significantly from 2013 to 2018. The total budget allocated to TVET has almost doubled from 6.3 to 12.5 billion Turkish Lira in that 6-year period.

Figure 10: Annual changes in budget allocated to TVET and budget per student (inflation-adjusted), 2013-2018



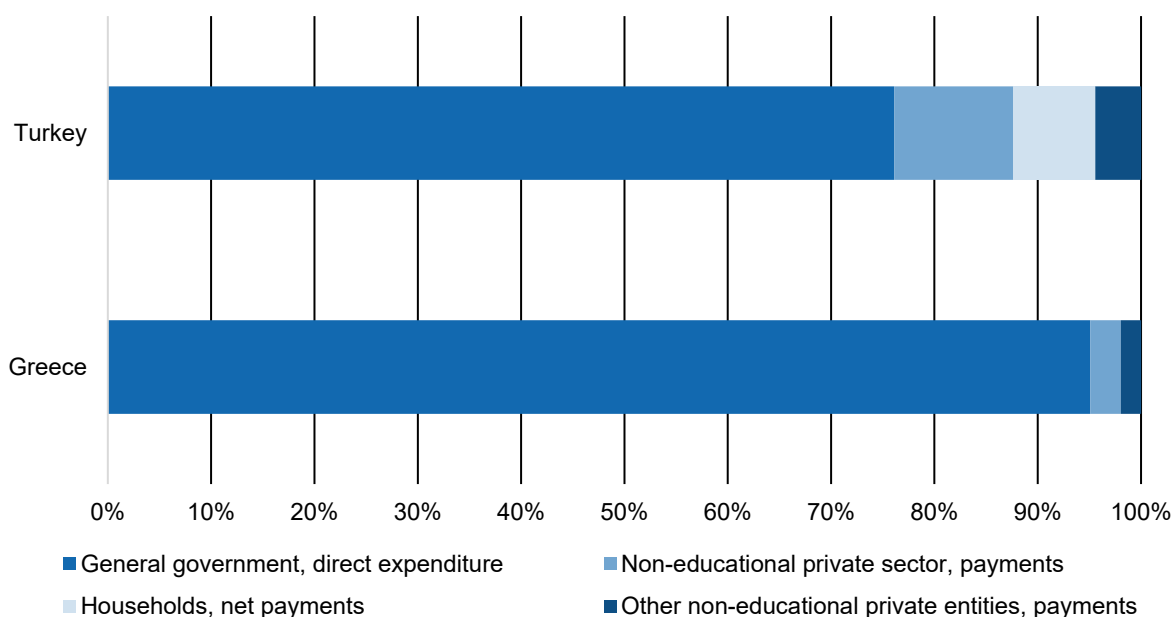
Source: Own figure based on MoNE (2018, p. 27).

In the time period from 2009 until 2012, the portion of the total MoNE budget allocated for TVET averaged at around 12.4% (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013, p. 17).

Furthermore, Turkey spent 4.8% of its GDP on education in 2015. Compared to neighbouring Greece with 3.9% of Greece's GDP in the same year, Turkey is spending, on relative terms, more of its GDP on education. Out of the 4.8% education spending of the GDP, 1% of GDP refers to private spending¹⁴ and 3.8% to public spending (World Bank, 2020).

¹⁴ Private spending includes payment of salaries for apprentices, financing private training facilities, etc.

Figure 11: TVET expenditure by households, public and private sector, 2016



Source: Own figure based on OECD (2016).

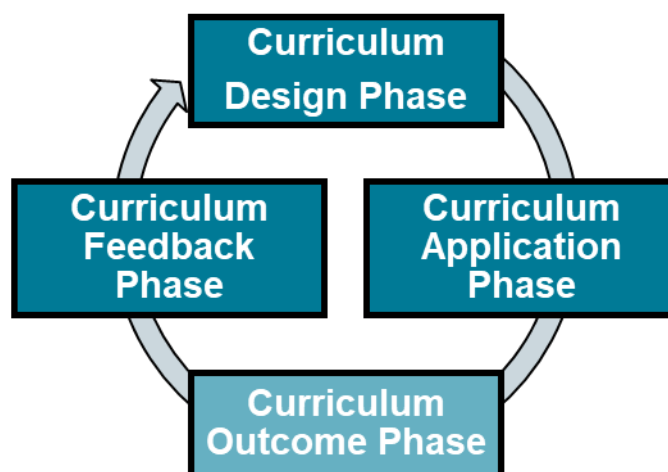
Figure 11 shows a comparison of Turkey and Greece regarding the TVET expenditure by households, public and private sector. The figure clearly shows that Turkey has more diverse investors in the TVET system than Greece. Still, with 86%, Turkey's TVET system is mainly financed by the government through direct expenditure. In addition, it can be observed that 18% of total TVET expenditure comes from the private sector.

Unfortunately, there is no information on vocational higher education (PET) financing available.

3.5 Curriculum Development

The curriculum is a central element for the functioning of a TVET system because it defines the framework and the (quality) standards for the education system. The development of a curriculum can be decomposed into a three-step process with a curriculum design, a curriculum application, and a curriculum feedback phase. This theoretical concept is called the Curriculum Value Chain and is depicted in the picture below (CVC; for more details see Renold et al., 2015; Rageth & Renold, 2019).

Figure 12: Curriculum Value Chain



Source: Renold et al. (2015) and Rageth & Renold (2019).

In the curriculum design phase, the relevant actors decide upon VET curriculum content and qualification standards. Therefore, the discussion in the respective subchapter below focuses on the degree and the amount of stakeholder participation concerning curriculum design in Turkey. The curriculum application phase revolves around the implementation of the curriculum. Because learning environments differ substantially across countries, especially with respect to the prevalence of workplace learning, the curriculum application phase subchapter in this factbook focuses on those learning environments. Specifically, it addresses where learning takes place and whether the curriculum dictates both school and workplace learning or only one of the two. Finally, curriculum outcomes can be collected and analysed in the curriculum feedback phase. This evaluation process is important because it may render a more refined curriculum design than was possible in the first place.

3.5.1 Curriculum Design Phase

The design phase is crucial for the whole curriculum process. To ensure that the skills taught in the VPET programmes correspond to the needs of the labour market, experts from companies should be involved in defining the qualification standards and learning contents of the curricula.

The **Board of Education** is responsible for the preparation of the curricula and educational materials in Turkey's education system. The development is a continuous process which is based on institutional cooperation and participation of different stakeholders. The relevant stakeholders included in the process are the MoNE, the Ministry of Family, Labour and Social Services, the Vocational Qualifications Authority, the vocational and technical high schools, the vocational education centres, and the students. This process consists of making decisions on learning objectives, selecting the learning contents and teaching methods, developing or improving the teaching materials and evaluating the curriculum (UNESCO-IBE, 2010, p. 9). Thus, curricula are determined at a national level.

From 1997 to 2004, taking into account the interests and aspirations of students, 878 curricula for all education levels were developed and implemented. The curricula of that period were also designed to be conforming to EU standards (UNESCO-IBE, 2010).

The TVET system has been subject to development of modular TVET curricula since 1993. An EU funded TVET project introduced competency based modular TVET curricula. Thus, nowadays TVET students have the possibility to choose from up to 54 professional fields and 199 branches. These offerings can vary, depending on the local TVET schools' offerings.

3.5.2 Curriculum Application Phase

The way in which a curriculum is implemented, especially with respect to learning environments, is important to achieve the intended learning outcome.

At the secondary education level, the implementation of curricula is carried out in cooperation between the stakeholders mentioned in the Curriculum Design Phase Section. Whereas the Vocational Qualifications Authority primarily coordinates the cooperation and supervises the implementation and its alignment with the Vocational Qualifications Framework (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

At the tertiary education level, the same responsibilities are held by the Council for Higher Education. They oversee the implementation of the Higher Education Qualifications Framework, which is in line with the Qualifications Framework of the European Higher Education Area (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

At secondary education level, the quality assurance system is made up of two levels. At a national level, the VTEGD and the Presidency of Guidance and Supervision of the MoNE and at a local level the Provincial Presidency of Education Supervisors are responsible for the quality assurance of the TVET system. At a local level, guidance, evaluation, supervision, research, investigation, analysis and on-job training services for all grades and types of TVET are conducted. On the other hand, at a national level services for the central ministerial staff including administrative, financial, and legal operations are carried out (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

There are no legal acts discussing quality assurance as such, but there are legal acts discussing top-level quality management: the directive for implementation of Total Quality Management no. 2506 of the MoNE was put in place in 1999 (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

At tertiary education level, the quality assurance is conducted by the Higher Education Supervision Board, a part of the Higher Education Council. It is in charge of external evaluation of universities, curricula, staff, and activities at the tertiary level, including higher vocational programmes (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

3.5.3 Curriculum Feedback Phase

The curriculum feedback phase deals with the question of whether and how educational outcomes are analysed. Based on this, the curriculum could be re-worked and improved.

3.6 Supplying Personnel for the VPET System (Teacher Education)

All teachers are required to hold a higher education degree regardless of the educational level at which they teach. The minimum requirement is a master's degree (5-year programme) in the case of secondary school teachers. Thus, teacher training is provided by universities. In 2009, the Faculty of Technical Education and the Faculty of Vocational Education were closed, because of employment problems that graduates from these faculties faced. New colleges called Faculty of Technology, Faculty of Art and Design and Faculty of Tourism were put into place. Graduates of these new faculties can also become teachers at technical or vocational high schools if they take pedagogical courses (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013, p. 18).

Teacher training programmes were changed in 2006/07 to the following distribution of programmes components: 50-60% studies of field knowledge and skills, 25-30% professional knowledge and skills, and 15-20% general culture subjects. In addition, new subjects were added, including history of science,

effective communication, school administration, and social services practice and IT training became compulsory.

Teachers' evaluation is conducted by the school principals, school administrators (in the case of secondary education) and externally by national inspectors. In-service training for teachers is organized locally and is credited for career progression.

4. Major Reforms in the Past and Challenges for the Future

4.1 Major Reforms

This section focuses on the major national reforms concerning the TVET system in Turkey. The most important reforms of the TVET system are as follows:

2005: **Project for Strengthening Vocational and Technical Education** → This project introduced modularisation to TVET programmes. Specifically, the students were given the possibility to choose their fields and branches from a wide selection of each (UNESCO-IBE, 2010).

2010-2013: **Project for Strengthening Vocational Qualifications and National Qualifications System in Turkey** → This project aimed to ensure the provision of formal and non-formal TVET according to labour market needs, supporting lifelong learning, strengthening the relation between education and employment, and facilitate harmonisation with European Qualifications Framework (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2010-2013: **Movement of Enhancing Opportunities and Improving Technologies** (national project) → Among the most significant education investments, this project aimed to equip 42'000 classes with the latest IT equipment in order to improve the efficient usage of ICT tools in schools and train teachers to use those tools (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2010-2015: **Specialised TVET Centres for Employment Project** (national project) → The project aimed to strengthen the technological infrastructure of 140 TVET schools, provide in-service training for TVET teachers, map demand for qualified workers, and provide on-the-job training to nearly 1 million apprentices (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2011-2013: **Project of Improving Lifelong Learning** (in cooperation with the EU) → This project promoted the development and implementation of comprehensive lifelong learning strategies and establish a framework for lifelong learning in line with EU practices so as to support individuals' access to education (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2011-2015: **Operation to Improve the Quality of TVET** (in cooperation with the EU) → Establishment of a vocational education quality assurance system (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2013-2015: **Increasing Schooling Rate of Girls Project** (in cooperation with the EU) → Increase enrolment rates of girls and improve the linkage between education and the labour market (UNESCO-UNEVOC, 2013).

2023 Vision in TVET for a better future → To achieve the targets set by the 2023 TVET Vision, a campaign to improve the public perception of TVET is in the works. This also includes identifying students' professional interests and abilities, updating the TVET contents, enhancing on-the-job training opportunities for teachers, aligning the ICT infrastructure nationwide with evolving technology demand, increasing private sector involvement in TVET, and smoothening the transition process from TVET to higher education (MoNE, 2018, p. 21).

International Relations in TVET

The Turkish VTEGD is cooperating with foreign partners and committees in assessing and comparing the quality of the Turkish TVET system. In that regard, Turkey has three main partners (MoNE, 2018, pp. 115-118):

1. **European Commission:** This cooperation includes attendance in the Advisory Committee for Vocational Training (2 meetings per year), attendance in the Group of Vocational Training General Directors (2 meetings per year), attendance in the European Alliance for Apprenticeships, whose objective it is to strengthen the quality, supply and image of apprenticeship training in Europe, attendance in the European Training Foundation, latest highlight was the Riga Decision and Monitoring Process, and, lastly, attendance in the European Quality Assurance in Vocational Education and Training.
2. **Japan International Cooperation Agency:** Operations with the Turkish Cooperation and Coordination Agency included a project between MoNE and Japan International Cooperation Agency from 2013 and 2015, where the objective was establishing the field of industrial automation technologies in TVET schools. In this context, 24 teachers received VET training in Japan for 6-9 months, relevant training materials were developed during that time.

United Nations Development Programme: A project among the UNDP, the Ministry of Environment & Urbanization and the Global Environment Facility that was conducted between 2011 and 2017 implemented energy efficiency in TVET buildings to reduce the associated greenhouse gas emissions. In addition, the project includes the implementation of a new TVET programme, namely the field of renewable energy technologies.

4.2 Major Challenges

Turkey's VPET system is key to the country's development as almost 50% of upper secondary students attend a TVET school programme. To conclude this factbook, the most important challenges affecting the TVET system are summarised as follows (MoNE, 2018, pp. 121-124):

- **Low prestige of VPET:** In Turkey, general and higher education are regarded as yielding more social and economic benefits than VPET. This leads to fewer successful students choosing VPET. The visibility of VPET should be strengthened through practice role models.
- **The lack of involvement of the private sector** in the VPET processes results in poor employability for VPET graduates.
- The transition route from TVET to VPET is rarely taken because it appears that **higher education does not benefit TVET graduates sufficiently.**
- **No assessment and evaluation system** based on learning outcomes, objective criteria and providing feedback for policy-makers is in place.
- **Inadequate financial resources for teachers training** results in poor quality of teaching. In an increasingly more technological world, this becomes especially important.
- Technology is rapidly changing the whole education system. In this regard, VPET **struggles to keep up with technological investments and implementations.**

In summary, Turkey is well on its way to expanding its VPET system. The system is constantly being improved upon and new projects are implemented, for instance, by offering new work-based apprenticeship modes (Anatolian high schools vs. VECs). It will be exciting to see how the VPET system in Turkey develops in the future.

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ETH Zürich
Chair of Education Systems
LEE F 134
Leonhardstrasse 21
8092 Zürich, Switzerland

www.ces.ethz.ch

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