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Cover Image: © UNICEF/NYHQ2005-1203/LeMoyne
A girl removes laundry from the line at a camp for migrant workers near the city of Adana-Turkey.
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Preface

The reforms and efforts that brought basic education in Turkey to its current state, both in terms of access and quality, present valuable lessons for policy makers both in Turkey and in other countries. Today, the ratio of children who successfully complete basic education today is higher than it has ever been in the history of the country. Similarly, the ratio of children who benefit from pre-primary education has never been this high. A significant majority of the children who complete their basic education continue on to high schools. These remarkable strides are fruits of the continuous efforts of the Ministry of National Education in cooperation with UNICEF and other stakeholders.

This report should also be seen as an example of the Ministry and UNICEF’s relentless efforts. Despite all our hard work, there are still some children in Turkey who do not start basic education or start it late or leave it early. With this report, our goal is to learn more about these children, understand the barriers that keep them from accessing the high quality basic education provided across the country, and help them overcome these barriers.

Precisely for this reason, the Ministry and UNICEF have jointly been implementing the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children since 2010. We requested independent experts to prepare this report as part of the Global Initiative. Subsequently, we aim to carry our efforts a step forward by utilizing the views and analyses of the independent experts.

As the Ministry of National Education and UNICEF, we will adamantly continue our hard work until every child in Turkey starts and graduates from basic education on time.

Prof. Dr. Nabi Avci

Minister of Education

Dr. Ayman Abulaban

UNICEF Representative
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1 US$ = 1.75 TL / 1 € = 2.45 TL  
*(7 September 2011)*
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<td>ADNKS</td>
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<td>DHS</td>
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<td>DPT</td>
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<td>EFA</td>
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<td>HBA</td>
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<td>HDI</td>
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<td>ICLS</td>
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<td>ILO</td>
<td>International Labour Organisation</td>
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<td>ISCED</td>
<td>International Standard Classification of Education</td>
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<td>MEB</td>
<td>Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı (Ministry of National Education)</td>
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<td>MEİ</td>
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<td>MERNİS</td>
<td>Merkezi Nüfus İdaresi Sistemi (Central Population Management System)</td>
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<td>METİP</td>
<td>Project for the Improvement of Work and Social Lives of Seasonal Agricultural Workers</td>
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<td>NUTS</td>
<td>Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics</td>
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<td>OECD</td>
<td>Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development</td>
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<td>PISA</td>
<td>Program for International Student Assessment</td>
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<td>RTÜK</td>
<td>Radyo Televizyon Üst Kurulu (Radio Television Higher Council)</td>
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<td>SHÇEK</td>
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<td>SODES</td>
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<td>SRAP</td>
<td>Sosyal Riski Azaltma Projesi (Social Risk Mitigation Project)</td>
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<td>SYDMG</td>
<td>Directorate General of Social Assistance and Solidarity</td>
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<td>SYDTF</td>
<td>Support Fund for Social Assistance and Solidarity</td>
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<td>UCW</td>
<td>Understanding Children’s Work</td>
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<td>UIS</td>
<td>UNESCO Institute for Statistics</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNDP</td>
<td>United Nations Development Programme</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNHCR</td>
<td>United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees</td>
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<td>UNICEF</td>
<td>United Nations Children’s Fund</td>
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<td>YSÖP</td>
<td>Yetiştirici Sınıflar Öğretim Programı (Curriculum for Catch-Up Classes)</td>
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Executive Summary

OUNICEF and UIS started the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children in 2010; it aims to accelerate the reduction in the number of out-of-school children and strengthen monitoring systems for these children. Currently 25 countries are part of the Initiative, which involves research and activities at the national, regional and global levels; the country report for Turkey has been prepared as part of these efforts. Underlying the report is a new conceptual approach developed within the framework of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. At the core of this conceptual approach is the “Five Dimensions of Exclusion” (5DE), which reflects the various disparities and education experiences facing those children who are at the pre-primary and basic education age but remain out-of-school.

Profile of Out-Of-School Children

In the first dimension that consists of 5-year-old children, about one-out-of-three children in Turkey are out-of-school. Girls, children who live in lower income households, and children who have special educational needs are more likely to be among the 5-year-olds who are out-of-school. Another factor that stands out in the first dimension is the child’s province of residence; differences across provinces are extremely high in terms of the rates of out-of-school children.

The second and third dimensions that consist of out-of-school 6-to 10-year-olds and 11-to 13-year-olds respectively can be analysed in three groups: (1) children who attended school in the past but who no longer do; (2) children who do not currently attend school but are predicted to attend in the future either; and (3) children who do not currently attend school but are predicted to attend in the future. According to DHS 2008 data, there are 484,460 (7.5 per cent) 6-to 10-year-old children and 167,022 (4.3 per cent) 11-to 13-year-old children who are not attending school. It is estimated that of the out-of-school children who are 6-to 10-years-old 83.1 per cent will enrol late; of the out-of-school children who are 11-to 13-years-old 75.8 per cent have dropped out. Overall, it is estimated that 56,786 6-to 13-year-old children will never enrol in or attend school, and 190,176 children in the same age group drop out before graduating.

Also according to DHS 2008 data, children who live in rural areas, in provinces in the East Region, which includes the Southeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Northeastern Anatolia regions of the NUTS-1, and in low-income households are more likely to be out-of-school. Additionally, children whose parental education is low are more likely to be out-of-school. According to Child Labour Survey data, working children are more likely to be out-of-school than non-working children. In all these groups, girls are more likely to be out-of-school than boys.

Some sub-groups of out-of-school children are: unregistered children; children with special educational needs; children with chronic illnesses or who require long-term treatment; Roma children; children who are married off and/or become pregnant; children who are asylum seekers, refugees and foreign immigrants; domestic migrant and nomadic children; children who are in contact with the law.

Characteristics of children who are in fourth and fifth dimensions, i.e. in 1st-5th grades and 6th-8th grades respectively and are at risk of being excluded from education, overlap with those children in second and third dimensions. Issues that stand out regarding the risk of exclusion from education is absenteeism and being behind peers in terms of progressing in school, mostly as a result of a legislation regulating a maximum age for attending a basic education school. As a result, children who are late-entrants, who do not attend school for long periods due to health-related or other reasons or who repeat grades are more likely to be excluded from education.
Barriers and Bottlenecks Causing Exclusion from Education

One of the headings in the causal processes of exclusion from education is socio-cultural and psycho-social factors, social capital, and health. Gender and disability related values are at the heart of socio-cultural barriers. Psycho-social reasons that emerge as a result of various traumatic experiences, such as being forced into crime or being the victim of a crime, being the survivor or witness of violence, being the survivor of sexual abuse and incest, also stand out. The weakening of community-based social capital due to various reasons including migration, and the child or a family member suffering from a chronic illness or an illness that requires a long period of treatment are among other important factors that lead to the exclusion of the child from education. In terms of the economic barriers, the direct and indirect effects of poverty, such as the inability to meet education related expenses, the opportunity cost of attending school versus child labour, malnutrition, and physical retardation, need to be highlighted.

Administrative regulations and bottlenecks related to schools play important roles in the exclusion of the child from education. Some current administrative regulations related to enrolment, absenteeism and maximum age have a restrictive approach. With respect to schools, distance between school and home, limitations posed by bussing education and boarding education provided in rural areas, insecure environment as a result of the prevalence of violence and corporal punishment in schools, disparities across provinces in terms of the number of students per classroom, prevalence of double-shift system, physical spaces that obstruct the access of children with disabilities to school are important barriers to a child starting and attending school.

Certain factors related to teachers further increase the risk of a child being out of school. For example, disparities across provinces in terms of the pupil-teacher ratio, existing regulations’ failure to adequately incentivise working in schools with difficult conditions, not enabling the teacher to effectively intervene in cases where the first language of the child is different from the language of education, teachers not being adequately equipped in the sub-areas of teacher capabilities related to mitigating the risk of children from dropping out of education; insufficiency of in-class support services and teacher capabilities that are necessary for mainstreaming to be effective.

In terms of the governance-related barriers that bring about exclusion from education, the negative effects of a centralised management structure, limited progress in terms of participation and transparency, inter-sectoral cooperation initiatives that are in earlier stages of their development stand out. Education finance is of key importance for out-of-school children; hence, public spending on education not reflecting the needs in this sector, presence of certain practices in the distribution of financial resources that deepen inequalities, insufficiency of resources at the school-level for taking measures to mitigate a child’s risk of exclusion from education should be particularly highlighted.

Efforts to Overcome Barriers and Bottlenecks

The following policies and efforts in the education sector stand out in overcoming the barriers and bottlenecks leading to exclusion from education:

- The policies and programmes in the education sector that aim to overcome the personal and familial causes of exclusion from education include the Hey Girls Let’s Go to School Campaign, distribution of free textbooks and provision of free lunches for children in bussing education.

- Among the policies and practices for addressing the causes of exclusion from education related to the school environment, efforts to expand basic education during the early phases of the basic education
reform, Curriculum for Catch-Up Classes, expansion of pre-primary education, and free transportation of children with disabilities are worth noting.

- Among the governance and finance practices in the education system that can be considered as effective are e-School Management Information System, revenues created to implement the basic education reform, and the transition to a performance-based budgeting and management system.

The social protection policies and programmes that stand out in overcoming the barriers and bottlenecks leading to exclusion from education are:

- Conditional education assistance, assistance for student housing, transportation and boarding, education material assistance, and scholarships of MEB and DG for Foundations, which are among efforts that decrease the direct effects of poverty on exclusion from education;

- The green card and universal health insurance, and conditional health assistance, which are among the efforts that decrease the indirect effects of poverty on exclusion from education;

- Monthly payments for caring for disabled children, Social Support Programme, projects on child labour, METİP, and the Social Services and Child Protection Agency’s work targeting children in need of protection are worth noting among the social protection policies that target certain groups of children who are at higher risks of being out-of-school.

- With regards to the governance and finance aspects of the social protection system, centralised decision making approach, inter-agency cooperation, coordination and information sharing, and the unique financial structures and sources of revenues of Support Fund for Social Assistance and Solidarity and Directorate General for Foundation stand out.

Recommendations

Based on the analyses in the report, the issues recommended for prioritisation as part of efforts to mitigate the risk of exclusion from education are presented here under five headings:

1. Conducting new research and effectively using the information collected

Based on the missing information and data identified in preparing the report, research can be conducted and data can be collected on the following issues: impact of socio-cultural values with respect to disability and education on exclusion from education; figures and educational needs of children of foreign migrants living in Turkey with or without permission; educational needs of children who are in contact with the law; quantitative and qualitative studies on the educational needs of Roma children; teacher absenteeism; working and living conditions of teachers, particularly in remote areas; qualitative study on child labour and out-of-school children; qualitative and quantitative studies on children exposed to the worst forms of child labour; assessment of school-family unions; experiences of violence of 0-to 13-year-old children inside and outside of the school; reliable, detailed and disaggregated data on the availability of drinking water, running water, electricity, and toilets in schools; obstacles that the school environment and classroom management pose to children with disabilities, including but not limited to the physical accessibility of schools; assessment of options for access to education in rural and remote areas, and of the impact of bussing education; dimensions and causes of gender inequality observed in access to pre-primary education, mainstreaming education, and grade repetition; quantitative studies on drop out and qualitative studies on the causes of drop out, with a focus on age 11 and girls.
2. Developing pro-child and gender-sensitive policies, abolishing practices and policies that increase the risk of exclusion from education

- Starting with those on registration and maximum age discussed in the report, revising the administrative regulations that increase the risk of exclusion from education; preventing administrative concerns from hindering a child’s right to education under all conditions;
- Urgently carrying out feasibility studies for a more flexible school calendar reflecting local conditions;
- Reviewing the current access models in rural areas based on boarding education and bussing education, and evaluating other alternatives including strengthening of multi-grade classroom policy;
- Urgently taking measures to ensure gender equality among the management personnel at school, sub-province and province levels; carrying out nationwide efforts to change gender discriminatory values;
- Taking effective measures to eliminate the practice of corporal punishment in schools;
- Organising efforts to change the negative values and prejudices regarding disability and special learning needs that hinder equal enjoyment of the right to education;
- Considering that different groups have special needs, ensuring that the bureaucracy overcomes its hesitancy about developing policies targeting certain groups, and implementing targeted special interventions for different groups including Roma children, nomadic children, children working as seasonal agricultural workers;
- Taking measures to expand pre-primary education primarily among children from poor households, such as conditional education assistance and free nutrition programmes; improving the enrolment process and expansion of free services with state support;
- Developing supportive policies to increase the number of children with special learning needs who benefit from pre-primary education starting from age three;
- Identifying different causes of child pregnancy and child marriage; developing and implementing preventive programmes;
- Identifying, carrying out and scaling up programmes to promote positive adolescent development, such as life skills and empowerment.

3. Building national and local capacities

- Undertaking efforts to enable teachers to design and carry out effective learning processes in cases where the language of education is different from the child’s first language;
- Developing tools to improve the communication between the school and parents who do not know the language of education;
- Strengthening the capacity at the school, sub-province and province levels to identify and provide support towards addressing the psycho-social problems faced by a child;
- Strengthening teacher capabilities for educating children with special needs, and more particularly the effective implementation of mainstreaming education; providing the necessary human resources at the school level;
- Strengthening capabilities of community members and teachers to work with adolescents in ways that support their healthy and positive development;
- Strengthening the capacities at central, provincial and school levels for the effective implementation of the strategy and action plan developed to eliminate violence from schools;

- Building national and local capacities to ensure the success of new interventions such as Gradual Absence Management Model and “Every Child Succeeds”, both of which have the potential to tackle the problems of absenteeism and drop-out;

- Strengthening and increasing the resources for in-service training system in ways to improve the capacities of teachers, school managers, managers at provincial and sub-provincial levels, provincial education auditors, primarily in the areas listed above.

4. Addressing disparities

- Further developing the efforts under Basic Education Institutional Standards, which was created to eliminate the disparities in education quality across regions, provinces, sub-provinces and schools, with a focus on the reporting dimension; strengthening the mechanisms that will provide technical support, financial and human resources at the school, sub-province, and province levels in cases where the need for an intervention is identified;

- Improving the physical conditions of schools with accessibility and mainstreaming education in mind, creating new sources of investment to decrease the number of students per classroom and the prevalence of double-shift education, focusing on the most disadvantaged sub-provinces in the distribution of resources;

- In order to reduce the differences in the pupil-teacher ratio across provinces and sub-provinces and to ensure a more equal distribution of human resources, developing interventions to incentivise teachers for serving in difficult conditions;

- Accelerating the feasibility studies on direct budget support to disadvantaged pre-primary and basic education schools;

- Carrying out the necessary investments in order to address the disparities between provinces in access to pre-primary education; prioritising poor sub-provinces and neighbourhoods in the future expansion of pre-primary education for 3-to 4-year olds.

5. Strengthening cooperation and partnership to improve coordination and implementation

- Initiating multi-sectoral interventions at the intersection of malnutrition and exclusion from education;

- In efforts targeting the families of children who are not enrolled in school or not attending school, collaborating actively with Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundations to mitigate the effects of poverty;

- Reviewing the role that social work can play in schools and with school-age children in coordination with the Ministry of Family and Social Policy, other relevant Ministries, civil society organisations, and international development partners;

- Intensifying efforts around the prevention of child labour in cooperation with the Ministry of Labour;

- In order to overcome the obstacles posed by population registration and residence permit to accessing education, strengthening cooperation with the Ministry of Interior Affairs and accelerating the efforts to overcome the problems posed by UAVT and ADNKS for school enrolment.
Introduction

Overview of Demographics

Situated at the intersection of Middle East, Eastern Europe and Caucasus regions and governed by a parliamentary democratic system, Turkey’s population was 73,722,988 and median age was 29.2 in 2010.1 Population trends during the last two decades include a decreasing population growth rate, increasing life expectancy, and rapid urbanization.

While the population growth rate in 1990 was 1.7 per cent, it dropped to 1.38 per cent in 2000 and to 1.3 per cent in 2010.2 Similarly, while the proportion of the 0-to 14 year-olds to the entire population was 35 per cent in 1990, it decreased to 29.8 per cent in 2000 and to 25.6 per cent in 2010.3 However, this proportion varies significantly across regions: in 2010 it was 38.2 per cent in Southeastern Anatolia and 34 per cent in Central Eastern Anatolia, and 18.8 per cent in Western Marmara and 20.8 per cent in the Aegean.4 This variability in the proportion of 0-to 14 year-olds to the entire population across regions is particularly important in analysing primary and lower secondary education.

Map 1: NUTS-1 Regions of Turkey5

In parallel to the decreasing population growth rate, life expectancy increased from 64.6 in 1990 to 70 in 2000 and 72 in 2009.6 The under-five mortality rate went from 84.2 per thousand in 1990 to 41.6 in 2000 and 20.3 in 2009, yet Turkey still has the 103rd highest mortality rate of 193 countries; a performance poorer than that of other countries in its income group.7

Another issue highlighted by the demographic data from the last two decades is urbanization. While 59 per cent of the population was living in provincial and sub-provincial centres in 1990, this proportion increased to 76.3 per cent in 2010.8 One of the catalysts of urbanization has been internal migration. During 1985-1990 period approximately 4 million people, during 1995-2000 period approximately 4.8 million people, during 2009-2010 approximately 2.4 million people migrated across provinces.9 During 2009-2010, 20.9 per cent of the population that migrated was under the age of 14.10 According to Turkey Demographic and Health Survey...
(DHS) 2008 results, 10.9 per cent of 5-to 18-year-olds indicated their province of residence was different from their province of birth.11 The migration of hundreds of thousands of children is significant in considering school attendance and educational achievement.

An important component of the population movements in Turkey is the approximately one million people who migrated as a result of the insecurity in the Southeastern, Central Eastern and Northeastern Anatolia regions from 1984 to 1999.12 Another cause of the migration from the Southeastern Anatolia region is the construction of several dams for electricity and irrigation, which intensified from 1975 onward; approximately 200,000 people migrated as a result.13 Another cause of population movements is natural disasters; as a result of the Marmara Earthquake in 1999, 675,000 people are estimated to have moved.14 The impact of these population movements on children’s welfare and participation in education cannot be ignored.

Overview of Development

Turkey is among the 20 largest economies of the world in terms of its gross national product. In 2009, GDP per capita was US$ 8215, yet this figure represents a decrease of US$ 1666 from the previous year as a result of the global financial crisis.15 A similar financial crisis yet of a domestic scope happened in 2001; GDP per capita dropped by about one-fourth in 2001 from US$ 4011 in 2000.16 Although the domestic financial crisis affected children significantly, Turkey’s social protection system focused on the older population and retirement during this period.17

An overall analysis of the distribution of GDP within Turkey reveals the depth of income inequality, inequality between rural and urban areas, and across regions, as well as child poverty. The Gini Index – where 0 represents absolute equality and 100 represents absolute inequality – is 40 for Turkey.18 Among 30 OECD countries, Turkey has the second most unequal income distribution after Mexico.19 In 2009, there were 339,000 people living under the hunger line; 18.8 per cent of the population was under the poverty line that includes food and non-food items.20 Among the people living in rural areas, this figure goes up to 38.7 per cent.21 Poverty rate for 0-to 6-year-olds is 24 per cent nationwide; this figure is 48.7 per cent for the same age group in rural areas.22

In other words, a quarter of the children across the country and half of the children in rural areas are under the poverty line. The difference between the poverty and child poverty rates is particularly striking. As importantly, while the poverty rate in urban areas among the general population and children has been on a downward trend in recent years, it has been increasing for both groups in rural areas.23 Turkey has the highest child poverty rate among OECD countries.24

An analysis of development trends across regions shows that the ten lowest ranking (of 81 total) provinces are in the Northeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Southeastern Anatolia Regions.25 The gross value added per capita in the Northeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Southeastern Anatolia Regions range from one-third to one-half of the national average while the gross value added per capita in Istanbul is about 1.5 times the national average.26 The Northeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Southeastern Anatolia Regions also remain behind other regions in terms of their welfare levels; for example, an average person living in Istanbul spends three times more overall and seven times more for education than an average person living in Southeastern Anatolia.27

Despite an overall improvement in health, education and housing rights, disparities remain in the realization of these rights which reflect urban-rural and regional income inequalities. In terms of urban-rural disparities, for example, while the underweight rate of under-five children decreased from 3.9 per cent in 2003 to 2.8 per cent in 2008; in rural areas the rate in 2008 was as high as 4.8 per cent.28,29 In terms of regional disparities, while the illiteracy rate for the over-15 population is 11 per cent, it goes up to 21 and 22 per cent in Northeastern and Central Eastern Anatolia, and up to 29 per cent in Southeastern Anatolia.20
Hence, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights urged Turkey in its Concluding Observations to address the disparities in the enjoyment of economic, social and cultural rights between regions as well as between urban and rural areas. Similarly, a report prepared by state agencies for the Millennium Development Goals underlined the persistent nature of the geography and gender-based structural inequalities despite an overall progress towards achieving the goals. The impact of gender-based inequalities on the right to education will be discussed in detail in other sections of the report.

Overview of Education Sector

Formal education in Turkey prior to tertiary education consists of three levels: pre-primary education, basic education (ilköğretim) and secondary education (ortaöğretim). Basic education is the only mandatory level of these three; it consists of eight grades and covers 6- to 14-year olds. There are 10,576,221 students enrolled in the basic education level; 10,149,336 of them are in active status, and the rest are in passive status as a result of health, death, leaving the country, or exceeding the maximum age of attendance. Pre-primary education includes education services for 3-to 5-year olds and but there are also 6-year-olds who postpone starting basic education for one year and instead enroll in pre-primary education. There are 1,115,818 students enrolled in the pre-primary education level. Secondary education in most general high school and vocational high schools consists of four grades; in those schools with a focus on foreign language training it goes up to five with the inclusion of a preparatory grade. At the secondary education level there are a total of 3,970,397 students enrolled, of which 2,130,522 are enrolled in general high schools and 1,839,875 are enrolled in vocational high schools.

For the data analysis in this report, the education levels are categorized according to the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), which is described in Table 1 and the subsequent section on indicators.

Main Stakeholders in Education Sector

The main stakeholders in the education sector in Turkey reflect a centralised management structure and a small private sector relative to the country’s income level. Curriculum development, textbook approval, selection and purchase, and teacher appointments all fall under the responsibility of the central organisation of the Ministry of National Education (MEB). MEB has directorates in all 81 provinces and 892 districts of Turkey. While the personnel at the provincial and district directorates are appointed by MEB’s central apparatus, the supervisor of the provincial and district national education directors are the provincial governor (vali) and the district governor (kaymakam) who are appointed by the Ministry of Interior Affairs.

While the role of the private sector remains limited at the basic education and secondary education levels, it continues to grow in non-formal education. At the basic education level, 267,294 students, which corresponds to 2.5 per cent of all enrolled students at this level, are enrolled in schools that are established and run by the private sector. At the secondary education level, this figure is 130,397, which is 3.3 per cent of the students at this level. It is worth noting that at the pre-primary education level, which is not mandatory yet is key for child development and social equality given its disproportionately high benefits for children from lower socio-economic status, 9 per cent of the students in formal education are enrolled in pre-primary schools and pre-primary classrooms run by the private sector.

Contrary to formal education, the role of the private sector has become significant in non-formal education. There are 1,234,738 people enrolled in alternative education institutions (dersane) to prepare for the nationwide student-selection examinations for secondary and tertiary education as well as 186,634 children...
with special education needs who are enrolled in private education and rehabilitation centres, for which the government covers some of the costs. The significant role that the private sector in the form of dersane and private education and rehabilitation centres have influences the limits and outcomes of all legislative and administrative changes in these areas.

In terms of the role of civil society in the education sector in Turkey, the main actors include the unions of education workers, school family unions (okul aile birlikleri), associations and foundations. There are more than 10 unions of education workers that are actively involved in various dimensions of the education sector, including teacher’s rights. Establishment of school family unions are mandated by law; the union’s main purpose is to improve the school’s financial resources.

Efforts by associations and foundations that are active at local and national levels are mostly concentrated on the awarding of scholarships and the provision of school supplies and after-school support programmes. Efforts to directly influence Ministry policies and implementation are relatively limited. There are no studies currently available that evaluate the cumulative impact of civil society efforts in the education sector. However, a 2009 study that measured perceptions about the impact of civil society on those social problems identified in World Values Survey Turkey 2007 to be most crucial – namely unemployment, education and human rights – found that the perception was widespread that civil society activity in the education sector had a “noticeable impact”, worked intensively, and was successful in influencing both social services and policies. A parallel case study focusing on the education sector highlights how civil society’s expertise has grown by producing knowledge and education policies, how it has established partnerships with national and international organisations, and how it has provided services not offered by the government and raised public awareness.

Research on Out-Of-School Children

Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children

UNICEF and UIS started the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children in 2010. The Initiative aims to accelerate the reduction in the number of out-of-school children and strengthen monitoring systems for these children. The Initiative builds on the “Children Out of School: Measuring exclusion from primary education” report published in 2005. Currently 25 countries are part of the Initiative, which involves research and activities at the national, regional and global levels. The most comprehensive research effort carried out as part of the Initiative is the national, regional and global reports on out-of-school children. The country report for Turkey has been prepared as part of this research effort.

Research Approach

Underlying the reports prepared in 25 countries is a new conceptual approach developed within the framework of the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. At the core of this conceptual approach is the “Five Dimensions of Exclusion” (5DE), which reflects the various disparities and education experiences facing those children who are at the pre-primary and basic education age but remain excluded from education.

The conceptual approach of 5DE connects three areas of assessment: (1) profiles of out-of-school children; (2) barriers and bottlenecks that bring about the dynamic and causal processes related to 5DE; and (3) policies and strategies to address the 5DE-related barriers and bottlenecks in all sectors including education and social protection.
**Methodology**

The preparation of the Out-of-School Children Country Report for Turkey did not involve any new field research. Instead, a three-pronged methodology was adopted in order to effectively use the existing data and information: (1) a desk review of about 70 documents and reports about education and social protection, which were published by public institutions, universities, civil society organisations and international organisations (See: Sources – Documents, Reports); (2) interviews with more than 20 public institution, civil society organisation, and international organisation employees working on education and social protection (See: Sources – Interviews); (3) an analysis of micro-data from Turkey Demographic and Health Survey 2008 (DHS) and administrative data from MEB.

**Table 1: Five Dimensions of Exclusion**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIMENSION 1</th>
<th>DIMENSION 2</th>
<th>DIMENSION 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>not in pre-primary school</td>
<td>attended, dropped out</td>
<td>attended, dropped out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-YEARS-OLD</td>
<td>will never enter</td>
<td>will enter late</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td>11 to 13-YEAR-OLDS</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicators**

The main indicators used in analyses related to out-of-school children and their application for the case of Turkey are as follows:

**Net enrolment rate:** The net enrolment rate is calculated based on administrative data; the administrative enrolment rather than children’s self-reported attendance is the basis of this statistic. In the case of Turkey, a child who is enrolled in school at the beginning of basic education appears enrolled in administrative records until at least the age of 14, regardless of their attendance status. Net primary enrolment rate in the case of Turkey is calculated by dividing the number of 6-to 10-year-olds who are enrolled in 1st-5th grades by the number of all 6-to 10-year-olds. Net lower secondary enrolment rate in the case of Turkey is calculated by dividing the number of 11-to 13-year-olds enrolled in 6th-8th grades by the number of all 11-to 13-year-olds. Similarly, the net upper secondary enrolment rate in the case of Turkey is calculated by dividing the number of 14-to 17-year-olds who are enrolled in 9th-12th grades by the number of all 14-to 17-year-olds.

**Adjusted net enrolment rate:** The adjusted net enrolment rate is calculated based on administrative data; not the child’s self-reported attendance but the administrative enrolment records. In the case of Turkey, a child who is enrolled in school at the beginning of basic education appears enrolled in administrative records until at least the age of 14, regardless of their attendance status. Adjusted net primary enrolment rate is calculated by dividing the number of 6-to 10-year-olds who are enrolled in 1st-12th grades by the number
of 6-to 10-year-olds; 6-to 10-year-olds enrolled in pre-primary education are not included in the calculation. Adjusted net lower secondary enrolment rate is calculated by dividing the number of 11-to 13-year-olds enrolled in 6th-12th grades by the number of 11-to 13-year-olds; 11-to 13-year-olds enrolled in the 1st-5th grade level are not included in the calculation. Similarly, the adjusted net upper secondary enrolment rate is calculated by dividing the number of 14-to 17-year-olds who are enrolled in 9th-12th grades and tertiary education by the number of 14-to 17-year-olds.44

**Net attendance rate:** The net attendance rate is calculated based on data from household surveys; self-reported attendance rather than administrative records. Net primary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 6-to 10-year-olds who are attending 1st-5th grades by the number of all 6-to 10-year-olds. Net lower secondary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 11-to 13-year-olds attending 6th-8th grades by the number of all 11-to 13-year-olds. Similarly, the adjusted net upper secondary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 14-to 17-year-olds who are attending 9th-12th grades by the number of all 14-to 17-year-olds.

**Adjusted net attendance rate:** The adjusted net attendance rate is calculated based on data from household surveys; not administrative records but self-reported attendance. Adjusted net primary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 6-to 10-year-olds who are attending 1st-12th grades by the number of 6-to 10-year-olds; 6-to 10-year-olds attending pre-primary education are not included in the calculation. Adjusted net lower secondary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 11-to 13-year-olds enrolled in 6th-12th grades by the number of 11-to 13-year-olds; 11-to 13-year-olds enrolled at the 1st-5th grade level are not included in the calculation. Similarly, the adjusted net upper secondary attendance rate is calculated by dividing the number of 14-to 17-year-olds who are attending 9th-12th grades and tertiary education by the number of 14-to 17-year-olds.

**Rate of out-of-school children:**
The rate of out-of-school children is calculated based on data from household surveys. Certain rates of sub-groups of out-of-school children can be calculated based on administrative data but not the rate of out-of-school children itself. For example, based on MEİ and e-School data the ratio of children not enrolled in school can be calculated but this ratio leaves out those children who are enrolled in school but who left school and also those children who are not registered in the population records. Also based on e-School data, the rate of children who are absent for more than a number of days can be calculated but this ratio does not allow us to see if a child is out-of-school or is at risk of becoming out-of-school.
### Gender Parity Index

The index can be calculated based on net enrolment rate, adjusted net enrolment rate, net attendance rate or adjusted net attendance rate. It is calculated by dividing the rate for girls by the rate for boys. 1 represents full parity; as the index gets closer to 0 inequality increases at the expense of girls, and as the index gets closer to 2 inequality increases at the expense of boys.

### Transition rates between levels of education

It is calculated by dividing the number of students newly enrolled in the first grade of a new education level in a given year by the number of students who were enrolled in the last grade of the lower education level the preceding year. For example, when the transition rate from ISCED 2 to ISCED 3 for 2010/2011 school year is calculated for Turkey based on administrative data, the number of students newly enrolled in the first grade of high school (ortaöğretim okulu) in 2010/2011...
is divided by the number of students who were enrolled in eighth grade of basic education school (*ilköğretim okulu*) in 2009/2010.

To calculate the transition rate based on data from household surveys, the number of children who report that they were attending the first year of high school during the survey year (excluding repeaters) is divided by the number of children who report that they were attending the eighth grade the year before the survey year. To allow such a calculation, a survey must collect data on school attendance during two consecutive school years.

**Survival rate and drop-out rate:** The survival rate in an education level represents the percentage of children enrolled in the first grade of a given level who are expected to reach the target grade. The drop-out rate in a given grade is the ratio of children who are enrolled in a given grade in a given year who do not attend school the subsequent year. MEİ macro-data and DHS data do not allow for a reliable calculation of survival rate and drop-out rate.

**Sections of the Out-of-School Children Country Report for Turkey**

Following this section, the report is composed of four main sections that reflect the conceptual framework. The second section, the first following this introduction, presents the profiles of children in the five dimensions of exclusion based on various data and analyses, including DHS micro-data and MEB administrative data. Based on the profiles, the subsequent section discusses the barriers and bottlenecks that bring about the exclusion of children from education, including bottlenecks in education services, governance and finance in education, and barriers posed by the socio-cultural and economic characteristics of families and communities. The fourth section of the report provides information about the education and social protection policies that contribute to overcoming the discussed barriers and bottlenecks. The final section of the report presents some recommendations based on the analyses in the report.
Dimensions of Exclusion from Education and the Profiles of Out-Of-School Children

This section of the report will discuss in detail the five dimensions of exclusion from education, outline the characteristics of children in each dimension, and analyse those personal, household, and group characteristics at the intersection of all five dimensions that are related to exclusion and inequality.

Five Dimensions of Exclusion from Education (5DE)\(^{47}\)

“Exclusion from education” as described in the context of 5DE is similar to the concept of social exclusion. Exclusion is not limited to actions that directly exclude a person; an emphasis is placed on the structural, social, family-related, and other processes that bring about the outcome of not benefiting from rights, opportunities, and resources. In this regard, the outcome of exclusion could also be brought about by not taking the additional measures necessary to “include” children and tackle their difficult circumstances caused by structural, social, family related, and other factors.

The 5DE model consists of five different groups at each level of education and two separate sub-groups in each of the five groups. The three levels of education included in the model are pre-primary education, primary education and lower secondary education, as defined under the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) created by UNESCO. While the pre-primary education level (ISCED 0) could include more than one year, for the purposes of this report only the year before the official enrolment in primary education is included; for the education system in Turkey, this is 60-to 72-month-olds. Also under the education system in Turkey, primary education (ISCED 1) corresponds to 1st-5th grades, lower secondary education (ISCED 2) corresponds to 6th-8th grades; since 1997, ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 levels have been combined under “basic education” (ilköğretim), and the entire eight grade-long period was made mandatory.\(^{48}\)

In the context of the 5DE model, two separate groups in each of these three levels are analysed: out-of-school children and children who are in school but are at risk of dropping out.

Review of Data Sources

Various sources of data and analysis were utilised in preparing this section on the profiles of out-of-school children and children at risk of dropping-out. Main sources of data and analysis for this report include: (1) analysis of DHS 2008 micro-data with STATA software; (2) analysis of macro-data included in the National Education Statistics (MEI) with Excel; (3) analysis of data from the e-School database with Excel; and (4) analysis of the Child Labour Survey conducted in 2006 in tandem with the Household Labour Survey by Understanding Children’s Work - a joint project of ILO, UNICEF and the World Bank. Additionally, analytical reports prepared based on Household Labour and Household Budget Surveys of previous years and analytical reports based on micro-data, and the final reports of three studies conducted to facilitate the cross-national comparison of educational outcomes of countries - PISA 2006, PISA 2009, and TIMSS 2007 - were used for this report.

The data sources can be reviewed in three groups: data from household surveys, data based on school and student surveys and tests, and administrative data. To summarise the main limitations of the data sources in these groups with regards to this report:
Data from Household Surveys:

- The precision of the statistical estimates based on data from household surveys depends on the quality of the survey design and the sample size. The precision of estimates for disaggregated groups could be particularly limited; reliable estimates cannot be made for disaggregated groups with less than 30 observations. As a result, certain conclusions about disaggregated groups among out-of-school children cannot be drawn based on household surveys.

- Based on the DHS 2008, the main source of micro-data for this report, absenteeism in pre-primary education as a dimension of exclusion from education could not be analysed. There were very few respondents who answered questions about the attendance of children under five in kindergarten, day care or pre-primary school; consequently, estimates drawn from this data are highly incompatible with administrative data. As a result, DHS data for 5-year-olds is not included in the analysis below.

- Similarly, various issues relevant to exclusion from education could not be analysed by disaggregating DHS data. Questions in the survey about disability were posed for only 60+ years-old individuals; no data was collected for the age group under consideration in this research. As a result, an analysis regarding the intersection of disability and exclusion from education could not be conducted. Since there were no questions in the DHS survey about religion, religious sects, ethnicity, or race, analyses could not be conducted regarding the intersection of these issues and exclusion from education. Finally, as a result of the sample design and size, geographic disaggregation was possible at the level of five regions (East, North, Central, South, West), and not at NUTS-1 or 2 levels.

Among these five regions the East Region includes the NUTS-1 regions Northeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia and Southeastern Anatolia, the South Region includes the NUTS-1 region Mediterranean, the North Region includes the entire Eastern Black Sea region and part of Western Black Sea Region, the Central Region includes the entire Western Anatolia region and parts of Western Black Sea, Aegean, Eastern Marmara regions, and the Western Region includes the entire Western Marmara and Istanbul regions, and parts of Aegean and Eastern Marmara regions.

- Various groups, including homeless and nomadic individuals unregistered in the National Address Database (UAVT) and unregistered migrants, were not included in the DHS sampling, which was based on UAVT. Considering that the risk of exclusion from education is higher for those children in such groups excluded from DHS sampling, as a result it could be argued that the analysis of DHS data underestimates the size of the problem of exclusion from education.

- Age data in DHS survey is self-reported. A probable limitation is intentional or unintentional misreporting of age. Similarly, attendance in school and grade attended are also self-reported; given the fact that the concepts of ‘primary school’ (ilkokul) and ‘basic education school’ (ilköğretim okulu), the former referring to the five-year long mandatory education prior to the education reform in 1997 and the latter referring to the eight-year long mandatory education post-1997, are still widely confused creates additional limitations in terms of self-reporting and records on these issues.

Data from School and Students Surveys and Tests:

- Sampling in studies such as PISA targeting 15-year-olds and TIMSS targeting 8th grade students are based on schools and students in those schools. As a result, they do not contain any data on out-of-school children yet they permit for an analysis of students’ educational outcomes based on categories related to geography, sex, socio-economic status, family characteristics, and school resources. Given the link between low academic performance and exclusion from education, the report will include some analyses based on PISA and TIMSS data.
Administrative Data

- Data collected by MEB for administrative reasons and published education statistics totally ignore two groups among the out-of-school children. The first group are those children who have the right to be a citizen yet are not registered in the Central Population Management System (MERNİS), i.e. children who are not registered with a citizenship number. Since many of the enrolment procedures of MEB are based on MERNİS, children unregistered in MERNİS do not appear in administrative data unless they appear at a school and request to be enrolled.

The second group includes stateless children residing in Turkey, children who are citizens of another country who are residing in Turkey but do not have a foreigner identity number, and children with a foreigner identity number who are not enrolled in school. MEB does not have any data for these children.

- MEİ presents statistics based on enrolment, not attendance. As a result, those children who dropped out of school yet remain enrolled cannot be distinguished as a separate group in MEİ.

- The e-School database has data on absence, non-enrolment and students who are in “passive” status for various reasons. Yet over the three years that the e-School database has been used, both the codes and definition of the data collected has been changed a number of times. Additionally, no system for monitoring the quality of data entry is in place. As a result, the reliability of the analyses based on e-School data needs to be treated with extra caution.

- Because drop-out is not defined in the relevant legislation, e-School database does not contain any information on dropouts. As a result, it is not possible to directly access any information about children who have dropped out or to monitor their situation.

- The e-School database is designed to have information about the personal and family characteristics of every enrolled student, yet due to problems with data entry significant amounts of data is missing. Due to time limitations this data could not be analysed.

- Age data in the e-School and MEİ databases is based on records from MERNİS. The prevalence of cases where the registered age of a child in the population records differs from the real age presents a limitation that diminishes the reliability of the age data.

Given the varying limitations of each group of data sources, where possible, analyses in this report will be conducted based on more than a single source of data. Regarding the children who are excluded by all three groups of data sources as a result of their scope, design and samples, i.e. children who remain invisible in national-level data, the report will try to make them visible by basing its analysis on other field research and reports.

Dimension 1: Pre-primary Education and Out-Of-School Children

In Turkey, Dimension 1 consists of 5-year-olds who are not enrolled in pre-primary or basic education. As a result of not benefiting from pre-primary education, the children who are in Dimension 1 might not be adequately prepared for basic education and consequently be at a higher risk of never starting, starting late, and/or dropping out of basic education.
**Data Sources:** Analyses of the profiles of children in Dimension 1 were carried out mostly based on administrative data due to the limitations posed by the DHS 2008 data explained above.\(^{50}\) The administrative data includes the following pre-primary education services targeting 5-year-olds, all of which operate under MEB’s regulations: public and private pre-primary schools and pre-primary classrooms, private kindergartens and day care centres, mobile pre-primary schools, summer pre-primary schools and classrooms, and child care centres established for the children of employees of public agencies. Centre- or community-based services run by civil society organisations and municipalities are not included since cumulative data at the national level is not available.

**Overview:** Since 2004, there has been a rapid decline in the proportion of children excluded from pre-primary education in Turkey, yet nearly one third of all 5-year-olds (32.63 per cent) were still not enrolled in pre-primary education during the 2010/2011 school year.\(^{51}\) As observed in Graph 1, the proportion of 5-year-old children excluded from pre-primary education is slightly higher in urban than rural areas.

**Graph 1: 5-year-olds not enrolled in pre-primary or basic education**

![Graph showing the percentage of 5-year-olds not enrolled in pre-primary or basic education by gender and urban/rural areas.](image)

When the profile of children who are excluded from education are reviewed, the following characteristics stand out:

**Girls:** The gender parity index (GPI) for the enrolment rates of 5-year-olds is 0.967,\(^{52}\) signaling a certain level of gender disparity in terms of exclusion from pre-primary education.

**Graph 2: Number of provinces by percentage of 5 year-old children not in school, 2010-2011\(^{53}\)**

![Graph showing the distribution of provinces by percentage of 5 year-old children not in school.](image)
Children Residing in a Province that is Behind in the Expansion of Pre-Primary Education: Looking at the regional distribution of 5-year-olds excluded from education, very large disparities emerge across provinces. While in some provinces such as Burdur, Nevşehir, and Trabzon almost all 5-year-olds are enrolled in pre-primary education, in Istanbul one-half and in Ağrı two-thirds of 5-year-olds are outside the education system. There are seven provinces where the ratio of 5-year-olds not enrolled in pre-primary education is greater than 50 percent; five of these provinces are located in the Southeastern Anatolia Region, with Ağrı and Istanbul being the other two.

Children Living in a Poor Household: In terms of the relation between Dimension 1 and household income level, a number of studies highlight the strength of the relationship between the household income level and the accessibility of pre-primary education opportunities for under-6-year-olds. According to a study at the household level, while less than 20 per cent of mothers with low socio-economic status had some pre-primary education services available in their neighbourhood for their 36-to 47-month-old children, among mothers with high socio-economic status the figure was more than 50 per cent. At the province level, the general trend shows a negative correlation between Human Development Index (HDI) and proportion of 5-year-old children out of pre-primary education, i.e. in those provinces that have lower HDI, the proportion of 5-year-old children out of pre-primary education is higher.

Considering that children in lower-income households benefit more from early childhood education interventions, and that as a result pre-primary education can be an effective intervention to mitigate the negative effects of poverty on education and to prevent the inter-generational transmission of social inequality, the fact that children in lower-income households have less access to pre-primary education is a loss. There is an urgent need to revisit public policies for increasing access to pre-primary education for the less fortunate.

Children with Special Learning Needs: There is no data available for analysing the relationship between Dimension 1 and special learning needs. According to Special Education Services Regulations (Özel Eğitim Hizmetleri Yönetmeliği), mandatory schooling of children with special learning needs starts at the age of 3. Accordingly, the state has the obligation to ensure that 3-to 5-year-old children with special learning needs have access to pre-primary education free of charge. Yet there are 727 children enrolled in pre-primary classrooms in special education schools and 588 children who are enrolled in mainstreamed education at the pre-primary education level, while more than 20,000 of the 1,225,563 5-year-olds in Turkey are estimated to have one or more disabilities. Based on these figures, it can be concluded that despite a legislative framework that makes pre-primary education mandatory for 5-year-olds with special learning needs, a high proportion of these children are either excluded from education or are not able to access education that takes their special needs into account.

Dimension 2 and 3: Out-Of-School Children of Basic Education Age

In the Turkish education system, Dimensions 2 and 3 corresponds to 6-to 10-year-olds and 11-to 13 year-olds who are excluded from education, i.e. who do not attend school. Dimension 2 and 3 will be analysed in three groups: (1)children who attended school in the past but who no longer do; (2)children who do not currently attend school and are predicted not to attend in the future either; and (3)children who do not currently attend school but are predicted to attend in the future.

Data Sources: For analysis of Dimension 2 and 3, the report drew on existing studies and analyses as well as MEI macro-data, e-School 2010-2011 macro-data, and DHS 2008 micro-data. Generally, enrolment was analysed based on MEI macro-data, attendance of enrolled children was analysed based on e-School.
macro-data, and individual and household characteristics and geographic location of children not attending school, irrespective of their enrolment status, were analysed based on DHS 2008 micro-data.

Each data was collected during a different time period, which presents an important limitation for comparability; MEİ data was collected at the end of the first semester of 2010/2011 school year, e-School data was collected at the end of the second semester of 2010/2011 school year, and DHS data was collected during October-November 2008. Therefore, part of the difference in the results of the analyses stems from the three sets of data being collected at different times.

Analyses based on administrative and household data collected on a national scale do not reveal some of the sources of exclusion from education, such as traumatic experiences or being not registered in population records. Yet making these characteristics visible is essential for a comprehensive analysis of out-of-school children and the barriers that bring about their exclusion. Therefore in this part of the report these characteristics are analysed based on existing research and analyses.

**Overview:** Based on estimates calculated from DHS 2008 micro-data, the total number of out-of-school children who are 6-to 13-year-olds is 651,482; 484,460 of these children are 6-to 10-year-olds. The number of children who attended school in the past but who no longer do, i.e. children who dropped out, is 190,716; 126,666 of these children are 11-to 13-year-olds. The number of children who had no contact with a school in the past and who are predicted not to have any contact in the future is 56,786; these children might have never enrolled in school or they might have enrolled yet never attended. The number of children who are not attending school at the moment but who are predicted to attend in the future, i.e. enter school as late entrants, is 403,979; almost all of these children are 6-to 10-year-old.

**Graph 3: Number of out-of-school children by single year of age**

When the rate of out-of-school children is calculated, it is found that 7.5 per cent of 6-to 10-year-olds and 4.3 per cent of 11-to 13-year-olds are out-of-school. The out-of-school rate is lowest at age 9. At this age, the adjusted net attendance rate is 99.1 per cent.

83.1 per cent of the 6-to 10-year-old out-of-school children are expected to attend school in the future, i.e. they are expected to be late entrants. Late entry is concentrated in ages 7 and 8. 75.8 per cent of the 11-to 13-year old out-of-school children are those who attended school in the past but who no longer do. Drop-out begins around age 10, increases to about 7 per cent at age 13, and increases significantly in subsequent ages. The basic education grades during which more children seem to drop-out are 6th grade (3.2 per cent) and 1st grade (1.2 per cent). This finding partially parallels the findings of a 2006 study on dropouts; according to the study dropouts concentrate in 5th and 6th grades, the average grade for dropping out is 4.4, and the average age of dropouts at the time they leave school is 11.6.62
Another indicator that can be calculated based on the DHS 2008 data is transition rates between education levels: the transition rate from ISCED 1 level (corresponding to 1st-5th grades) to ISCED 2 level (corresponding to 6th-8th grades) is 97 per cent (boys: 98 per cent; girls: 95 per cent). The transition rate from ISCED 2 level to ISCED 3 level corresponding to secondary education is 76 per cent (boys: 78 per cent; girls: 74 per cent).

According to MEİ data, the net enrolment rate for 6-to 13 year-olds is 98.4 per cent as of December 2010, which means 162,184 children in this age group are not enrolled in basic education. When for 6-to 13 year-olds the children who are enrolled in upper secondary education (ortaöğretim) are included in calculations the adjusted net enrolment rate goes up to 99.1 per cent; in other words, 91,896 children in this age group are not registered in basic education or secondary education levels. When only those students whose registrations are active are included in the calculations, as of December 2010 the net enrolment rate for 6-to 13-year-olds is 97.1 per cent; the adjusted net enrolment rate is 97.8 per cent.

Graph 5: Attendance rate at levels by age, 2008

Graph 6 shows the enrolment status of children in pre-primary education, basic education and secondary education.
Non-enrolment does not emerge as a major problem for 7-to 10-year olds. For 6, 11, 12 and 13-year-olds, not enrolling in school continues to be a form of exclusion from basic education. Non-enrolment rates increase significantly at the secondary education level, which was not mandatory in Turkey at the time this report was prepared.

Roma girls sit smiling at their desks at the school in the Kuccukbakkalkoy district of the city of Istanbul. The school offers remedial classes for Roma children.
Another source of data related to out-of-school children is the e-School Management Information System. Set up in 2008, student-level data has been collected with e-School during the 2009/2010 and 2010/2011 school years. Data from e-School regarding out-of-school children includes non-enrolment, which is reflected in MEİ data, and students in ‘passive status’. ‘Passive status’ is used for a number of groups: children who have health problems that hinder their school attendance, deceased children, children who have moved overseas, children whose registration is postponed one year based on parental request, children who are no longer in the age group for basic education, and children who are enrolled in non-formal distant basic education.67 Children who are no longer in the age group for basic education are those children who started basic education but left education before graduation, i.e. those who have dropped out of school.68

As of July 2011, the total number of children in ‘passive status’ in e-School is 426,885. Of these children, 284,597 are marked to be no longer in the age group for basic education.69 Of the children who are in ‘passive status’ and who are marked to be no longer in the age group for basic education, 59.2 per cent are girls; 68.5 per cent are 14-to 17-year-olds; 68 per cent became ‘passive’ when they were in 6th-8th grades.

When the profile of out-of-school children at the basic education level is reviewed, the following characteristics stand out; these characteristics are not mutually exclusive, so a single child could be in more than one of the groups below.

**Girls:** As shown in Graph 7, one of the factors related to exclusion from education is the sex of the child. As the child gets older, the rate of exclusion increases more for girls than boys.

![Graph 7: Out-of-School Children Rate by Gender](DHS 2008)

According to DHS 2008 data, the ratio of 6-to 13-year-old girls who drop out of school is higher than the ratio for boys. While 1.0 per cent of boys at this age group drop out of school, 2.8 per cent of girls do. For the same age group, the ratio of girls and boys who have not started school are nearly equal; for boys it is 4.7 per cent and for girls it is 4.6 per cent.

A gender-based analysis of the net enrolment rates (Graph 8) shows that for the 6-to 12-year-olds, most of whom are in the 1st-7th grade level, the gender parity index calculated based on net enrolment rate is close to 1, which represents equality. Starting from age 13, however, the gender parity index declines rapidly, showing the disproportionately high number of girls being excluded from education in this age group, and goes below 0.9 for 16-year-olds.
When the percentage of children enrolled in any level of school rather than the net enrolment rate is examined, we see that it is relatively higher for students ages 6 and 14, both of which fall within the mandatory education age range. One of the reasons the percentage of 14-year-old children who are enrolled in any level of school is relatively higher is related to the level of education that a child is enrolled in. 22.5 per cent of 14-year-olds are enrolled in basic education schools rather than secondary education schools and thus they are not included in the numerator for calculating the net enrolment rate for secondary schools. However, it needs to be noted that 13 per cent of these 14-year-old who are enrolled in basic education have a passive enrolment status because of having exceeded the maximum age of attendance; in other words, these children have already dropped out of school.

Still other analyses that give an indication of the size and nature of the gender disparity at basic education levels can be made using MEİ data. For example, in 2010 while the ratio of female to male in the general population of 13-to 14-year-olds was 0.946, which is the age at which most children graduate from a basic education school, the ratio of girls to boys graduating from a basic education school was 0.890. The sex ratio of the newly registered basic education students in 2002/2003 school year, which was the year most of the 2010 graduates entered basic education school, was 0.902. These ratios confirm that the disadvantage of girls among out-of-school children increases as they progress through the education system. However, the overall improvement in terms of gender parity in education in recent years cannot be ignored; in 2005, for example, the ratio of number of girls to boys at graduation from basic education school was 0.828.

**Children Living in Provinces in Disadvantaged Regions**: The disaggregation of the adjusted net attendance rate for primary, lower secondary and secondary levels calculated based on DHS 2008 data across the five regions shows that these rates are lowest in the East Region for all age groups. A similar trend exists in terms of drop-out rates; while the overall drop-out rate for 6-to 19-year-olds is 18.3 per cent, it is 21.5 per cent in the East Region.

As also observed in Graph 9 showing the adjusted net attendance rate, the rates at which girls and boys drop out of education or fall behind their peers diverges for 11-to 13-year-olds who live in the provinces in the East Region. A similar divergence occurs in the Central and North regions for 14-to 17-year-olds.
Enrolment rates by province calculated by MEB based on its administrative data show variation across provinces. While one of the reasons for low enrolment rates can be inaccurate entries in ADNKS, it is not possible to assess the extent to which the inaccurate entries lead to the differences in enrolment rates across provinces. More generally, of the ten provinces with the lowest enrolment rates, nine of them are in the Southeastern Anatolia and Central Eastern Anatolia regions; the tenth province is Yozgat. It is worth noting that the enrolment rate for girls is particularly low as compared to that of boys in these provinces with the exception of Yozgat, where boys and girls seem to be excluded relatively proportionally.

An analysis of the 284,487 children who are registered in the administrative education records as having exceeded the maximum age for basic education and hence moved to ‘passive status’ shows deep regional disparities. When the number of students in each region is compared with the number of students registered as having exceeded the maximum age for basic education, Northeastern Anatolia, Southeastern Anatolia, and Central Eastern Anatolia emerge as having relatively high rates of ‘passive status’ by virtue of exceeding the maximum enrolment age.

**Children Living in Rural Areas:** Disparities exist between the adjusted net attendance rates of children living in urban and rural areas. The adjusted net attendance rate for 6-to 10-year-olds is 93.1 per cent in urban areas and 90.3 per cent in rural areas. The disparity between the ratios shows that the rate of exclusion from education is higher in rural than urban areas. According to DHS 2008 data the ratio of 6-to 13-year-old children who have not started school is 6 per cent in rural areas and 4 per cent in urban areas; similarly, drop-out rates for the same age group is 1.6 per cent in urban areas and 2.6 per cent in rural areas. Among children living in rural areas the situation of those who live in remote villages and in difficult terrain and climate requires a separate assessment, yet as a result of the absence of data on this issue such an analysis was not possible within the scope of this report.

**Children Living in Poor Households:** Attendance rates also vary based on the income of the household where the child resides. As shown in Graph 10, there is a strong relationship between exclusion from education and household income. Relevant studies support this relationship. For example, children who are not enrolled in school at the age of six are generally from very poor households, where the average number of children is five; children who are not enrolled in school by the age of eight are from even poorer households.

Another trend observed in the graph is that the relationship between household income and exclusion from education becomes stronger for girls, particularly 11-to 13-year-old and 14-to 17-year-old girls.
Similarly, according to DHS 2008 data, drop-out rates are higher among children who live in poor households; while the overall drop-out rate among 6-to 19-year-olds is 18.3 per cent, 24.7 per cent of children living in households in the poorest income quintile drop out of education. For the same age group, while 3.8 per cent of all children have not started school, for children living in households in the poorest income quintile this ratio is 8.7 per cent.

The relationship between household poverty and exclusion from education in the form of late enrolment, non-enrolment, irregular attendance or early drop-out is both direct, i.e. the household is unable to meet educational expenses, and indirect, i.e. the child is exposed to malnourishment, chronic hunger, poor health status, and child labour as a result of poverty, all of which put the child at a higher risk of exclusion from education.

**Working Children:** Child labour is closely related to children being out of school. Many children who are not in school are engaged in some form of work, and, for children in school, working is likely to make them more susceptible to premature drop-out. Understanding the interplay between child labour and out-of-school children is therefore critical to achieving both Education for All (EFA) and child labour elimination goals.

The current section presents a statistical profile of child labourers and out-of-school children. Such profile is an essential starting point for the design of effective policy strategies for achieving the goals of EFA and child labour elimination.

MEI, e-Okul and DHS 2008 data do not provide complete and reliable information to draw conclusions about the working status of an out-of-school child; but the Child Labour Survey conducted parallel to the Household Labour Survey in 2006 is an important data source in this regard. While disaggregation based on household income level, geographic location, child’s religion, ethnicity and other factors is not possible, the following analyses can be drawn about the relation between out-of-school children and child labour:

- According to the Child Labour Survey of 2006, about 2.8 percent of children aged 6-14 are involved in child labour. Disaggregation by gender and area of residence reveals sizable variation. Girls are more likely to be involved in child labour (3.2 per cent) than boys (2.4 per cent). Children living in rural areas are more likely to be involved in child labour (4.2 per cent) compared to their urban peers (1.9 per cent).
• Not surprisingly involvement in child labour increases with the age of the child; 6 per cent of children aged 12-14 are involved in child labour. The rate of child labour is higher in households where the head of household is illiterate, a possible indicator of the intergenerational transmission of educational attainment and poverty. Similarly, a child is more likely to be involved in child labour when the head of household is not registered in a public social security programme providing coverage against illness, unemployment, old age, highlighting a possible relation between household vulnerability and child labour.

• In terms of the relation between child labour and school attendance, while 6.2 per cent of 6-to 14-year-olds who are not exposed to child labour do not attend school according to the Child Labour Survey of 2006, for 6-to 14-year-old children who engage in child labour the rate of non-attendance is 55.5 per cent. Girls in this age group who engage in child labour are more likely to be not-attending school (64 per cent). Also, older children who engage in child labour are more likely to be not-attending school; for 12-to 14-year-old children who engage in child labour the rate of non-attendance is 71.5 per cent.

• In terms of the relation between being out-of-school and child labour, 20.4 per cent of all 6-to 14-year-old out-of-school children, and 38.2 per cent of all 12-to 14-year-old out-of-school children are exposed to child labour. 6-to 14-year-old out-of-school children living in rural areas are more likely to be exposed to child labour (23.7 per cent) than those living in urban areas (17 per cent).

• In terms of the relation between being out-of-school and work, some of which falls under the definition of child labour, 56.9 per cent of out-of-school children are involved in paid work, 42.3 per cent are involved in an unpaid family work, and 40.9 per cent are involved in household chores. Average hours of work are 56.7 hours, 30.7 hours and 15.6 hours respectively. The ratio of out-of-school children involved in paid work goes up in urban areas (89.3 per cent in urban areas, 32.1 per cent in rural areas); the ratio of out-of-school children involved in unpaid family work goes up in rural areas (67.2 per cent in rural areas, 9.8 per cent in urban areas). The ratio of out-of-school children involved in household chores is higher for girls (56.2 per cent for girls and 17.1 per cent for boys).

Esra is a 15-year-old girl. She’s attending 8th grade in basic education. Her favourite classes are music and art. Esra’s mother passed away when she was five years old, and Esra and her younger sibling moved in with their grandmother. They live in a single-room house in Ankara. Their windows are covered with plastic sheeting instead of glass. Their front door is broken and does not shut properly.

Their grandmother is old and has back problems. Esra and her 11-year-old sibling are the only people making an income in the household. After school, they change their clothes and together they go to collect garbage. “We collect plastic and nylon from the trash cans. They buy them in kilos. We make about 5-10 liras each day. We give the money we make to our grandmother. She buys the things we need,” says Esra.

There were times when Esra could not go to school, “my grandmother fell down and cracked her shoulder, she could not move, so I had to stay at home and take care of her,” she says. When her friends asked her why she was not coming to school, she felt embarrassed and just said that she was ill. Her grandmother eventually got better, so she now tries to attend school regularly. But because she works at night, she does not have the time to do her homework. She also gets ill very frequently because she is cold all the time. When she is ill, she cannot go to school.

While the Child Labour Survey data is suitable to carry out some analyses about the general characteristics of child labour and the relation between child labour and exclusion from education, it contains limited data on the types of child labour. The worst forms of child labour are particularly important inasmuch as these forms of child labour pose the greatest barriers to educational access. In the case of Turkey, the worst forms of child labour have been identified as working in the streets, working in hazardous industrial work in small
and medium-size enterprises, and working in mobile and seasonal commercial agricultural work. The rights violations, including right to health and security, experienced by children in these groups makes starting and attending school particularly difficult. There is no data available to calculate the total number of children involved in the worst forms of child labour in Turkey.

The main characteristics highlighted in various research on children working in the streets include the following: (i) most children work in the streets because their families want them to, (ii) very few of the children working in the streets live on the streets, (iii) forced or economic migration play a major role,83 (iv) most of the children working in the streets are male.84 In 2008, 3632 children were brought to Security Forces for being forced to work in the streets and 44.2 per cent of these children were 11 or younger; in 2009, 479 children were brought to the Directorate General for Security – Child Unit for living on the streets.85 While these figures do not provide a complete picture of the children working and/or living on the streets, they show that the size of the problem is not negligible.

Mustafa is an 11-year-old boy. While his peers are in 5th grade, Mustafa is attending a 1st-3rd grade remedial programme (Catch Up Curriculum Programme) and he is just learning to read. He used to collect paper with his brother during the days and had attendance problems, but now both of them have started attending the programme regularly.86 Among children working in mobile and seasonal commercial agricultural work prevalent problems include never starting school, having long periods of absenteeism and dropping out. Based on previous research, it is estimated that there are between 800,000 and 1.2 million mobile and seasonal agricultural workers and 35-40 per cent of these are 5-to 17-year-old child workers.87 Research conducted in low-income neighbourhoods of Şanlıurfa province, where mobile and seasonal agricultural work is prevalent, estimated that 17,000 5-to 15-year-old children living in these neighbourhoods were involved in mobile and seasonal agricultural work; these children were found to be living outside the Şanlıurfa province for some or all of the March – November period.88 Another research project conducted across 115 schools located in those provinces where seasonal agricultural work is prevalent showed that about 10 per cent of the students left school before receiving their report cards at the end of school year because they work in mobile and seasonal agricultural work; these children leave school on average 38.5 days before the school year ends and start school on average 32.6 days after the school year begins.89

Unregistered Children: A sub-group of out-of-school children are unregistered children. Nationally representative data on population registration, which is important for enrolling in and attending school, is available in the DHS. However, the DHS collects this data only for under-5 children. Based on DHS 2008 data, it is estimated that 360,000 children out of the total number of 6 million children who are under-5, are not officially registered and do not have a population record.90 The rate of non-registration increases with parents not having an official civil marriage certificate, poverty, living in rural areas, and residing in the disadvantaged regions of the country.91 For example, one out of every ten 4-year-olds living in eastern provinces are not registered while one out of every twenty 4-year-olds living in rural areas are not registered.92 These figures are likely to be an underestimation of the reality given that nomads and homeless individuals are not included in the DHS sample.

Qualitative research on unregistered, late-registered and falsely-registered individuals in Turkey reveals that stateless children, girls, children born into polygamous families and children whose parents are not officially married are faced with problems regarding official registration and acquisition of a population record more frequently than those who are born into monogamous and/or legally married families.93

Children with Special Learning Needs and Children with Disabilities: Children with special educational needs and children with disabilities constitute a significant group among the out-of-school children. National
figures on children with special educational needs are not available in Turkey; data from health surveys and disability surveys give a limited picture of the dimensions of the issue. For example, data on the health problems experienced by 0-to 6-year-olds reveals that 1.8 per cent experience hearing loss, 2.1 per cent have vision loss, 1.7 per cent have mental retardation, and 2.6 per cent have musculo-skeletal abnormalities. According to the national disability survey, 135,164 5-to 9-year-olds are estimated to have a orthopedic, visual, hearing, speech/language and/or mental disability.95 

It is not possible to draw any conclusions about the number of out-of-school children who have special education needs based on existing data. Assuming that 135,164 of the 5-to 9-year-olds have at least one disability and that a total of 125,729 of children at the basic education level (corresponding to 6-to 13-year-olds) receive special educational services (22,608 in special education schools, 18,541 in special education classrooms, 84,580 in mainstreamed classrooms)96, it can be concluded that some of the children with special educational needs are out-of-school. Likewise, while the illiteracy rate among the general population older than 6 is 14.52 per cent, the rate is 36.33 per cent among those with one or more disability.97

**Children with Chronic Illnesses:** A sub-group of out-of-school children is children with chronic illnesses or children who need long-term treatment. Chronic illnesses are those illnesses that inhibit the work capacity and functions of an individual and require continuous care and treatment.98 The national disability survey results show that 184,113 5-to 9-year-olds have a chronic illness.99 Children with chronic illnesses are faced with several challenges in regularly attending school and actively participating in learning processes. Children who do not have chronic illnesses but who need long-term treatment are faced with difficulties in attending school; while the number of basic education schools in hospitals has increased in recent years, their nationwide availability is still limited.

**Roma Children:** Roma children constitute an important sub-group among out-of-school children. A field study conducted from July 2006 to January 2008 to find out about the rights violations experienced by Roma revealed that Roma remains the group with the lowest levels of educational attainment, school enrolment and literacy rates.100 According to the same study, among the main reasons for the exclusion of Roma children from education are inadequate financial resources, prejudices and low expectations in schools.101 Additionally, as a result of forced evictions, demolition of entire neighbourhoods, and demolition of tents of nomadic groups, Roma children may face significant barriers to registration and attendance in school.102 There are no quantitative studies on the non-enrolment, late enrolment, irregular attendance and early drop-out of Roma children; qualitative studies on these topics are limited in number. There is an urgent need for more research and the development of targeted interventions to mitigate the risk of exclusion from education for Roma children.

**Children Living in Single Mother Households:** The rate of exclusion from education is higher for children where the mother is the sole head of household. Analyses based on data from the Household Budget Survey indicate that there is a statistically significant negative relationship between the participation rate of girls in both basic and secondary education and having the mother as the sole head of household; 4 per cent of children live in households headed solely by their mothers.103

**Married Children and Child Mothers:** Adolescent girls who are married off and who become pregnant are a sub-group of out-of-school children. The only administrative data available regarding child marriages and adolescent pregnancies in Turkey is cases that are taken up in the legal system since the minimum age for official marriage is 17 and sexual acts with children constitutes a crime under criminal law.104 Data collected by DHS and Household Labour Survey on married children and child mothers includes only children who are 15-years-old or older. According to the 2008 DHS, 9.6 per cent of 15-to 19-year-old girls are married and 5.9 per cent have given birth; the rate of adolescents who have given birth goes up to 10.4 per cent in the Central Anatolia region.105 0.9 per cent of the 15-to 19-year-old girls indicated that they had been married off before the age of 15; 0.4 per cent of 15-year-old girls have given birth.106
Asylum Seekers, Refugees and Foreign Migrants: An important sub-group of out-of-school children is asylum-seekers, refugees, and foreign migrant children, for whom the state is obliged to ensure access to basic education regardless of their citizenship status according to both international and domestic law. Comprehensive and reliable data is not available on any of these groups. As of July 2010, 28.9 per cent of the 8707 refugees and 6044 asylum seekers registered with UNHCR in Turkey are 0-to 17-year-olds. Refugees and asylum seekers cannot choose their city of residence. Instead they are assigned by the state to reside in one city; in order to leave this city even temporarily refugees and asylum seekers need to receive written permission from the provincial authorities. Among children who are refugees or asylum seekers, 77 per cent of the 6-to 11-year-olds reported to UNHCR their attendance in grades 1-6 and 53 per cent of the 12-to 17-year-olds reported to UNHCR their attendance in grades 7-12.

No administrative data is available regarding the children of foreign migrants living in Turkey with or without permission. Administrative records show that 175,000 foreign migrants were residing in Turkey with permission in 2008, yet no information is available as to how many of them are 6-to 13-year-olds. Also in 2008, 66,000 migrants who were living in Turkey without permission were identified; this figure is important as it gives an indication of the large number of foreign migrants who are currently living in Turkey without permission.

Records from e-School indicate that 9461 children were in the EMIS system for basic education with a foreign identity number during the 2010/2011 school year. It is worth highlighting the fact that the number of children enrolled with a foreign identity number decreases in higher grades; while in first grade 1465 children are enrolled, in seventh grade 1097 and in eighth grade 269 children are enrolled, according to e-School records. Another issue worth highlighting is the significant difference between the number of girls and boys; for every 100 boys enrolled in a basic education school with a foreign identity number there are 87 girls.

Migrant Children and Nomadic Children: A sub-group of out-of-school children is children who had to migrate due to security concerns, domestic migrants and nomadic children. In the introductory section of the report, some basic figures about the large number of children affected by internal migration in Turkey are given; however, no data is available about nomadic children.

As highlighted in the analyses of DHS 2008 data, drop-out rates are significantly higher among children who migrated than those who have not; among 6-to 19-year-old children who have never migrated the rate is 17 per cent while for those children who have migrated at least once since their birth it is 25.6 per cent. Similarly, a research study with a sample of 764 adolescents in several provinces showed that the migration experience of a 5-to 15-year-old from a rural to an urban area – holding all variables about the household structure, income, parental education and employment constant – increases the possibility of dropping out from basic education by 103 per cent; and that this impact is even stronger for those children who migrated to Istanbul.

As also underlined in UNESCO’s Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011, displacement brings about the risk of extreme disadvantage in education for children. Underscoring this, a study conducted in 2005 showed that the attendance rates of children who had to migrate due to security concerns were lower, repetition rates were higher, and disparities were higher particularly for girls.

Children who are in Contact with the Law: Another sub-group of out-of-school children is children who are in contact with the law. For example, 29,084 children who were 11 or younger were brought to the security units in 2009; 2463 boys and 452 girls were brought to security units with the suspicion of committing a crime and the rest were victims of crimes. Among 12-to 14-year-olds, 36,023 children were brought to security units; 14,654 boys and 1,949 girls were brought to the security units with the suspicion of committing a crime. In 2008, 31,922 defendants, constituting 2.42 per cent of all defendants in the criminal cases, were 12-to 14-year-olds; 71,502 defendants, constituting 5.43 per cent were 15-to 17-year-olds. Children constitute 1.67 per cent of all people in prisons; 81 per cent of these children are not convicted but are awaiting trial.
Fourth and Fifth Dimensions: Children Who are at Risk of Being Excluded

The fourth and fifth dimensions of exclusion from education are those children who are currently attending school but are at the risk of being excluded; in the case of Turkey, the fourth dimension is comprised of children in 1st-5th grades and the fifth dimension is comprised of children in 6th-8th grades, regardless of their ages.

Studies on absenteeism and drop-out highlight as the child related common risk factors of exclusion from education the socio-economic status of the family, parental education, and gender. Overall, the findings from these studies parallel the profiles of children in the second and third dimensions – i.e. 6-to 10-year-olds and 11-to 13-year-olds who are out-of-school – analysed based on DHS 2008 data: poverty, child labour, and low parental education significantly and negatively impact the school attendance of children. Given that by definition children who are out-of-school were at risk of dropping out in the past, the similarity between these factors is to be expected. A more detailed review of findings from recent studies highlights the following issues regarding the profile of children:[119]

**Absenteeism**

Long periods of absences can be both a sign of and factor in a child’s dropping out of education. According to the results of a survey conducted in 21 schools with teachers and students to assess risks for absenteeism, among the factors that influence the absenteeism of those children who had long-periods of absenteeism in previous years are low parental education, low academic performance of the child, child labour, behavioral problems and problems with friends.[120] The main factors that influence the sudden long-periods of absenteeism of those children who did not have long periods of absenteeism in previous years include living far away from the family, having psychological problems, having a physical disability, and having difficulty expressing oneself in the language of education.[121]

Although a child’s low academic performance is among the factors related to absenteeism, it needs to be taken into account that among the main determinants of academic performance are socio-economic status of the family,[122] parental education,[123] and speaking a language other than the language of education at home.[124]

An analysis of data collected from a study with almost 3000 children, mothers and teachers in six provinces[125] shows that among the factors contributing to the drop-out risk are illiteracy of the mother, lack of family involvement in school-related matters, being a girl, speaking a language other than the language of education at home, the child having to work, low per capita spending in the household where the child resides, and the family not being registered in a public social security programme providing coverage against illness, unemployment, and old age.[126]

Data on absenteeism from the e-School Management Information System are particularly important with regards to the fourth and fifth dimensions of exclusion from education.[127] During the 2010/2011 school year for 1st-8th grades there were 575,712 children who were absent 21-50 days and 334,217 children who were absent for more than 50 days. In other words, of all the students enrolled in basic education school 5.4 per cent were absent for 21-50 days and 3.2 per cent were absent for more than 50 days. In these groups 40.1 per cent and 51.5 per cent were girls respectively.[128] In terms of gender parity, boys are overrepresented among absences less than 20 days and girls are overrepresented among absences more than 50 days. Because dropping out is not defined in the legislation and therefore not included in the e-School system, this needs to be remembered that some of the absences for more than 50 days are actually children who are out of school.

When data on absenteeism is analysed from a regional disparity perspective, 26.8 per cent of children who were absent for 21-50 days and 36.2 per cent of children who were absent for more than 50 days were from
Southeastern Anatolia Region; 15.7 per cent of all students enrolled in a basic education school reside in this region. Şanlıurfa, a province in this region where 3.8 per cent of all children enrolled in a basic education school in Turkey are attending school, stands out. 11.4 per cent of the children who are absent for 21-50 days and 16.8 per cent of the children who are absent for more than 50 days are in Şanlıurfa. The NUTS-1 regions ranked from highest to lowest in terms of the ratio of students who are absent for more than 20 days in a school year are as follows: Southeastern Anatolia (16.6 per cent), Northeastern Anatolia (14.6 per cent), Central Eastern Anatolia (12.9 per cent), Istanbul (7.3 per cent), Western Marmara (7.3 per cent), Mediterranean (7.1 per cent), Aegean (6.5 per cent), Western Anatolia (5.7 per cent), Eastern Marmara (5.3 per cent), Central Anatolia (5 per cent), Western Black Sea (4.8 per cent), and Eastern Black Sea (3.4 per cent).

Of the total 909,929 children who were absent for more than 20 days during 2010/2011 school year the reasons for this absenteeism were coded in the e-School Management Information System for 197,241 children. The following issues are worth highlighting with respect to the reasons of absenteeism recorded in the e-School Management Information System:

- For 34.2 per cent of absent children “familial reasons” and for 12.6 per cent of absent children “traditional reasons” were selected by the teachers and school administrators who enter the data in the e-School system. Of those children for whom “traditional reasons” were selected, 76.1 per cent were girls.
- For 9.5 per cent of the absent children working was selected; of these children about half were marked as working in mobile and seasonal agricultural work and about one-third were marked as working in household chores.
- For 6,426 children, disability was selected as the reason for absenteeism, which is worrying inasmuch as it suggests that children with disabilities are being excluded from education.

Falling Behind Peers: Grade Repetition and Late Entry to School

In general, starting behind or falling behind peers in school in terms of grade years does not automatically increase the risk of exclusion from education. In fact, a comparative study on grade retention in European countries where the rates of exclusion from education are extremely low at ISCED 1 and 2 levels shows that 25 per cent of children in Turkey start and/or fall behind their peers, a ratio close to the average of other European countries in the study. According to estimates based on DHS 2008 data, grade repetition is most common in grades 1, 3, 7 and 8.

Starting behind and falling behind peers in Turkey, however, brings about a higher risk of exclusion from education due to an administrative regulation which places a maximum age of attendance on children in basic education. Late entry and grade repetition constitute the two major reasons for the emergence of this risk. Looking at children who fall behind their peers in education, 6 per cent of 13-year-olds and 2 per cent of 14-year-olds are in 1st-5th grades. Similarly, 6.2 per cent of 15-year-olds and 1.8 per cent of 16-year-olds are in 6th-8th grades. All of these students are at risk of being disenrolled from school due to not graduating from basic education before the required age.

Late entry is one of the major reasons for falling behind peers in education. The relevant legislation in Turkey allows 6-year-old children who are not physically ready for basic education school to attend pre-primary education or postpone enrolment for one year, upon a written parental request. However, interviews conducted with parents of 6-year-olds who are not enrolled in school show that almost none have submitted such a request and almost none enrolled their child in pre-primary education. 29.9 per cent of 6-year-olds and 5.9 per cent of 7-year-olds are not enrolled in a basic education school. Late entrants are more likely to come from households with low income levels, low education levels, and parents with a history of
extensive unemployment or working in irregular jobs. These households also have an average number of five children, significantly more than the national average. A study on the profiles of late entrants and the reasons for late enrolment highlight parents being misinformed about the age of enrolment, uncertainty about their own child’s age, lack of awareness regarding enrolment procedures and/or educational assistance available, inadequate screening and monitoring efforts by the schools to identify and enroll children at the right age of enrolment, developmental retardation, health problems and disability of the child, and a large distance between home and school.

Grade repetition is another major reason for falling behind peers in education. According to the relevant legislation, grade repetition occurs when a teacher makes a referral for students who have low academic performance and long-periods of absenteeism to repeat; if the student is currently in 1st-3rd grades the decision about grade repetition is then made by the student’s teacher, principal or vice principal, and – if there is one – the guidance teacher; if the student is in 4th-8th grades the Class Teachers Council makes the repetition decision.

At the end of 2010/2011 school year, 1,278,957 students were referred by their teachers to be assessed for grade repetition. The relevant bodies decided 244,365 (19.1 per cent) of these students were to repeat their grade. While 37.7 per cent of the students whose cases were referred to the relevant body were girls, 56.7 per cent of the students for whom the relevant body decided grade repetition was necessary were girls, which is a figure that requires further investigation from a gender inequality perspective. Grade repetition was particularly high in the first grade (39.4 per cent of the total grade repeaters) and sixth grade (22.1 per cent of the total grade repeaters). In terms of the ratio of children who will repeat their grades to the total number of children who were referred to the relevant body for an assessment, the ratio among first graders was 90.7 per cent; 6.9 per cent of the children who were enrolled in first grade during the 2010/2011 school year will repeat first grade the following year.

**Graph 11: Number of students evaluated for grade repetition and number of students who will repeat grade**

(e-School 2011)
Summary Analysis of the Profiles of Out-Of-School Children

The following is a summary of the main issues regarding the profiles of out-of-school children, which is based on analyses building on the five dimension of the exclusion from education framework:

- In the first dimension - 5-year-old children - about one-out-of-three children are out-of-school. Girls, children who live in lower income households, and children who have special educational needs are more likely to be among the 5-year-olds who are out-of-school. The gender parity index for the first dimension is lower than at the ISCED 1 and ISCED 2 levels. In other words, gender inequality at the expense of girls plays a bigger role in the exclusion from education of 5-year-olds than it does for 6-to 10-year-olds and 11-to 13-year-olds. Another factor that stands out in the first dimension is the child’s province of residence; differences across provinces are extremely high in terms of the rates of out-of-school children.

- In the second and third dimensions that consist of 6-to 10-year-olds and 11-to 13-year-olds respectively, 91,896 children (0.9 per cent) were not enrolled in a basic education school or high school, according to administrative data from 2010/2011 school year. Most of the provinces with lower net enrolment rates are located in the Central Eastern Anatolia, Southeastern Anatolia, and Northeastern Anatolia regions. Enrolment rates are particularly low for 6, 11, 12 and 13-year-olds. Looking at gender-based exclusion from education due to non-enrolment, disparities that put girls at a disadvantage initially emerge for the 11-to 13-year-olds and get deeper starting from age 14. There is a significant overlap between those provinces with low net enrolment rates and deep gender disparities in exclusion from education.

- According to DHS 2008 data, there are 484,460 (7.5 per cent) 6-to 10-year-old children and 167,022 (4.3 per cent) 11-to 13-year-old children who are not attending school. It is estimated that of the out-of-school children who are 6-to 10-years-old 83.1 per cent will enrol late, and of the out-of-school children who are 11-to 13-years-old 75.8 per cent have dropped out. Furthermore, it is estimated that 56,786 6-to 13-year-old children will never enrol in or attend school and 190,176 children will drop out before graduating.

- Children who live in rural areas, in provinces in the East Region, which includes the Southeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Northeastern Anatolia regions of the NUTS-1, and in low-income households are more likely to be out-of-school, according to DHS 2008 data. Also based on DHS 2008 data, children whose parental education is low are more likely to be out-of-school. According to Child Labour Survey data, working children are more likely to be out-of-school than non-working children. In all these groups, girls are more likely to be out-of-schools than boys.

- Some sub-groups of out-of-school children are: unregistered children; children with special educational needs; children with chronic illnesses or who require long-term treatment; children who are married off and/or become pregnant; children who are asylum seekers, refugees and foreign migrants; children who had to migrate due to security concerns, domestic migrant and nomadic children; children who become in contact with the law.

- Characteristics of children who are in fourth and fifth dimensions, i.e. in 1st-5th grades and 6th-8th grades respectively and are at risk of being excluded from education, overlap with those children in second and third dimensions. An issue that stands out regarding the risk of exclusion from education is being behind peers in terms of progression in school, mostly as a result of a legislation regulating a maximum age for attending a basic education school. As a result, children who are late-entrants, who do not attend school for long periods due to health-related or other reasons or who repeat grades are more likely to be excluded from education.
Barriers and Bottlenecks Leading to Exclusion from Education

This section aims to present the causal processes regarding the five dimensions of exclusion from education. Causal processes are evaluated under four main topics and to the extent possible disaggregated for pre-primary, 1st-5th grades and 6th-8th grades. The barriers examined are: socio-cultural, psycho-social, social capital and health-related barriers; economic barriers; administrative regulations and school-related barriers and bottlenecks; and governance and financing-related barriers and bottlenecks. While the first two of the main topics are related more closely to the demand side of education and the latter two are related more closely to the supply side. There is a summary of the analyses under each of the four topics at the end of the section.

The fact that the analyses of various barriers and bottlenecks are done separately should not be taken to imply that a single barrier or bottleneck causes absenteeism or drop-out; what is more common is for barriers and bottlenecks to amalgamate and this overlapping of barriers to bring about the outcome of exclusion from education.147

Likewise qualitative research at the household level highlights the fact that factors in various categories play a role in the final decision about a child’s education. Among the most important is poverty and expenses related to education; other major factors include gender roles and expectations, expectations about the role of education in the child’s future, academic success of the child, distance to school and transportation to school, the child’s feelings about school, security at school, and the need for the child to help at home.148

Similarly, because barriers and bottlenecks are analysed outside the context of macro-level developments, it should not be ignored that contextual factors and particularly external shocks affect the processes that bring about exclusion from education. Contextual factors and external shocks make the child and the education system as a whole more vulnerable and as a result deepen the impact of barriers and bottlenecks. Economic crises, natural disasters and insecurity are particularly important in this regard. In the context of Turkey, contextual factors such as the 2001 and 2008 economic crises, 1999 Marmara Earthquake and other more localized earthquakes, floods and landslides have all increased this vulnerability, as has the insecurity which began in 1984 in the Southeastern Anatolia region and is continuing primarily in the Southeastern Anatolia and Central Eastern Anatolia regions.149 These factors likely can increase the possibility of exclusion from education that arise as a result of the barriers and bottlenecks presented in this section.

Socio-cultural, Psycho-social, Social Capital and Health Related Reasons

Among the foremost socio-cultural barriers that may bring about a child’s exclusion from education, values related to gender stand out, which is directly related to the disproportionately high ratio of girls who are out-of-school. Certain values related to disability are among the socio-cultural values that are directly related to the high rate of children with disability who are out-of-school.

Gender related values: Instead of analysing the effects of gender-related values on exclusion from education as a single dimensional issue, causal processes that emerge in this context are assessed in groups.150

- One of these groups is at the axis of chastity, honour and sexuality.151 Real-life implications of the values in this group include engaging or marrying girls off who enter adolescence due to the fear of ‘staining a girl’s honour’ on the way or at school. Among other patriarchal practices that arise from
the axis of chastity-honour-sexuality and result in girls being unofficially married as a child include “berdel” (exchanging of brides), “beşik kertmesi” (marriage arranged at birth), “başlık parası” (dowry paid to bride’s family), “kan bedeli” (daughter married off to compensate for killing someone), “kuma evliliği” (polygamous marriage), “levirat” (woman married off to the brother of the husband who died), “sororat” (woman married off to the husband of the sister who died) and akraba evlilikleri (marrying within extended family).152,153 Being engaged or married off as a child could lead directly to the girl dropping out from school154 or a pregnancy that follows a girl being married off could indirectly lead to the same outcome.155

- Another group is related to the family’s expectations about a child’s future being shaped by gender roles and these roles being sharply different for women and men. Families envision for a girl’s future a good marriage and a good motherhood, and for a boy’s future having an occupation and finding a good job; decisions about the duration of a child’s educational attainment are shaped based on these thoughts about the child’s future.156 In fact, Turkey has one of the lowest workforce participation rates for women in the world; the employment rate for women is less than 20 per cent and this rate is even lower in sectors other than agriculture.157

- Another group is the different roles assigned to girls and boys in terms of the child’s responsibility to the family. The roles assigned to girls are often related to care of the house and the household members inside the house, the roles assigned to boys are often related to working outside the house and contributing to the income of the family. Thus, 56.2 per cent of the out-of-school girls work an average of 17.7 hours per week on household chores whereas 17.1 per cent of the out-of-school boys work an average of 4.8 hours per week on household chores.158 On the other hand, 9.5 per cent of out-of-school girls work an average of 46.6 hours per week in income-generating work whereas 18.8 per cent of out-of-school boys work an average of 44.5 hours per week in income-generating work.159
The above-mentioned gender-related values that bring about exclusion from education are not limited to the nuclear family. Relations between relatives and clan ties that emerge in the context of marriages among relatives may mean that decisions about individual members are taken jointly; it is worth noting that in certain cases particularly for the decision about girl’s attendance to school, the father and father’s brother make a joint decision.\textsuperscript{160} Similarly, when the family lives in a village or neighbourhood that shows the traits of a closed-community, the gender-related values in this community may give rise to the risk of the girl child’s exclusion from education.

**Values related to disability:** Values related to disability can also be considered among the socio-cultural barriers that may bring about the exclusion of children with disability from education. No study could be found regarding the household-level decision-making process about the education of a child with disability. However, given that 57.6 per cent of individuals with a disability responded that they faced discrimination most of the time or always,\textsuperscript{161} it could be concluded that discrimination against individuals with a disability is widespread and that social values about disability have a discriminatory nature. In fact, in its Concluding Observations of May 2011, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights urged Turkey to raise social awareness about the rights of individuals with disability and fight against prejudice.\textsuperscript{162}

**Psycho-social reasons:** In cases where adequate support is not received, the psycho-social effects of a traumatic experience may lead to the disengagement of the child from education. Such traumatic experiences may include being forced into crime, being the survivor of a crime, being the survivor or witness of violence in or out of school, or being the survivor of sexual abuse and incest.

- The second section of the report included some figures on the prevalence of being forced into crime and being the survivor of a crime among children. In this group, no national standards exist about meeting the education rights and needs of 12-to 15-year-old children who are incarcerated; often their only option is distance learning. Children in this age group who are in education centres (eğitimevleri) attend basic education and secondary education in schools close to the centre yet no standard measures exist for these schools to provide adequate psycho-social support to them. For children in this group who are referred to the Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK) with en loco parentis court decision, relatively more comprehensive support services are available.

- The psycho-social effects of being the survivor or witness of violence in or out of school may bring about the disengagement of a child from education. No nationally-representative study could be found about the violence experienced by 5-to 13-year-old children in their homes and neighbourhoods. However, results from a nationally representative survey about domestic violence targeting women show that among 6-to 14-year-old children behavioural problems are encountered significantly more frequently among those children whose mother is the victim of physical and sexual violence.\textsuperscript{163} According to the same study, 41.9 per cent of women responded to have been the victim of physical or sexual violence at one point in their lives, and 13.8 per cent responded to have been the victim of physical or sexual violence in the preceding 12-month period. These findings highlight the prevalence of domestic violence. In a nationally-representative survey conducted in 2006 on family structure, 22.5 per cent of mothers and 10.6 per cent of fathers responded that they beat up their 3-to 17-year-old children sometimes or often during the preceding year.\textsuperscript{164} Cases of violence in schools are reviewed later in this section.

- Sexual abuse and incest is a traumatic experience for children, and it can have terrible psychological and psycho-social effects. In the nationally-representative survey on domestic violence targeting women, 7 per cent of women indicated to have been sexually abused before the age of 15; 30 per cent of the women who were sexually abused before the age of 15 said that the abuser was a male relative.\textsuperscript{165} Although cases that find their ways to security forces represent only a fraction of all cases of sexual abuse of children, the fact that there were 5664 cases taken to security forces in 2009\textsuperscript{166} hints at the size of the problem.
Reasons related to social capital: One of the barriers that may bring about the exclusion of a child from education is related to the weakness of community-based social capital. The strong relation between social capital and exclusion from education is apparent. In this context, the weaknesses and weakening of community-based social capital can come about as a result of internal and external dynamics.

With children who had to migrate due to security concerns, migrant children, asylum seekers, refugees and children of foreign migrants among the children at higher risk of exclusion from education, the impact of migration dynamics on social capital becomes important. A recent study conducted in a number of provinces including Istanbul, for example, highlights the weakening of community-based social capital as a result of migration and argues that in cases where the family’s ability to compensate for this weakening is inadequate the risk of exclusion from education increases.\textsuperscript{167}

Health related reasons: Another barrier that may bring about the exclusion of a child from education is chronic illness or illness that requires a long-term treatment of the child or a family member. Figures about children with chronic illnesses were presented in the previous section of the report. Health-related barriers create challenges for regular attendance in school and active participation in learning processes, and can be a catalyst in the course of drop-out. In fact, when children regularly attending school were asked about the most important reason that might lead to their not-attending or dropping-out-of school, respectively 58 per cent and 40.8 per cent of children selected their own or a family member’s health-problems.\textsuperscript{168}

Economic Barriers

Poverty: As also demonstrated with children living in poor households being a significant group among out-of-school children, at the heart of economic barriers that may bring about the exclusion of the child from education is household poverty. As also mentioned in the introduction section of the report, there were 339,000 people living under the hunger line in Turkey in 2009; 18.8 per cent of the total population live under the poverty line including food and non-food items, and this rate goes up to 38.7 per cent in rural areas.\textsuperscript{169} While the poverty rate for under-six children is 24.4 per cent nationwide, for children in the same group living in rural areas this ratio goes up to 48.7 per cent.\textsuperscript{170}

Similar to children living in rural areas, children living in provinces in disadvantaged regions, working children, unregistered children, children with special learning needs, Roma children, children living in single mother households, children who had to migrate due to security concerns, migrant children and nomadic children are more likely to be living in poor households.

The most direct effect of poverty on exclusion from education is because families are forced to choose between its necessary expenses as a result of limited resources. Direct and indirect expenses related to education are among these necessary expenses. In families with more than one child this choice might be about which child will and which one will not attend school.

While an enrolment fee is not foreseen in the legislation at the basic education level, a study on this topic shows that some parents are asked for various fees under the name of donation, contribution to school family unions, contribution to repairs, constructions, and equipment purchases in order to meet the financial needs of the school.\textsuperscript{171} Indirect education expenses at the basic education level may include school uniforms, education materials other than textbooks, transportation fees, exam fees, and pocket money to be spent towards lunch for children who attend full-day classes. These educational expenses become a significant barrier for the school attendance of particularly children living in poor households.

In addition to its direct effects, poverty also deepens the challenges faced by groups of children who are at higher risk of being out-of-school, such as children with special learning needs, children with disabilities, children with chronic illnesses, refugees, asylum seekers, and children of foreign migrants.
**Child labour:** Working children constitute a significant group among out-of-school children. In poor households, the opportunity cost associated with sending a child to school is a significant amount when compared to the household’s total amount of financial resources. As a result, the non-attendance of a child in school not only eliminates the expenses related to education but it also creates the opportunity for creating an additional source of income for the household if the child can be employed. In certain cases, the decision to find a job for the child comes with the decision to drop-out; in these cases children’s work directly brings about their exclusion from education. In other cases like mobile and seasonal agricultural work, the decision for the child to work brings about the decision for the child to not attend school for a few months that year; in these cases, the decision for the child to work does not directly bring about exclusion from education but it increases the risk of it.

**Malnutrition:** One of the most visible effects of poverty on children is malnutrition, which is a main risk factor with respect to the exclusion of children living in poor households from education. In Turkey, 10.3 per cent of under-five children are moderately stunted and 3.2 per cent are severely stunted; these rates go up to 21 per cent and 8.3 per cent respectively in the East Region of the country.\(^{171}\) For children of mothers who never attended school or who did not complete five-years of primary education, these rates are 22.6 per cent and 9.9 percent respectively.\(^{173}\) Malnutrition creates irreversible damage on the cognitive development of the child,\(^{174}\) and when combined with daily hunger increases the risk of exclusion from education. Research in this field shows that malnutrition and subsequent developmental retardation such as stunting is a major problem at times leading to late enrolment in school.\(^{175}\)

Adequate consumption of iodine is another factor with significant impact on the cognitive development of the child. In terms of the relation between income levels and rates of consumption of salt with iodine, while nationally 15 per cent of the households use non-iodized salt in Turkey, in rural areas the rate goes up to 30 per cent, and in the Central Eastern Anatolia and Southeastern Anatolia regions more than half of the households use non-iodized salt.\(^ {176}\)

Children living in rural areas, children living in provinces in disadvantaged regions, children living in poor households, children with disabilities, working children, children with chronic illnesses, children who had to migrate due to security concerns and nomadic children are at higher risks of malnutrition and its consequences related to education.

**Subsistence farming:** Subsistence farming is a factor that needs to be jointly analysed with economic barriers that may bring about the exclusion from education of children living in rural areas. In households that engage in subsistence farming, the need for the child’s labour increases, the level of poverty deepens, and the role of education in the parents’ thoughts about their child’s future diminishes. 9.7 per cent of the out-of-school children living in rural areas said that they were involved in unpaid family work; they work on average 30 hours per week. In fact, the regional distribution of households engaged in subsistence farming parallels the regional attendance rates in school.\(^ {177}\) In rural areas of Turkey, 46 per cent of households are engaged in subsistence farming.\(^ {178}\)
Administrative Regulations and School-Related Barriers and Bottlenecks

Even in cases where the personal characteristics of the child and the characteristics of the household and the community where the child lives increase the risk of exclusion from education, active support and effective education services provided in schools have the ability to mitigate this risk. When support provided in school is inadequate and the education services are ineffective, the child’s risk of exclusion from education increases. In fact, various studies on absenteeism and drop-out in Turkey highlight the problems arising from the school and the education system. In this part of the report under the headings of administrative regulations and schools, the causal processes that are triggered by the education system and that lead to exclusion from education are analysed.

Administrative Regulations

In this part of the report, among the administrative regulations that increase a child’s risk of exclusion from education, those related to enrolment, school calendar, absenteeism and maximum age of attendance are discussed.

Enrolment: Administrative regulations regarding enrolment in school have been revised following the introduction of the e-School Management Information System and the ADNKS in 2008. This revision invalidated the flexible administrative practices that allowed for temporary enrolment - which at times went on for several years - of children who are not registered in the population records and children who do not have a foreigner identity number; instead the enrolment process was computerized based on the ADNKS and as a result of this new administrative process those children not in the ADNKS were faced with the risk of being excluded from education. This is an administrative process that may prove detrimental with respect to the exclusion from education of unregistered children, refugee children, asylum seeker children, and children of foreign migrants.

Current administrative regulations dictate that a child who is not registered in the population records are referred to the population and citizenship directorate and that they are enrolled in school via the e-School only after they have a population registration and citizenship number. Prior to the recent revisions, children who were not registered in the population records could be temporarily enrolled in school and then the family was guided to the population and citizenship directorate. Furthermore, the prior regulation whose flexibility gave the school principal some incentive in determining the difference between a child’s real age and official age, which is the age recorded in population registration, has been replaced by a more rigid regulation. Currently, the process and costs associated with the age determination of children who are not registered in the population records as well as the late fees associated with late registration can create major hurdles, and could cause the child to register late or not to register ever.

The school enrolment procedure for children who are currently in Turkey and are citizens of another country requires a foreigner identity number. For acquiring this identity number, a residence permit is necessary, which can be received only after legally residing in Turkey for six months and paying 149 TL for documentation fee and 696.50 TL annually. While current administrative regulations allow for refugees and asylum seekers to be exempt from these fees, problems are at times encountered during implementation. For unregistered migrants, such an application is not even a possibility. For all these reasons, the administrative regulations regarding the enrolment of children who are in Turkey and are citizens of another country significantly increase their risk of exclusion from education.

Another administrative regulation related to enrolment that impedes access to education is related to incarcerated children. The most common option for 12-to 15-year-old children who are incarcerated is to enrol in open basic education (açık ilköğretim) that provides distance learning. Yet the nature of the administrative regulation for enrolment in open basic education can actually increase the risk of exclusion
from education for incarcerated children who want to attend school. The enrolment period is limited to five weeks; enrolment requires a certain fee to be deposited in a bank as well as a file with a few official documents and photos to be submitted to a designated office.184

Administrative regulations for the enrolment of 5-year-olds in public pre-primary education requires being registered in the population records, filling out an application form, and providing four photographs and an immunization card.185 In addition to these documents required for enrolment, a monthly fee needs to be paid for the child to continue attending pre-primary school; in cases where the monthly fee is not paid within a certain period of time, the school disenrolls the child and bars the child from attending school.186 Minimum and maximum monthly fees are determined on a sub-province and province bases; the average minimum monthly fee for half-day pre-primary classes was 9 TL and the maximum monthly fee was 33 TL in 2011; for full-day pre-primary classes the fees were 88 TL and 155 TL respectively.187 The administrative regulations also foresee that one-tenth of the capacity of pre-primary education institutions are set aside for the children of those who died in military action, veterans and poor families, but feeless enrolment requires the submission of an inspection form and supporting documents.188 In neighbourhoods and villages with high density of poverty, it is clear that the one-tenth quota will be insufficient and the regular payments will act as a deterring factor for poor households. Also, the administrative regulations for enrolment in pre-primary education may increase the risk of excluding the children who most need pre-primary education both due to its contents and complexity.

School Calendar: Current administrative regulation regarding the school calendar increases the risk of exclusion from education. The total duration of the school year, the start and end dates, the dates of the winter break are all decided by MEB.189 The fact that the school year is determined centrally and rigidly brings about the outcome whereby the school totally ignores the temporal manifestation of local conditions, such as the annual agricultural calendar or the seasonal agricultural migration calendar. The failure to take into account local conditions leads to especially children living in rural areas, and children whose families or themselves work in seasonal agriculture being not able to attend school during certain periods of the school year and as a result increases the risk of exclusion from education.

Absenteism: Given that absenteeism from school increases the risk of drop-out, the content and effectiveness of administrative regulations about absenteeism are particularly important. A study on absenteeism from school shows that one of its main reasons is the absence of repercussions for absence from school.190 In fact, according to the same study about half the children responded that when they were absent from school nothing happened, one out of 10 students indicated having "received papers at home", and the percentage of children who said that a teacher came to their house to follow up on their absence was 2.5. 191

The administrative regulation states that ensuring a child’s attendance in school is the responsibility of the parent or a legal guardian, and the school administration, national education directorates, education inspectors, elected representatives of neighbourhood and villages (muhtar) and civilian local authorities.192 The absence of a student is to be constantly monitored by the school
administration via the e-School system, and parents are to be immediately informed of their unexcused absence.193 Also falling under the legal responsibilities of school administration and basic education auditors is to identify the causes of a child’s absenteeism and to work towards resolving financial and non-financial causes.194 Following notification and warnings to parents who did not fulfil their responsibilities for the enrolment and attendance of their child, a fine is issued.195 However, based on the findings of the above-mentioned study, it seems that these regulations are not administered equally effectively in all schools.

Another problematic area in terms of the causal processes of exclusion from education is the fact that one of the intervention methods foreseen in the regulation for unexcused absence from school is sending written notifications and warnings to the parents. Given that the parents of children who face a higher risk of exclusion from education are more likely to have low levels of education, be illiterate and not know Turkish as well as live in places with a slow and ineffective postal system, and that a letter is a relatively ineffective method of following up and convincing, this intervention method is unlikely to decrease the risk of exclusion from education.

For all these reasons, the Gradual Absence Management Model, which was initiated by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education in August 2011 and discussed further in the final section of this report, is a welcome development.

**Maximum age of attendance:** The fact that there is a maximum age for attending a basic education school in Turkey beyond which students cannot attend increases the risk that students drop out. As discussed earlier, this particularly increases the risk of exclusion from education for children who fall behind their peers because they are late entrants, have a prolonged absence/break in their education, or repeat grades. Children with chronic illnesses or who need long-term treatment, children with special learning needs, malnourished children most of whom are from poor households, children who had to migrate due to security concerns, migrant children, among others are particularly at risk of starting school late or repeating grades, and subsequently being excluded from education as a result of the regulation regarding maximum age of attendance.

**Barriers Posed by the Learning Environment**

In this section of the report issues that are related to schools that engage in practices or have features that negatively impact the learning environment, consequently increasing the risk of exclusion from education, are taken up under four categories: location of the school, security of the child in the school environment, physical conditions of the school, and teachers.

**Location of the school:** Long distances between school and home and the inconvenience of transportation can increase the risk of exclusion from education, especially for girls and for children with disability. This is particularly true for those children living in remote and small villages in rural areas and in neighbourhoods in urban areas that receive significant numbers of migrants and evolve without planning. The increase in the distance between school and home in rural areas is partly caused by MEB constructing its access policy in areas with dispersed and sparse population on the options of bussing education and boarding education, instead of strengthening the multigrade class model.

A survey study on late enrolment highlights the following among the causes of late enrolment in school that are related to bussing education and boarding education: enrolling the child at least one year late so that “the child can endure the difficulties posed by long distances”, unwillingness to allow especially girls to ride in crowded school busses, unwillingness to allow girls to stay in boarding schools and to wait until the younger male sibling is old enough to attend school with her.197 These problems become more acute in areas with challenging terrain and climate conditions. In remote and small villages where these conditions make bussing education unfeasible, the only remaining option is boarding education. In this context, it is important
to mention that about 4 per cent of children registered in boarding schools appear as permanently absent in administrative records.\textsuperscript{198}

Where the distance between school and home is less than 2 km, the regulation assumes that children reach school on their own.\textsuperscript{199} It is clear that having to walk on a daily basis distances up to 4 km particularly in areas with challenging terrain and climate conditions may increase the child’s risk of exclusion from education.

In urban areas, particularly in certain neighbourhoods created at times of intense migration without any planning for infrastructure or land-use, as a result of limited availability of suitable land for school construction and difficulties with expropriation, children may end up having to attend a school in another neighbourhood. In order to reach these schools many of which have a double-shift system, children end up having to walk long distances very early or very late in the day, and as a result their risk of exclusion from education increases.

No studies could be found about school-home distances in rural and urban areas, and its impact on school attendance or on emotional development of particularly young children; similarly no MEB analysis for planning or other purposes was available on school-home distances. It is troubling that especially the scope of bussing education is being expanded without research looking into its efficiency and impacts. During 2011-2012, bussing education was used as a means for ensuring the access of 5-year-olds to pre-primary education. In 2012, with the age of starting basic education brought down to 5, children at this age are now included within the scope of bussing education. Also in 2012, with upper secondary education becoming mandatory, children who are attending 9th-12th grades are now also included within the scope of bussing education.

Graph 12: Number of children in bussing education, boarding education\textsuperscript{200} and multigrade class

As seen in the graph, in recent year the gender disparity in bussing education, boarding education and multigrade classes decreased, yet the disparity could not be fully overcome in bussing education and boarding education. The decreasing trend for the number of children in multigrade classes and boarding education is also worth highlighting.

Security in school: The child not feeling secure enough in school and the parents worrying about the security of their child in school may contribute to a child’s dropping-out of school, particularly for girls. For example, a study on the factors that play into a household’s decision about education shows that security
is considered to be an important factor, and among the perceived sources of risk to a child’s security are violence, discipline problems, drugs and men. In a study on absenteeism and drop-out, in response to the question “what do you think is the most important reason that could cause you to stop attending school,” one out of every ten children attending school selected “not feeling secure in school.”

Among the main factors that diminish security in school are violence, sexual abuse, corporal punishment, armed attacks targeting schools, and selling of addictive substances in and around schools. In terms of the prevalence of violence in schools, for example a nationally representative survey with 26,000 13-to 18-year-old students shows that in the preceding three months 22 per cent of the students responded to have faced physical violence, 53 per cent verbal violence, 36 per cent emotional violence and 15.8 per cent sexual violence. According to another study with 3000 basic education school students in six provinces, 10 per cent of the students responded that they did not feel secure in school and 46 per cent were beaten up by their teacher at least one; this ratio is higher for male students and students with lower socioeconomic status.204

Although a strategy and action plan were prepared for the 2006-2011 period to reduce violence in school, there have been no evaluations of the steps taken and impact achieved in this regard. Recording of the incidences of violence in schools into the system created as part of the action plan has been unreliable; significant inconsistencies exist between various research findings about the high prevalence of violence in schools and the official data collected from this system.207

Two special cases with respect to security are boarding schools and bussing education. Although boarding schools create a higher risk of all types of violence including sexual abuse, no targeted, specific intervention exists to prevent or mitigate violence in boarding schools. For the case of bussing education, the risk of traffic accidents turn the means of access to education into a security problem; also the risk of being a victim of violence could be higher while on the school bus.

**Physical condition of the school:** Another group of factors that can increase a child’s risk of exclusion from education is related to the school’s physical conditions, including class size, adequate availability of potable water and uninterrupted supply of electricity, adequate number and type of toilets that meet different needs of girls and boys, accessibility of classrooms and common space for all children but particularly children with orthopaedic, visual and hearing disabilities.

In terms of the relation between class size and the risk of exclusion from education, disparities across provinces in the number of students per classroom and per division, and the prevalence of double-shift system stand out.

**Graph 13: Number of provinces by the number of students per classroom and division**

![Graph showing number of provinces by number of students per classroom and division](image-url)
In 2010/2011 school year, 52 per cent of students were in a double-shift system; this rate was 67 per cent in 2003/2004 school year. Although transitioning from a double to a single-shift system is one of the priority goals established in national planning documents and education strategic planning documents, and the general trend in recent years is in this direction, the disparities across provinces are deep. For example, while in seven provinces all children are in a single-shift system, in Batman and Bursa approximately 25 per cent and in Şanlıurfa 15 per cent of children are able to benefit from a single-shift system.

A cross-regional, provincial and sub-provincial comparison in terms of the resources at the basic education level shows visible and deep disparities. According to a study that groups sub-provinces into 10 development levels in terms of available resources like classrooms, laboratories, teachers and library as well as educational outcomes, all of 37 sub-provinces in the lowest development level are located in the Southeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Northeastern Anatolia regions.

Graph 14: Number of provinces by the ratio of students in double-shift system

Bahadir, 7, attend a ‘child-friendly’ school that offers a free education to local pupils, as well as boarders, many of whom are orphans or otherwise at risk.
No administrative data exists about the current situation and the needs regarding the accessibility of classrooms and common spaces; yet Law number 5378 that went into effect in 2005 requires all buildings belonging to public institutions and agencies, including schools to be made accessible to people with disabilities until May 2012. Boarding education services provided for children living in rural areas also need to be highlighted in this context. The physical structures where boarding education services are provided were not planned to ensure their accessibility for children with orthopaedic, visual and hearing disability; since then, no comprehensive renovations have been made to ensure accessibility. In its Concluding Observations, the United Nations Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights urged Turkey to ensure that people with disabilities have physical access to all schools as well as official buildings, parks, hospitals and public services.

**Teachers:** Teachers have a key role in increasing or decreasing child’s risk of exclusion from education. A study on drop-out showed that as children’s sense of belonging to their school increases, their attendance improves, and that one of the two main factors that impact the sense of belonging is the relation that children establish with their teacher. Similarly, the quality of education is a factor in attendance and drop-out rates, and the teacher performance and capabilities is a strong determinant of the quality of education.

Teachers at the basic education level in Turkey are particularly young with 80 per cent under the age of 40. Another study on this topic states that in addition to teachers being young, the turn-over rate of teachers is high; 71.2 per cent of teachers surveyed indicated that they have been working at their current school for five or fewer years.

At the basic education level, the number of male and female teachers are almost equal yet at the level of school principals there are nine male principals for every female principal. In boarding basic education schools, for every 78 male principals there is one female principal.

At the basic education level all teachers have completed two or four years of higher education. Some teacher candidates continued onto higher education after attending teacher high schools at the secondary education level, others graduated from teachers colleges, and others graduated from departments other than teachers colleges and completed additional training requirements. However, according to a study on this topic 25.1 percent of classroom teachers and 18.7 per cent of subject teachers indicated working in a subject area other than the field of their diploma.

Teachers at the basic education level fall under three categories in terms of their contractual status: permanent (kadrolu), contracted (sözleşmeli), and temporary (ücretli). Permanent status is the most advantageous of the three in terms of rights and benefits; their contracts are permanent. Contracted teachers have limited rights and benefits, they are contracted on an annual basis. Temporary teachers work in schools where there are not adequate number of permanent and contracted teachers; their rights and benefits are very limited and they are paid based on the number of hours they teach.

Across Turkey, 77.7 per cent of all teachers at the basic education level are permanent, 10.5 per cent are contracted, and 13.3 per cent are temporary. The NUTS-1 regions where the ratio of permanent teachers to all teachers is the lowest are Northeastern Anatolia (60.9 per cent), Central Eastern Anatolia (65.9 per cent), and Southeastern Anatolia (67.2 per cent) regions. The disparity across the regions could partially be explained by policies incentivising teachers to work in more difficult places. In order to attract an adequate number of teachers for serving in schools with difficult conditions and located in remote areas, MEB’s policies are limited to the mandatory service and a service score system based on sub-provincial rankings; there are no additional professional or financial incentives. As a result, the number of teachers with a permanent status willing to work in schools with difficult conditions and located in remote areas is inadequate, and permanent teachers who work in these schools have a high turnover rate. The high turnover rate leads to a high turnover in personnel, which in turn leads to instability in the quality of education.
rate of permanent teachers in schools with difficult conditions and located in remote areas can negatively affect the quality of education in these schools, which can then lead to a higher risk of dropping out of school for children in these schools.

In order for a teacher to decrease a child’s risk of exclusion from education, the teacher needs to be able to pay personal attention to each student; hence, not having too many students per teacher becomes an important factor. While the pupil-teacher ratio has decreased through time, significant disparities remain across provinces. Teacher absenteeism is an issue that needs to be analysed in parallel to pupil-teacher ratio. MEB does not collect any data on teacher absenteeism. According to an international study on 6th-8th grade teachers, 35.1 per cent of school principals in Turkey indicate teacher absenteeism and 31 per cent indicate teachers being late as problems that hinder learning processes significantly or to some extent.

Graph 15: Number of provinces by pupil-teacher ratio

Among major obstacles limiting teachers’ ability to reduce a child’s risk of exclusion from education are: (i) current policies and programmes that do not provide solutions for cases where a child’s first language is different from the language of education, (ii) teachers inadequately equipped with the necessary skills and capabilities, and (iii) teachers’ individual efforts to create solutions being impeded by the system. As a result, teachers are not able to provide the learning processes and take the steps that are necessary to prevent the children who are at a higher risk of exclusion from education, from leaving the education system.

Teacher capabilities defined by MEB during 2002-2005 period consist of six main areas of capabilities, 31 sub-areas of capabilities and 233 performance indicators; among the sub-areas of capabilities that are most relevant to out-of-school children are valuing the student, recognising the development characteristics of the student, taking into account the interests and needs of a student, providing guidance to the student, taking into account personal differences and providing a variety of learning options, behaviour management, getting to know the family and impartiality in relations with the family, family participation and cooperation.

A study conducted in six provinces through observation of and interviews with 611 teachers shows that the teachers’ abilities in all these listed sub-areas of capabilities are “average”, and they are in need of further development. Another study conducted, for example, shows that 81 per cent of teachers do not use a method other than observation to determine the students’ level of development and personal differences. According to the same study, 26 per cent of the teachers carry out student-specific activities and exercises to support the development of children with lower academic performance.
The impact of a teacher on a child’s exclusion from education is particularly significant for children with special educational needs. The introduction of special education opportunities including mainstreaming practices since 1997 is an important development.\textsuperscript{229} Yet certain major obstacles remain that hinder mainstreaming practices from effectively decreasing the risk of exclusion from education. At the top of these obstacles are inadequate in-class support services, an inadequate number of counsellors and special education teachers in schools with mainstreaming, teachers not having the necessary capabilities for mainstreaming.\textsuperscript{230} These obstacles are exacerbated by the physical conditions of the school and the classrooms not being appropriate for mainstreaming and class sizes being high.\textsuperscript{231} An important observation about mainstreaming is that 67.7 per cent of all students who are mainstreamed are girls,\textsuperscript{232} which is a figure that requires further investigation from a gender perspective.

**Governance and Finance-Related Barriers and Bottlenecks**

The causal processes related to a child’s exclusion from education are not limited to personal, family, environmental characteristics, administrative practices and conditions of the schools; macro-level governance and finance are also important. In this part of the report, those dimensions of governance and finance-related policies and practices in the education sector that are related to exclusion from education are discussed.

**Governance in the Education Sector and Exclusion From Education**

The content of administrative practices and the conditions of schools are reflection and outcome of processes of making and implementing education policies. In other words, central and local-level institutional arrangements, which includes the structure of the institution, management system, decision making/implementation/monitoring processes and the like, are the structural reasons for the practices that may bring about the outcome of a child’s exclusion from education. In this regard, the following topics emerge among the governance-related sources of practices that may lead to a child’s exclusion from education:

**Administrative and managerial centralisation:** Possibly the most prominent characteristics of the management and administrative dimensions of the education system in Turkey is its extremely centralised structure.\textsuperscript{233} All decisions that influence a school’s conditions, such as hiring and appointing teachers, as well as appointing administrative managers at the school, province and sub-province levels; preparation of curriculum; writing, approving and purchasing textbooks; preparing the school year work calendar, are made at the central level. The main responsibilities of administrative managers at the province and sub-province levels, and school principals and vice principals are less about making decisions that affect the school conditions and more about implementing those decisions that are made centrally. Despite the extreme centralisation of administrative and managerial dimensions, those financial decisions that are about the creation of resources to meet many of the school expenses take place at the provincial and school levels; the consequences of such financial decentralisation will be discussed in subsequent sections on education financing.

One of the reasons for the negative repercussions of the centralised management system on administrative practices and school conditions is the insufficiency of mechanisms for implementing centrally-made decisions, which would ensure the effective implementation of legislative regulations. For example, supplementary mechanisms such as in-service trainings, initiatives to create awareness among implementers, monitoring and evaluation efforts, identification and managing of factors that may hinder an
effective implementation, are not created or not deepened and expanded in parallel to issuing regulations and decrees so that centrally initiated reform efforts are realised at the school level. As a result, many centrally-made decisions that have the potential to prevent the exclusion of children from education are unable to have the desired effect when implemented.

Another reason for the centralised management system to have negative repercussions in terms of the administrative practices and school conditions is the lack of adequate human resource capacity at the central level, which is a must for the effective functioning of a centralised structure. The main reason for this is the insufficient number of staff at the central offices. Additionally, the fact that central offices are staffed by the appointment of teachers may at times mean that the capabilities of the staff do not fully match their areas of responsibility.

Past efforts towards reforming the institutional structure in order to overcome the problem related to the management structure have not brought about any concrete outcomes for a long time. Recently, a Green Paper was prepared to this end, on September 2011 a new institutional law for the Ministry of National Education came into effect through a statutory decree.

**Limited participation and transparency:** Another governance-related cause of the practices that may bring about a child’s exclusion from education in Turkey is the limited nature of stakeholder participation and transparency despite recent positive developments. There are no general guidelines or directives for a process to get input from all stakeholders, neither for individual administrative regulations designed centrally nor for comprehensive reform efforts. Depending on the responsible directorate general and the topic, the effectiveness of participation varies. No institutional or administrative regulations exist for ensuring participation at the provincial or sub-provincial levels. At the school level, the only institutional regulation for promoting participation is the school-family unions but no comprehensive evaluation of the functioning and effectiveness of the unions exists.

Only a limited level of progress has been achieved in terms of the transparency of decision making processes; however, the recent adoption of a performance-based budgeting system could be considered as a positive development in terms of the transparency of the content and financing of decisions. More generally, underlying many positive developments about transparency has been the steps that MEB taken for internet-based information sharing. However, it needs to be remembered that the internet is a tool with insufficient coverage among parents, who are one of the main stakeholders of the education systems. It is therefore important that other methods are used in parallel to the internet to ensure transparency about the distribution of resources and making of decisions, particularly at the sub-province and school levels.

**Inter-sectoral cooperation:** Effective inter-sectoral cooperation has a major role to play for intervening in the causal processes of exclusion from education, particularly when they arise from the familial and personal characteristics of the child. At the central level, MEB’s cooperation with relevant sectors including social services, social assistance, health and justice has been achieved through issue-specific and time-bound bilateral protocols, and as a result of the absence of institutionalised cooperation opportunities for joint intervention on several issues could not be seized. Therefore, the cooperation protocol signed by 17 institutions in February 2011 is a positive development for inter-sectoral cooperation, which is in a nascent stage of its development. The protocol will be taken up in more detail in the final section of the report.

At the provincial and sub-provincial levels, establishing issue-specific councils has emerged as the most common way to ensure intervention by multiple sectors for children who are excluded or are at risk of exclusion from education. For the implementation of laws and projects that are prepared centrally and require multi-sectoral intervention at the provincial level most often councils were established for the
purposes of coordination. No comprehensive evaluation is available about the functioning and effectiveness of these councils at the provincial-level.

**Barriers Related to Education Finance**

Three issues stand out about the relation between policies and practices of public financing of education and exclusion from education: (1) public spending for education does not reflect the needs, (2) certain practices of distribution of financial resources deepen inequality, (3) financial resources at the school level for taking measures to decrease a child’s risk of exclusion from education are limited.

**Public spending on education:** Despite the recent adoption of a performance based budgeting system, a review of the ratio of the national budget allocated to education over the last few years shows that policies and investment requirements in the education sector do not get translated into financial resources. The ratio of central public spending on education at all levels except for tertiary education, which constitutes close to all public spending on education for these levels, to GDP continues to remain around 2.5 per cent – a figure significantly lower than all OECD countries. The ratio of central public spending on pre-primary, primary and secondary education to total central public spending has lingered around 10 per cent despite an ever increasing number of students in the system. Per-student spending has not increased sizeably despite strategic goals to decrease the student-to-classroom ratio, pupil-teacher ratio, and the prevalence of double-shift system.

The period after the adoption of the Basic Education Law in 1997, during which additional investment resources were created based on excise taxes, stands out as the only exception; this period is discussed in more detail in the next section of the report.

**Table 2: Education spending**

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<tr>
<td>Ratio of Central Public Spending on Pre-Primary, Basic Education and Secondary Education to GDP (%)</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>2.18</td>
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<td>Ratio of Central Public Spending on Pre-Primary, Basic Education and Secondary Education to Total Central Public Spending (%)</td>
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<td>10.63</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>10.42</td>
<td>9.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of Central Public Spending on Pre-Primary and Basic Education to Total Central Public Spending (%)</td>
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<td>4.56</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>5.03</td>
<td>4.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annual Public Spending per Student (TL 2009 prices) – preprimary and basic education levels</td>
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<td>1322</td>
<td>1371</td>
<td>1322</td>
<td>1248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ratio of personnel spending and Social Security Agency premium expenses (%)</td>
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<td>65.4</td>
<td>64.2</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>65.8</td>
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**Distribution of resources at pre-primary and basic education levels:** Major disparities exist in terms of the distribution of resources in the central public budget on pre-primary and basic education to provinces. For example, while the average for central public spending per a student at the pre-primary and basic
The disparities across provinces in the distribution of financial resources could largely be the result of the differences in personnel spending, which constitutes the largest line item in education spending. As a result, in those provinces where the pupil-teacher ratio is high, such as Istanbul and Şanlıurfa, per student spending figures are low.

A historical analysis of the regional distribution of education investments reveals that Southeastern Anatolia region has been significantly left behind other regions in terms of education investments, and that the significant opportunity for mitigating the regional inequalities presented during the 1997-2002 period, which was characterised by unprecedented levels of investment, was missed. As a result, while the national student-to-classroom ratio in 2002/2003 school year was 36, in Southeastern Anatolia region, despite having the lowest enrolment rates in basic education, the ratio was 53. Prioritisation in terms of recent investments have been able to mitigate the regional disparities only to some extent; the student-to-classroom ratio came down to 31 nationally and to 44 in Southeastern Anatolia.

Limited resources of schools: Another practice that deepens the existing inequalities through the distribution of resources from the central education budget and places additional hurdles in front of children whose risk of exclusion from education is high due to economic reasons, is related to the resources allocated from the central budget to basic education schools. Currently, among the various expenses of a school the what the central budget directly pays for is limited to the salaries of teachers and administrators, and expenses related to fuel, water, electricity and internet connection, and approved repairs. Other than these expenses, all others including expenses related to consumables, urgent small repairs, sports and arts events, and cleaning are paid for by the school with the resources of the school family unions. As a result, the school family unions may end up having to organise income generating activities and actively collect donations from parents. The result is often a direct reflection of parental income on the quality of equipment, infrastructure, supplies and hygiene at school, among others.

In fact, in a survey on problems in the education sector that was conducted in 62 sub-provinces whose educational opportunities were among the lowest in the country, the problem that was selected to be the most important among 17 others was “cleaning and service personnel" for the school, which is an expense that often needs to be covered by the school. It was identified as a “very important” problem by 91.9 per cent of the respondents.

The fact that expenses that affect the physical conditions of the school are dependent on parents’ donations may bring about the result that the income levels of families determine the physical conditions of the school. Similarly, interviews conducted with parents in a study on late enrolment show that a school’s efforts to collect donations from parents in fact become a semi-mandatory fee and in fact negatively affect children who are at risk of exclusion from education due to economic reasons.

A regulation that is place to mitigate this problem requires that all school family unions transfer 20 per cent of their income from renting the canteen, open spaces and facilities of the school to the provincial and sub-provincial directorates of education. An administrative commission set up at the sub-provincial and provincial levels decide the distribution of the financial resources accumulated through this mechanism both to meet the needs of schools and students with limited resources, and to cover the education related needs of the sub-provincial and provincial directorates of education.
Summary of Barriers and Bottlenecks

The following issues stood out in the analyses carried out in this section on the causal processes of exclusion from education:

- Gender and disability related values that are at the heart of socio-cultural barriers;
- Psycho-social reasons that emerge as a result of various traumatic experiences (such as being forced into crime or being the victim of a crime, being the survivor or witness of violence, being the survivor of sexual abuse and incest);
- Community-based social capital weakened as a result of different reasons including migration;
- The child or a family member having a chronic illness or an illness that requires a long period of treatment;
- Direct and indirect effects of poverty – inability to meet education related expenses, the opportunity cost of attending school and child labour, malnutrition and physical retardation;
- Restrictive administrative regulations related to enrolment, absenteeism and maximum age;
- Distance between school and home, limitations posed by bussing education and boarding education provided in rural areas, insecure environment as a result of the prevalence of violence and corporal punishment in schools, disparities across provinces in terms of the number of students per classroom, prevalence of double-shift system, physical spaces that obstruct the access of children with disabilities to school;
- Disparities across provinces in terms of the pupil-teacher ratio, existing regulations failure to adequately incentivise working in schools with difficult conditions, not enabling the teacher to effectively intervene in cases where the first language of the child is different from the language of education, teachers not being adequately equipped in the sub-areas of teacher capabilities related to mitigating the risk of children from dropping out of education; insufficiency of in-class support services and teacher capabilities that are necessary for mainstreaming to be effective;
- From the governance perspective, the negative effects of a centralised management structure, limited progress in terms of participation and transparency, inter-sectoral cooperation initiatives that are in earlier stages of their development;
- From the education finance perspective, public spending on education not reflecting the needs in this sector, presence of certain practices in the distribution of financial resources that deepen inequalities, insufficiency of resources at the school-level for taking measures to mitigate a child’s risk of exclusion from education.
Policies to Overcome Barriers That Bring About Exclusion from Education

The aim of this section is to examine education and social protection policies for overcoming the barriers and bottlenecks that bring about exclusion from education. The fact that this section on current policies is not limited to policies in the education sector and gives equal attention to social protection policies is a conscious choice. One of the main conclusions of the 5DE approach is that the prevention of exclusion from education requires effective interventions that tackle problems on both the supply side and the demand side of education; and many of the interventions addressing the demand side of education coincide with social protection policies.

As also indicated in the Education for All Global Monitoring Report 2011, Turkey has not yet been able to take the final step towards accomplishing the Millennium Development Goal of ensuring basic education for all, and the main reason is its failure to reach the most disadvantaged groups. It is not possible to reach these groups only through policies developed in the education sector. It is necessary for social protection and education sectors to work hand-in-hand.

This section is composed of three parts; the first one describes policies that are more closely related to the demand side of education, including efforts addressing gender values and economic barriers. The following two are more closely related to the supply side of education, including efforts to improve the school environment and governance in the education sector. A summary analysis is included at the end of the section.

Policies Targeting Personal and Familial Barriers

Personal and familial barriers that are closely related to the demand-side of education include socio-cultural, psycho-social, social capital, health and poverty related barriers. In terms of the policies that target personal and familial barriers, efforts that stand out in the case of Turkey are those that aim to change gender related values, to address economic barriers, and to improve the health of children.

Changing Gender Related Values

As mentioned in the previous section of the report, gender related values are the leading
socio-cultural barriers that bring about exclusion from education. In this regard, the most comprehensive
and effective effort in Turkey is Hey Girls Let’s Go to School, Campaign to Support Girls’ Enrolment. Initiated
in 2003 in 10 provinces with pilot activities, the campaign was expanded to the entire country from 2004
to 2006, and showed significant results in a short period of time. It is of vital importance that during the
institutionalisation phase of these efforts, the campaign-related local efforts for persuading and raising
awareness about enrolling girls in school do not lose momentum so that the progress achieved in this area is
not reversed in the near future.

Information Box 1: Hey Girls Let’s Go To School, Campaign to Support Girls’ Enrolment

By focusing on girls among the other children who are in the mandatory education age range but are excluded from
education, the campaign aimed to ensure access to quality education for all children. The campaign was composed of three
phases: design, implementation, institutionalisation.

During the planning phase from 2002 to 2003, a study was conducted for problem identification, a management model at
the ministerial and provincial levels were identified and materials to be used were prepared. The main components of the
management model was a Central Coordination Bureau at MEB, Central Executive Council and Technical Team; at the
provincial level a Provincial Executive Council, a Provincial Coordinator, Provincial Consultancy and Provincial Contact
Bureau; at the sub-provincial level Sub-Provincial Executive Council, Sub-Province Consultancy and Sub-Provincial contact
Bureau; at the village and neighbourhood level a Village/Neighbourhood Commission.

The main components of the period from 2003 to 2006, which included the implementation phase, were mobilisation, building
capacity, identification and analysis, persuasion and enrolment, monitoring and evaluation. One of the main characteristics
of the campaign was the joint work by public institutions, civil society organisations and volunteers during the implementation
phase. During the four years of the campaign, it is estimated that about 350,000 children were enrolled in school as a result
of the campaign.

In 2007, the campaign moved to a new phase of institutionalisation that brought to the forefront the strengthening of systems
related to school enrolment and monitoring of attendance. Additionally, the Catch-Up Classes Curriculum was initiated during
the institutionalisation phase; preparations for the Gradual Absence Management Model were also carried out during this
phase.

Overcoming Economic Barriers

While most policies aiming to mitigate poverty’s direct and indirect effects on children and their exclusion
from education overlap with social protection policies, two policies specific to the education sector are worth
noting in this regard. These are the free distribution of textbooks and the provision of free lunch for children in bussing schools.

Starting from the 2003/2004 school year, all textbooks at the basic education level are bought by MEB
centrally and distributed to schools with the objective to eliminate the financial challenge posed by textbooks
to families with low-income levels.

As part of bussing education that targets some of the children living in remote and small villages in rural
areas, free lunch has been provided to children since the 2003/2004 school year. As of 2011, approximately
600,000 children benefit from free lunches. It is particularly positive that the children who benefit from free
lunches are those living in rural areas where poverty and malnutrition are more prevalent.

In terms of specific social protection policies, links can be established to the prevention of exclusion from
education in three possible ways: policies mitigating the direct effects of poverty on exclusion from education,
policies mitigating the indirect effects of poverty on exclusion from education, social protection policies targeting certain groups of children who have high risks of exclusion from education.

Social Protection Policies Mitigating the Direct Effects of Poverty on Exclusion from Education

Among the social protection programmes that aim to mitigate the direct effects of poverty on exclusion from education are conditional education assistance; student housing, transportation and boarding assistance; education material assistance as part of family support transfers; and scholarships provided by MEB and by the Directorate General on Foundations. Of these assistance and scholarship programmes, an impact evaluation has been conducted only for conditional education assistance and only in its earlier phase. The lack of rigorous evaluations to assess the extent and depth of outreach and impact of various social interventions remains as a drawback in the policy making cycle in Turkey.

Conditional education assistance: Conditional education assistance was initiated as a component of the Social Risk Mitigation Project (SRAP), which was initiated with loans from the World Bank following the 2001 financial crisis in Turkey. It was piloted in six provinces in 2003 and gradually expanded across the country starting from 2004. In 2007, the source of funding became the Support Fund for Social Assistance and Solidarity (SYDTF). Conditional education assistance is a social assistance that aims to reach the poorest 6 per cent of the population; the condition for receiving the assistance is 80 per cent attendance in school. Conditional education assistance targets children enrolled in basic education and secondary education levels; pre-primary level has been left out of the scope of the assistance. As of May 2011, 680,550 girls and 702,099 boys at the basic education level are beneficiaries of conditional education assistance.

The only comprehensive impact evaluation on conditional education assistance was conducted in 2005-2006. According to the findings of the evaluation study, which was designed with several methodological limitations, the conditional education assistance did not have a statistically significant impact on attendance rates in basic education and transition rates from basic to secondary education in those households that have benefited from conditional education assistance for a brief period of time. The evaluation report suggests that the reason for not seeing the same impact on attendance rates at the basic education versus the secondary education is because the attendance rate at the basic education level is already high.

Other important findings of the impact evaluation include the beneficiaries having very limited information about the application-selection process and the condition of the assistance, and despite the assistance being effective in terms of reaching the poorest 6 per cent of the population, many households in this group are still not benefiting from the assistance. A new evaluation study has been initiated for conditional education assistance in 2011; it is scheduled to be completed in 2012.

Student housing, transportation and boarding assistance: The assistance is also paid from Support Fund for Social Assistance and Solidarity, and at the provincial and sub-provincial levels it is administered by Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundations (SYDV). As of 2010, approximately 82,000 poor students at basic and secondary education levels received on average 183 TL annually towards meeting their housing, transportation and other expenses related to education. Students living in those provinces in Southeastern Anatolia and Eastern Anatolia received 35.7 per cent and 30.6 per cent of the total amount of assistance respectively.
**Education material assistance:** Another assistance managed by SYDV is the education material assistance as part of family support transfers. As part of this assistance, families are given cash assistance in order for them to meet their children’s needs for attending school such as school uniforms, shoes and backpacks; however, the Directorate General of Social Assistance and Solidarity does not know the total number of families and children benefiting from this assistance.\(^{256}\) In 2010, the total amount allocated as education material assistance was 92 million TL; 14.3 and 13.0 per cent of this total amount was allocated to families in Southeastern Anatolia and Eastern Anatolia regions respectively.\(^{257}\)

**MEB scholarships:** Scholarships are also provided by MEB to 6\(^{th}\)-8\(^{th}\) grade students. 10 per cent of the scholarships are given to students who have been placed under the responsibility of the Social Services and Child Protection Agency, 5 per cent to students whose place of residence do not have a school, 70 per cent to students who are academically successful and live in low-income households.\(^{258}\) About 80,000 students are recipients of the scholarship and receive about 65 TL per month.\(^{259}\) Two positive developments about the scholarships during the last five years have been the notable increase in the amount of the scholarship and the scholarship becoming more equal in terms of gender. For example, in 2006/2007 school year for every 100 boys, 77 girls received the scholarship; in 2010/2011 this ratio became 100 to 97.\(^{260}\)

**Scholarships of DG for Foundations:** The Directorate General for Foundations also provides scholarship to students who are enrolled in basic and secondary education levels and live in households with low income levels. In the 2009/2010 school year, the DG allotted 10,000 scholarships of 50 TL per month.\(^{261}\)

**Social Protection Policies with the Potential to Mitigate the Indirect Effects of Poverty on Exclusion from Education**

Among the social protection policies that have the potential to mitigate the indirect effects of poverty on exclusion from education are green card and universal health insurance, and conditional health assistance. Green card, universal health insurance and conditional health assistance all work towards ensuring that children from poor households have full access to health services.

**Green card:** The green card was initiated in 1992 to ensure that those individuals who did not belong to any social security system could benefit from health services.\(^{262}\) An evaluation study points out that the green card does not cover a significant part of the poorest population who lack any social security; while 32.5 per cent of the poorest 30 per cent of the population has a green card, 30.1 per cent of them do not have any social security.\(^{263}\) In terms of the regional patterns for benefiting from the green card, 30-40 per cent of the entire regional population in Southeastern Anatolia, Central Eastern Anatolia, and Northeastern Anatolia, which are the NUTS-1 regions with the highest rates of poverty, benefits from the green card.\(^{264}\) When the poverty rates are taken into account, however, the utilization rates in Southeastern Anatolia and Eastern Marmara emerge as low, the utilization rates in Central Eastern Anatolia, Northeastern Anatolia and Eastern Black Sea emerge as high.\(^{265}\)

Ability to access health services free of charge or at affordable rates can help prevent long periods of absence from school for children with poor health status, many of whom are in poor households, and decrease their risk of exclusion from education. Similarly, access to health care is a key issue for those children who have to take care of ill family members and as a result cannot attend school.

**Universal health insurance:** The premium-based Universal health insurance which is part of the Transformation in Health Programme and the Social Security Reform, two parallel processes initiated in 2004, ensures that individuals younger than 18 can access health services free-of-charge independent of the premium paid by their parents.\(^{266}\) This is an extremely positive step to ensure the healthy development of children from poor households, some of whom did not benefit from the green card, and to indirectly mitigate their risk of exclusion from education.
Conditional health assistance: In parallel with the conditional education assistance, the piloting of the conditional health assistance was started in 2003 and the two assistance programmes have been implemented in tandem since. Under conditional health assistance, poor families receive regular cash assistance if they regularly take their child younger than 6-years-old for health checks. As of May 2011, 113,022 girls and 117,118 boys were beneficiaries of this assistance. In terms of the regional distribution of conditional health assistance in 2010, 46.25 and 31.97 per cent of the total assistance are respectively distributed to children in Southeastern Anatolia and Eastern Anatolia. One of the findings of the 2005-2006 impact evaluation on conditional health assistance highlights the statistically important relation between the assistance and vaccination rates.

Social Protection Policies and Social Inclusion Programmes Targeting Certain Groups of Children

Among the social protection policies and social inclusion programmes targeting groups of children who have higher risks of exclusion from education are monthly payments for caring for disabled people, Social Support Programme (SODES), projects on child labour, activities under the Project for Improving the Work and Social Lives of Seasonal Agricultural Workers which targets children, and activities of the Social Services and Child Protection Agency. As no evaluation studies looking at the impact of these policies and programmes on the welfare of children or their exclusion from education could be found, only information on their scope and the number of beneficiaries could be included.

Payments for disability care: Individuals who carry the legal responsibility of someone who has a disability and is younger than 18, can benefit from the monthly payments for caring for disabled people if they fulfill requirements regarding income and degree of disability. The relevant legal article came into effect in July 2005; as of March 2011, 56,255 individuals were beneficiaries of the monthly payments for caring for disabled people in this category.

Social support programme: Executed by State Planning Agency, Social Support Programme was launched in the nine provinces of Southeastern Anatolia region in 2008 where the rate of migration due to security concerns is high. The goal of the programme is to provide financial support to local social inclusion projects that particularly target the children and the youth. In 2008 and 2009, 40 out of 134 million TL of support was given to social inclusion projects targeting children. In 2011, the total amount of financial support will be 200 million TL and the total number of target provinces will be 30.

Projects to eliminate child labour: Since 1990s more than one hundred projects have been implemented to prevent child labour, many of which were jointly done with ILO; among the most comprehensive projects are “From Field to School Project” and “Eliminating the Worst Forms of Child Labour”. In order to transform projects into policies and ensure sustainability, “the time-bound policy and programme framework for the prevention of child labour” was prepared between 2002 and 2005; it was published in 2006 and revised in 2008. However due to various reasons including political will and insufficiency of financial resources, the programme is yet to be implemented.

A new development in this context is the Project for the Improvement of Work and Social Lives of Seasonal Agricultural Workers (METİP) initiated in 2010. As part of METİP, efforts have been underway targeting the children who work as mobile and seasonal agricultural workers and the children who migrate with family members who are mobile and seasonal agricultural workers. No information is available as to the number of child beneficiaries of the project during its first year; however, about 5 per cent of the total annual budget of 44 million TL was allocated for education and with this amount activities such as bussing education, nutritional support and tent schools have been supported.
The decree issued by MEB as part of METİP in 2011 foresees that in order to prevent the exclusion of those children in the mandatory education age group from education, not only boarding education, bussing education, travelling teacher, mobile/tent schools are initiated but also YSÖP, conditional education assistance and Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundations’ assistances are actively used.\textsuperscript{278} METİP is not a continuous public policy; it is a project ending in 2013 that aims to improve the conditions of mobile and seasonal agricultural workers.

**SHÇEK activities:** The Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK) is the responsible public institution for providing social services to children who are defined as “a child in need of protection” in the law\textsuperscript{279}, and hence are at a higher risk of exclusion from education. As part of this responsibility, SHÇEK provides family-based care services (foster family, adoption, cash and in-kind assistance services) and institution-based care services, which are in the form of nurseries, love homes, child homes, child and youth centres for 0-to 12-year-olds, and orphanages, love homes, child homes, protection care and rehabilitation centres, care and social rehabilitation centres for 13-to 18-year-olds.

Table 3: Relevant SHÇEK services and number of beneficiaries, 2009\textsuperscript{280}

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Institution</th>
<th>Number of Institution</th>
<th>Number of Beneficiary</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nursery</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>4551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child Home</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>838</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Love Home</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1348</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orphanage</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>8818</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rehabilitation Centre</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>4508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Child and Youth Centre</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>7897</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Care/Social Rehab. Centre</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protection, Care and Rehab. Centre</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family Counseling Centre</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>21,698</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Centre</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>186,137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women Guesthouse</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>2931</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Governance and finance in the social protection system:** When this report was being prepared, radical reforms were underway in terms of the administrative structure of the social protection system in Turkey. As of June 2011, the Ministry of Family and Social Policy was established and a number of the public institutions responsible for the different components of social protection policies were brought under one umbrella ministry. As a result, a significant part of the analyses on governance and finance are valid not for the future but the past.

Characteristics that stand out and practices that are worth mentioning regarding the governance aspect of the social protection system are as follows:

- A significant part of social services and social assistance, which are two of the main components of the social protection system, are developed at the central level and implemented at the provincial and sub-provincial levels by the local extensions of public institutions. The main exception is the social assistance and social services provided by the municipalities, which have become increasingly important in the last decade.
Inter-agency cooperation and coordination at the central level often occurs under consultation and coordination councils that are issue-specific and in many cases project specific. As a result, ensuring continuity in the long-term can be challenging. In this regard, an exceptional case is the Fund Council responsible for the Support Fund for Social Assistance and Solidarity; it meets regularly with high level representation from the Prime Ministry, Ministry of Interior Affairs, Ministry of Health, the DG of Social Assistance and Solidarity, and the DG for Foundations, and makes joint decisions.

Graph 16: Administrative actors in the social protection system, pre-June 2011

A recent initiative to improve inter-agency information sharing and coordination regarding social assistances is the Project on Integrated Social Assistance Services. As part of the project, all records on conditional education and conditional health assistances have been recorded electronically and integrated with the databases of 13 other public institutions. The next steps of the project include integrating the databases of the Directorate General of Social Assistance and Solidarity, the Social Services and Child Protection Agency, the DG for Foundations and Social Security Agency; and the final phase includes integrating the data from municipalities and civil society organisations in the same system and improve the sharing of information at the level of beneficiaries.

Monitoring and evaluation efforts for different components of the social protection system remain inadequate. Recently improved monitoring efforts are, however, focused more on the number of beneficiaries, and not on output or impact.

Issues that weaken the impact of current social assistances for the case of children with higher risk of dropping out of education include child poverty not being defined as a specific focus, in certain cases poverty being defined categorically without being supported by data, and social assistance not being defined based on social rights.
In terms of financing in the social protection system, more generally, public spending for social protection constitutes 8.3 per cent of the GDP. More specifically, an analysis of social transfers, which constitutes a significant component of the social protection spending shows that retirement pension and monthly payments to widows-orphans constitute 93.6 per cent of all social transfers but only 2 per cent of all pensions and monthly payments to widows-orphans reach the poorest quintile while 44.6 per cent is paid to the richest quintile. It is of concern that social transfers that have the potential to act as a major tool for reducing poverty contributes more to the rich than the poor. Similarly, the fact that in Turkey the poverty gap ratio, which indicates the depth of poverty, is 0.21 implies that a significant part of the poor could be brought out of poverty with relatively small social transfers; yet because the efficacy of social transfers is not at a desirable level, progress in poverty reduction is slow. Pensions and monthly payments to widows-orphans constitute 7.2 per cent and social assistance constitutes 7.1 per cent of the annual income of the poorest quintile.

### Table 4: Main sources of social assistance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institution</th>
<th>Type of Assistance</th>
<th>No of Beneficiaries</th>
<th>Total Amount ('000 TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Security Agency</td>
<td>Salary for Elderly and Disabled</td>
<td>1,321,373</td>
<td>2,366,527</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SHÇEK</td>
<td>Cash and In-Kind Assistance</td>
<td>35,756</td>
<td>78,266</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foundations DG</td>
<td>Salary for Needy, Soup Kitchen Services, Health Treatment for the Poor, Scholarships</td>
<td>151,333</td>
<td>107,158</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry of Health</td>
<td>Green Card</td>
<td>9,647,131</td>
<td>5,506,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MEB</td>
<td>Scholarships</td>
<td>184,295</td>
<td>151,596</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SYDTF</td>
<td>All Social Assistance</td>
<td>3,084,062</td>
<td>2,379,375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Also in terms of financing of social protection policies, the sources of revenue of SYDTF and DG for Foundations are unique cases worth noting:

- Created in 1986, the annual budget of SYDTF is approximately 2 billion TL. Revenues of the Fund include in addition to the allocation from the national budget, half of the revenues from traffic fines, 15 per cent of RTÜK’s advertisement revenues, 2.8 per cent of the total collecting from Income and Corporate Tax, 5 per cent of Publicity Fund, 10 per cent of Support and Price Stability Fund. The diversity of sources of revenue and the partial independence from the national budget enables the social assistances to be somewhat protected during challenging periods such as economic crises.

- DG for Foundation, which was established in 1920 and became a DG under the Prime Ministry in 1924, is the institutional continuation of the foundations (vakıf) in the Republican period, which have a history of social assistance that goes back hundreds of years. Among the sources of revenue for the DG are rental income, operating profits and subsidiary income from foundation works, and revenues from the sale of immovables belonging to ‘mazbut’ foundations (foundations established before the adoption of the Civil Code whose responsibility belongs to the DG). The diversity of revenues and independence from the national budget enables the soup kitchen services, monthly payments to the needy and education scholarships provided by the DG to be minimally affected by the abrupt changes in the national budget.

**Policies Targeting the School Environment**

Four main policies regarding the school environment stand out from the 15-year long period since the reform of basic education in Turkey in terms of their ability to mitigate a child’s risk of exclusion from education: basic education reform that increased the duration of mandatory education from five to eight years, catch-up classes curriculum, expansion of pre-primary education, and free transportation for children with a disability.

**Increasing number of classrooms and teachers:** The period following the extension of mandatory education from five to eight years in 1997 has been referred to as the ‘Big Bang approach’, and the success achieved during the earlier phase of the reform has been claimed to be of a dimension with few precedence in the history of education system globally. In effect, the number of children in the mandatory education period was increased by about 4 million with very limited preparation, and the target for net enrolment rate, which was 89.4 per cent for five years of primary education at the time of the reform decision, was set as 100 per cent for eight years of basic education. Indeed, the number of children enrolled in the first eight years of education was increased by 15 per cent in the first 2-3 year period after the reform decision. In order to meet such increase in the number of students, more than 100,000 classrooms were built and about 70,000 teachers were hired within a few years.

Achieving such growth in the education system in such a short period time is a noteworthy success. However, the opportunities missed and the negative side-effects triggered by such a hasty reform process cannot be ignored. For example, it could have been possible to more effectively address the regional differences in terms of student-to-classroom ratio. The schools and classrooms built could have ensured the accessibility by children with orthopaedic, hearing and visual disabilities. Modules could have been included in the in-service training programmes for newly hired teachers to strengthen their capabilities for teaching children with special educational needs. The curriculum reform initiated in subsequent years could have been carried out in parallel to the extension of mandatory education to eight years, and as a result the cost-effectiveness of hardware purchase and in-service training could have possibly been improved.

**Getting drop-outs back into school:** In 2008, Catch-Up Classes Curriculum (YSÖP) was initiated with the objective to help those children who are behind their peers because of non-enrolment or absenteeism catch up through an intensive and personalised curriculum. The Program is a significant intervention that enables the re-inclusion of those children previously excluded from education. As of June 2011, efforts under YSÖP continue.
**Information Box 2: Catch-Up Classes Curriculum (YSÖP)**

The Programme targets 10-to 14-year-olds who did not attend education with their peers, who either never enrolled or enrolled but dropped-out. Its objective is to equip these children with the capabilities necessary to attend school with their peers and to end their exclusion from education. YSÖP is not a continuous education policy of MEB; it was initiated in 2008 as a transitional, time-bound policy.

Two issues stand out with regards to YSÖP's general approach: importance assigned to basic life skills and social development, and a design that aims to meet the different life experiences and needs of children in target groups.

Among the activities implemented under YSÖP to reach children in target groups, develop and implement the curricula are preparing the relevant legislation and implementation manual, preparing the curricula and textbooks, strengthening the human resources for management and implementation at the local level, trainings and seminars for teachers and inspectors to increase the effectiveness of the program.

During 2008/2009 and 2009/2010 school years, 15,450 children completed YSÖP. During the 2010/2011 school year 4826 girls and 2851 boys are attending the Programme. Children who attend and but cannot complete YSÖP are transferred to distant learning programmes. The provinces with the largest number of children attending YSÖP are Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır and İstanbul.

YSÖP is a critical intervention targeting out-of-school children. Also in this regard, “Every Child Succeeds” project is worth noting; the project's pilot phase was initiated in 25 basic education schools and 75 high schools in 25 of the 81 provinces in March 2011 with the aim to prevent exclusion from education. The main components of the project are identifying the reasons for the low academic performance of children and to provide one-on-one academic support to these children through “school success teams” formed at the school level, which are composed of retired teachers and teacher candidates. Since the project is in its pilot phase, no impact evaluations are currently available. The project is planned to be implemented on a national scale starting in 2011/2012 school year.

**Expanding pre-primary education:** Pre-primary education in Turkey gained public and MEB’s attention only in recent years; significant progress has been achieved since 2004. The number of 36-to 72-month-old children attending pre-primary education, which was 344,741 during the 2003/2004 school year tripled by 2010/2011 year and became 1,115,818. During the last two years, efforts with a cascaded approach have been underway to include age 5 in the mandatory education period: during the 2009/2010 school year 32 out of 81 provinces and during the 2010/2011 school year 25 out of 81 provinces were designated to reach 100 per cent pre-primary enrolment rates for 5-year-olds. MEB plans to change the legislation during the 2012/2013 school year and increase the total duration of mandatory education from 8 to 9 years.

The pace and scope of efforts to decrease the number of children excluded from pre-primary education is impressive. It is particularly worth noting that teacher candidates who are to be hired to teach at pre-primary level are currently required to be university graduates with majors in pre-primary teaching and child development.

Despite these positive developments, there are also important limitations of the current expansion policies for pre-primary education. For example, the focus of the expansion policy has been on school-based services, except a few interventions with a limited number of beneficiaries. In fact, summer pre-primary schools and mobile pre-primary schools, which are the two non-school based services with the widest scope, together reached less than 5000 children from June 2010 to February 2011. Considering the importance of alternative service models for reaching children with high risk of exclusion from education, it is of concern that the pre-primary education services in Turkey are very much school-based. Similarly, it is a missed
opportunity for preventing the exclusion of children from basic education that children with higher risk of exclusion were not prioritised in expanding pre-primary education services.

**Free transportation for children with a disability:** Since the 2004/2005 school year, free bus services have been provided for children with disabilities to facilitate their transportation from their homes to their schools, which is an important policy to mitigate the exclusion of children with disabilities. More than 35,000 3-to 14-year-old children benefited from this policy during the 2010/2011 school year.  

No evaluation studies could be found regarding the impact of free bus services on the risk of exclusion from education.

**Governance and Finance Policies in the Education Sector**

Three major governance and finance policies in the education sector stand out in terms of their mitigating impact on children’s risk of exclusion from education: e-School Management Information System, financial resources for investment created as part of the basic education reform of 1997, and performance based budgeting.

**Establishing a management information system:** Among the goals of e-School Management Information System, which was established in 2007, is the continuous monitoring of children who are excluded or are at risk of exclusion. As part of the System, a comparison was possible between children registered in the population record who reach the age of basic education and children at that age group who are enrolled in school. As a result, those children who were out-of-school because they were not enrolled were identified; if they were still residing in Turkey, efforts were undertaken to ensure their enrolment. Using this identification process through the e-School Management Information System, the number of non-enrolled children was brought from more than 300,000 in December 2008 down to 100,000 in December 2010.

The e-School Management Information System became an important identification and monitoring tool for non-enrolment and absenteeism. However, it is not possible to describe e-School as an effective management information system at this point. Within e-School, neither an analytical evaluation about education policies that integrates the inputs of education personnel, budget, hardware and investments has been made possible nor a structure that monitors the impact of newly introduced policies has been built. As a result, in its current form e-School acts more like a system for data collection at the student and school levels.

What needs to be highlighted about e-School is that as a system that has as one of its objectives decreasing exclusion from education, certain aspects of its implementation have in fact increased the risk of exclusion from education. As described in the earlier sections of the report, e-School based administrative procedures for the enrolment of children who are not registered in population records or children who are citizens of another country are particularly problematic areas in this regard.

**Expanding sources of finance for education investments:** One of the policies of education finance that has the potential to decrease children’s risk of exclusion from education is the creation of new sources of revenues for classroom construction. In this context, new sources of revenues were created in parallel to the extension of mandatory education from five to eight years in 1997; for example, an amount equal to the one that the Radio Television Higher Council used to collect from advertisement income was collected as ‘co-pay for education’; 25 per cent of stamp tax and taxes from games of chance, and a part of the share from transactions in the Istanbul Stock Exchange were also transferred to the education budget. Consequently, the share of the consolidated budget investment allocated to MEB investment for mostly the construction of new schools increased from 14.66 to 37.33 per cent; the share of the MEB budget that was allocated to investment increased from 15.01 to 30.03 per cent. Some of these new sources of revenues came to an end in 2001, others in 2004 and some others in 2010; the remaining sources are to continue until 2015 in accordance with the relevant law.
Also in this regard, the 100 % Support to Education Campaign initiated in 2003 is also worth noting. Close to 30,000 classrooms were built from 2004 to 2010 as a direct result of this incentive that allowed donations to construction of schools to be an income tax deduction.305

In parallel to these policies regarding education finance, there has been an increase in the scope and prevalence of MEB’s cooperation with non-profit organisations and the private sector. Consequently, the financial, human and temporal resources of civil society and private sector could be channelled for the effective implementation of basic education reform. In this context, Dad Send Me to School Campaign and Snowdrops Project are country-wide efforts that are worth noting in terms of their visibility and number of beneficiaries.

**Shifting to performance based budgeting and management system:** A positive recent development in Turkey related to governance and finance has been the transition to a performance based budgeting and management system. Following the adoption of Law No 5018 on Public Finance Management and Control in 2003, all public institutions including MEB started their strategic planning processes. As a policy that increases not only effectiveness but also transparency and accountability in public management, this is a welcome development. MEB prepared its first-ever long-term and measurable strategic plan for the 2010-2014 period. It is particularly positive for the prevention of exclusion from education that among the targets of the strategic plan is to reach 100 per cent net enrolment rate at the basic education level and to eliminate all dropouts by 2014.306

**Summary Analysis on Education and Social Protection Policies**

This section of the report provided information on education and social protection policies related to overcoming the barriers and bottlenecks that bring about exclusion from education, and aimed to assess their scope and impact. The following issues stand out in this regard:

- Policies and programmes in the education sector that aim to overcome the personal and familial causes of exclusion from education include the Hey Girls Let’s Go to School Campaign, distribution of free textbooks and provision of free lunches for children in bussing education.

- As part of social protection policies:
  - among efforts that decrease the direct effects of poverty on exclusion from education are conditional education assistance, assistance for student housing, transportation and boarding, education material assistance, and scholarships of MEB and DG for Foundations;
  - among efforts that decrease the indirect effects of poverty on exclusion from education, the green card and universal health insurance, and conditional health assistance;
  - among social protection policies that target certain groups of children with high risk of exclusion from education are monthly payments for caring for disabled people, Social Support Programme, projects on child labour, METİP, and the Social Services and Child Protection Agency’s work targeting children in need of protection, are worth noting.

- With regards to the governance and finance aspects of the social protection system, centralised decision making approach, inter-agency cooperation, coordination and information sharing, unique financial structures and sources of revenues of SYDTF and DG for Foundation stand out.

- Among the policies and practices for addressing the causes of exclusion from education related to the school environment, efforts to expand basic education during the early phases of the basic education reform, YSÖP, expansion of pre-primary education, and free transportation of children with disabilities are worth noting.

- Among the governance and finance practices in the education system that can be considered to be effective are e-School Management Information System, revenues created to implement the basic education reform, and the transition to a performance-based budgeting and management system.
Conclusion

Next Steps and Recommendations

One of the aims of this section is to provide information about initiatives that will be launched in the near future and that may have an impact on children’s exclusion from education. Based on analyses in the previous sections of the report and the information on future initiatives, additional steps that could decrease the risk of exclusion from education will be highlighted.

Next Steps

The following is a brief list of the main education and social protection programmes and efforts to be launched in the near future, which could decrease the risk of exclusion from education:

- The Basic Education Institutional Standards carried out by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education aims to address the disparities between schools in terms of the quality of education and to transform all schools into child friendly learning environments. Basic Education Institutional Standards will identify the current conditions in schools regarding the management, learning processes and support services, and put forth the difference between the existing and standard conditions.

- The Gradual Absence Management Model carried out by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education aims to support and monitor the education needs of children at risk of absenteeism. In this regard, functional definitions of absenteeism have been made, risk assessment forms have been prepared, and action plans have been developed. Its implementation began in August 2011.

- The Inter-Agency Cooperation Protocol for Efforts to Monitor Access to and Attendance in Basic Education Level, which was initiated by the DG for Primary Education to strengthen and ensure the continuity of inter-agency cooperation, was signed by 17 public institutions and agencies, and came into force in 2011. It is likely that the positive impact of the Protocol on inter-agency cooperation will be observed in the near future.

- As discussed briefly earlier in the report, Every Child Succeeds Project was launched by the MEB Department of Education Research and Development as a pilot project in March 2011. As part of the project, after-school educational support will be provided to children in basic education schools who are at risk of falling behind academic learning processes. The project will be implemented on a national scale starting in 2011/2012 school year.

- MEB DG for Primary Education has launched a new process in 2011 to identify the barriers facing Roma children who are particularly at risk of exclusion from education, and to develop solutions to these barriers. As part of this process, a workshop with wide participation was conducted in February 2011 in Istanbul; a technical workshop was conducted in August 2011 in Ankara. An action plan is to be developed on this issue in the near future.

- Regarding financial resources of schools, which is a finance-related aspect of exclusion from education, a study initiated by the MEB Directorate General for Basic Education, which looks at the budgeting mechanisms at basic education institutions are underway as of July 2011; policy recommendations to address the problematic issues in this regard are planned to be developed based on the findings of the study.

- In September 2011, a new institutional law for the Ministry of National Education came into effect through a statutory decree. The possible impact of the new law on the governance-related causes of exclusion from education is a topic that requires further assessment.
It is expected that the Ministry of Family and Social Policy established in June 2011 will mitigate to some extent the institutional fragmentation in the social protection system, and enable more holistic and effective interventions. In this regard, enhancement of social protection policies that have the potential to mitigate the risk of exclusion from education might also be possible.

**Recommendations**

Based on the analyses in this report and upcoming processes described above, the issues that are recommended to be prioritised to mitigate the risk of exclusion from education are presented here under five headings:

1. **Conducting new research and effectively using the information collected**

Based on the missing information and data identified in preparing the report, research can be conducted and data can be collected on the following issues:

- Impact of socio-cultural values with respect to disability and education on exclusion from education;
- Figures and educational needs of children of foreign migrants living in Turkey with or without permission;
- Educational needs of children who are in contact with the law;
- Quantitative and qualitative studies on the educational needs of Roma children;
- Teacher absenteeism;
- Working and living conditions of teachers, particularly in remote areas;
- A qualitative study on child labour and out-of-school children; qualitative and quantitative studies on children exposed to the worst forms of child labour;
- Assessment of school-family unions;
- Experiences of violence of 0-to 13-year-old children inside and outside of the school;
- Reliable, detailed and disaggregated data on the availability of drinking water, running water, electricity, and toilets in schools;
- Obstacles that the school environment and classroom management pose to children with disabilities, including but not limited to the physical accessibility of schools;
- Assessment of options for access to education in rural and remote areas, and of the impact of bussing education;
- Dimensions and causes of gender inequality observed in access to pre-primary education, mainstreaming education, and grade repetition;
- Quantitative studies on drop out and qualitative studies on the causes of drop out, with a focus on age 11 and girls.

Also based on the missing information and data identified, existing data collection efforts can be improved in the following areas:

- Collecting data on education finance that can be disaggregated on levels, sources and budget lines, in ways that allows for international comparison particularly with OECD countries;
- Collecting data in DHS 2013 on children with disability, child labour, non-registered children above-5, improving the quality of the questions on pre-primary education and attendance in basic education, increasing the sample size to allow for analysis at NUTS-1 level for out-of-school children;
- Conducting the next Child Labour Survey as soon as possible and in ways that allow for disaggregation at NUTS-1 level, and the characteristics of the child and its household, such as household income and child’s first language;
• Improving coding for the e-School system, assessing the option of coding data less frequently but more effectively; resolving the problems encountered with respect to passive status, non-enrolment and non-attendance on the database; re-evaluating family and child characteristics and reasons for absence to facilitate both the identification of the risk of dropping out and early intervention; defining drop-outs in e-School and collecting data about its prevalence at basic and secondary education levels; expanding the scope of e-School so it is not only a data collection system but a system that can provide analytical background for policy making processes.

Additionally, the necessity of MEB to pay more attention to impact evaluation in its new interventions and to revise interventions based on feedback from the evaluations can also be highlighted.

2. Developing pro-child and gender-sensitive policies, abolishing practices and policies that increase the risk of exclusion from education

• Starting with those with respect to registration and maximum age discussed in the report, revising the administrative regulations that increase the risk of exclusion from education; preventing administrative concerns from hindering a child’s right to education under all conditions;
• Urgently carrying out the necessary feasibility studies for a more flexible school calendar that reflects local conditions;
• Reviewing the current access models in rural areas based on boarding education and bussing education, and evaluating other alternatives including strengthening of multi-grade classroom policy;
• Urgently taking measures to ensure gender equality among the management personnel at school, sub-province and province levels; carrying out nationwide efforts to change gender discriminatory values;
• Taking effective measures to eliminate the practice of corporal punishment in schools;
• Organising efforts to change the negative values and prejudices regarding disability and special learning needs that hinder equal enjoyment of the right to education;
• Considering that different groups have special needs, ensuring that the bureaucracy overcomes its hesitancy about developing policies targeting certain groups, and implementing targeted special interventions for different groups including Roma children, nomadic children, children working as seasonal agricultural workers;
• Taking measures to expand pre-primary education primarily among children from poor households, such as conditional education assistance and free nutrition programmes; improving the enrolment process and expansion of free services with state support;
• Developing supportive policies to increase the number of children with special learning needs who benefit from pre-primary education starting from age three;
• Identifying the different causes of child pregnancy and child marriage; developing and implementing preventive programmes;
• Identifying, carrying out and scaling up programmes to promote positive adolescent development, such as life skills and empowerment.

3. Building national and local capacities

• Undertaking efforts to enable teachers to design and carry out effective learning processes in cases where the language of education is different from the child’s first language;
• Developing tools to improve the communication between the school and parents who do not know the language of education;
• Strengthening the capacity at the school, sub-province and province levels to identify and provide support towards addressing the psycho-social problems faced by a child;
• Strengthening teacher capabilities for educating children with special needs, and more particularly the effective implementation of mainstreaming education; providing the necessary human resources at the school level;
• Strengthening capabilities of community members and teachers to work with adolescents in ways that support their healthy and positive development;
• Strengthening the capacities at central, provincial and school levels for the effective implementation of the strategy and action plan developed to eliminate violence from schools;
• Building national and local capacities to ensure the success of new interventions such as Gradual Absence Management Model and “Every Child Succeeds”, both of which have the potential to tackle the problems of absenteeism and drop-out;
• Strengthening and increasing the resources for in-service training system in ways to improve the capacities of teachers, school managers, managers at provincial and sub-provincial levels, provincial education auditors, primarily in the areas listed above.

4. Addressing disparities

• Further developing the efforts under Basic Education Institutional Standards, which was created to eliminate the disparities in education quality across regions, provinces, sub-provinces and schools, with a focus on the reporting dimension; strengthening the mechanisms that will provide technical support, financial and human resources at the school, sub-province, and province levels in cases where the need for an intervention is identified;
• Improving the physical conditions of schools with accessibility and mainstreaming education in mind, creating new sources of investment to decrease the number of students per classroom and the prevalence of double-shift education, focusing on the most disadvantaged sub-provinces in the distribution of resources;
• In order to reduce the differences in the pupil-teacher ratio across provinces and sub-provinces and to ensure a more equal distribution of human resources, developing interventions to incentivise serving under difficult conditions;
• Accelerating the feasibility studies on direct budget support to disadvantaged pre-primary and basic education schools;
• Carrying out the necessary investments in order to address the disparities between provinces in access to pre-primary education; prioritising poor sub-provinces and neighbourhoods in the future expansion of pre-primary education for 3-to 4-year olds.

5. Strengthening cooperation and partnership to improve coordination and implementation

• Initiating multi-sectoral interventions at the intervention of malnutrition and exclusion from education;
• In efforts targeting the families of children who are not enrolled in school or not attending school, collaborating actively with Social Assistance and Solidarity Foundations to mitigating the effects of poverty;
• Reviewing the role that social work can play in schools and with school-age children in coordination with the Ministry of Family and Social Policy, other relevant Ministries, civil society organisations, and international development partners;
• Intensifying efforts around the prevention of child labour in cooperation with the Ministry of Labour and Social Security;
• In order to overcome the obstacles posed by population registration and residence permit to accessing education, strengthening cooperation with the Ministry of Interior Affairs; to accelerate the efforts to overcome the problems posed by UAVT and ADNKS for school enrolment.
Annex – Definition of Child Labour

Child labour is a legal rather than statistical concept, and the international legal standards that define it are therefore the necessary frame of reference for child labour statistics. Three principal international conventions on child labour, set the legal boundaries for child labour, and provide the legal basis for national and international actions against it:

- ILO Convention No. 138 (Minimum Age) (C138)
- United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (CRC); and
- ILO Convention No. 182 (Worst Forms) (C182)

But the translation of these broad legal norms into statistical terms for measurement purposes is by no means straightforward. The international legal standards contain a number of flexibility clauses left to the discretion of the competent national authority in consultation (where relevant) with worker and employer organisations (e.g., minimum ages, scope of application). This means that there is no single legal definition of child labour across countries, and concomitantly, no single standard statistical measure of child labour consistent with national legislation across countries.

The resolution on child labour statistics adopted at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians (ICLS) in 2008 provides a first-ever set of global standards for translating the international legal standards on child labour into statistical terms.


The ICLS resolution states that child labour may be measured in terms of the engagement of children in productive activities on the basis of the general production boundary. The general production boundary is a broad concept encompassing all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. This includes unpaid household services (household chores) that are outside the more narrow System of National Accounts (SNA) production boundary.

Even though largely based on the measurement guidelines contained in the 18th ICLS resolution, the scope of this study is restricted to children up to and including 14 years of age (the most common upper age limited for basic schooling). The child labour measure used in this report comprises three groups of children:

- 5-11 year olds in economic activity (i.e. those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for at least one hour during the reference week). Economic activity covers children in all market production and in certain types of non-market production, including production of goods for own use. It includes forms of work in both the formal and informal sectors, as well as forms of work both inside and outside family settings);308

- 12-14 year-olds in non-light (or “regular”) economic activity (i.e. those engaged in any activity falling within the SNA production boundary for 14 or more hours during the reference week); and

- 5-14 year-olds in hazardous unpaid household services (i.e. defined for the scope of this report as those engaged in the production of domestic and personal services for consumption within their own household, commonly called “household chores”, for at least 28 hours during the reference week).309

The first two groups relate to ILO Convention 138, which stipulates a minimum age of generally 15 years (possibly 14 years as an exception in less developed countries) for admission to employment or work (art.
2), but states that national laws may permit the work of persons from age 13 (or even 12 years) in light work (art. 7). In determining the hours threshold for permissible light work, which is not defined explicitly in C138, the ICLS resolution recommends a cut-off point of 14 hours during the reference week, below which non-hazardous work can be considered permissible light work. It should be noted that, in this study, the second group of child labourers does not include those children working for less than 14 hours per week in hazardous work.

The inclusion of the third group marks recognition of the fact that the international legal standards do not rule out a priori children’s production outside the system of national accounts production boundary from consideration in child labour measurement. The ICLS resolution, building on this recognition, opened the way for classifying those performing hazardous unpaid household services – where the general production boundary is taken as the measurement framework for measuring child labour - as part of the group of child labourers for measurement purposes.

The ICLS resolution does not recommend a specific hours threshold for classifying household chores as hazardous (and therefore as child labour), and cites establishing hazardousness criteria as an area requiring further conceptual and methodological development. In the absence of detailed statistical criteria for hazardousness, an hours threshold of 28 weekly working hours is used in this report, above which performance of household chores is classified as child labour. It should be kept in mind, however, that this threshold is based only on preliminary evidence of the interaction between household chores and school attendance, and does not constitute an agreed measurement standard.

The child labour indicator utilized in this study, therefore, represents a benchmark for international comparative purposes, but, is not necessarily consistent with (estimates based on) national child labour legislation owing to the flexibility clauses contained in the international legal standards.
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3 Calculated based on TÜİK 1990, 2000, 2010 population data.

4 This proportion is as follows for other NUTS-1 regions: Istanbul (23.9 per cent), Western Marmara (22.6 per cent), Western Anatolia (23.7 per cent), Mediterranean (26.5 per cent), Central Anatolia (25.9 percent), Western Black Sea (21.9 per cent), Eastern Black Sea (22.2 per cent), Northeastern Anatolia (32.3 per cent). Calculated based on 2010 population data from Address Based Population Registration System.

5 In the report, the 12 regions at the NUTS-1 level are most commonly used for regional analyses. One exception is regarding the analyses based on DHS 2008 data; in the section of the report that describes the DHS data, the five regions used in this context and the corresponding NUTS-1 regions are described. The other exception is data from the DG for Social Assistance and Solidarity; these data are disaggregated based on the seven geographic regions of Turkey.

6 World Bank, World Development Indicators 2011, http://data.worldbank.org, 04.06.11


8 TÜİK 2010 population data; calculated based on TÜİK 1990 population data.

9 Calculated based on TÜİK migration data.

10 Calculated based on TÜİK 2010 population data.

11 Calculated based on DHS 2008 data.

12 Hacettepe Üniversitesi Nüfus Etiği Enstitüsü (Hacettepe University Institute of Population Studies), Türkiye Göç ve Yerinden Olmuş Nüfus Araştırması (Turkey Migration and Internally Displaced Persons Survey), June 2006, Ankara. The research report indicates that the number of people who migrated as a result of security concerns from 1986-2005 is estimated to be 953,680 – 1,201,200.

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20 TÜİK 2009 Yoksulluk Çalışması Sonuçları (Results from Poverty Study), Haber Bülteni (Newsletter), 6 January 2011.

21 TÜİK 2009 Yoksulluk Çalışması Sonuçları (Results from Poverty Study), Haber Bülteni (Newsletter), 6 January 2011.

22 TÜİK’s 2009 data on poverty rates.

23 TÜİK 2009 Yoksulluk Çalışması Sonuçları (Results from Poverty Study), Haber Bülteni (Newsletter), 6 January 2011.


26 TÜİK 2008 Regional Statistics, per capita gross value added data (TL).

27 The real spending of an average person living in Istanbul in terms of its ratio to an average person in other regions is as follows: Western Marmara (1.2), Aegean (1.1), Eastern Marmara (1.3), Western Anatolia (1.1), Mediterranean (1.3), Central
Anatolia (1.4), Western Black Sea (1.4), Eastern Black Sea (1.1), Northeastern Anatolia (1.8), Central Eastern Anatolia (2.0), Southeastern Anatolia (2.9). The real spending on education of an average person living in Istanbul in terms of its ratio to an average person in other regions is as follows: Western Marmara (1.5), Aegean (1.7), Eastern Marmara (2.1), Western Anatolia (0.9), Mediterranean (1.3), Central Anatolia (2.3), Western Black Sea (2.0), Eastern Black Sea (1.4), Northeastern Anatolia (2.9), Central Eastern Anatolia (3.6), Southeastern Anatolia (6.9).


28 DPT, Binyıl Kalkınma Hedefleri Raporu Türkiye (Millenium Development Goals Report Turkey) 2010.

29 The prevalence of underweight children is the percentage of children aged 0-59 months whose weight for age is less than minus 3 standard deviations below the median weight for age of the international reference population. (UNSTAT)

30 Illiteracy rates across NUTS-1 regions are as follows: Istanbul (5 per cent), Western Marmara (7 per cent), Aegean (8 per cent), Eastern Marmara (7 per cent), Western Anatolia (6 per cent), Mediterranean (12 per cent), Central Anatolia (14 per cent), Western Black Sea (14 per cent), Eastern Black Sea (14 per cent), Northeastern Anatolia (21 per cent), Central Eastern Anatolia (22 per cent), Southeastern Anatolia (29 per cent). Uysal-Kolaşin, Gökçe and Duygu Güner, 4 Milyon 742 Bin Kadın Okuma Yazma Bilmiyor (4,742,000 Women are Illiterate), 19 July 2010 (Calculated based on Household Labour Survey 2008 data).


32 DPT, Binyıl Kalkınma Hedefleri Raporu Türkiye (Millenium Development Goals Report Turkey) 2010.

33 Information on levels and number of students are based on MEB, Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri Örgün Eğitim 2010-2011 (National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011).

34 This figure does not include 404,879 students who are older than 15 and are attending ‘open basic education,’ which is based on distance learning and falls under non-formal education. These figures are from MEB’s National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011.


36 This figure does not include 545,601 students in general secondary education and 232,612 students in vocational and technical secondary education, who are attending “open high school,” which is based on distant learning and falls under non-formal education. These figures are from MEB’s National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011.

37 National education system in Turkey consists of formal (örgün) and non-formal (yaygın) education. Non-formal education is all education and training programmes that fall outside of formal education. Both formal and non-formal education are organised or monitored by the Ministry of National Education. Formal education consists of non-distant learning programmes at pre-primary education, basic education (ilköğretim), secondary education (ortaöğretim) and tertiary education levels.

38 Calculated based on MEB, National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011.

39 Calculated based on MEB, National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011.

40 Calculated based on MEB, National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011.

41 MEB, Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri Örgün Eğitim 2010-2011 (National Education Statistics Formal Education 2010-2011).


44 Please note that because administrative enrolment data in tertiary education was not available, for 14-to 17-year-olds, only enrolment in 9th-12th grades were used in the calculation.

45 This is a definition used by the UNESCO Institute of Statistics (UIS). According to this definition, survival rate is calculated by dividing the total number of pupils belonging to a school-cohort who reached each successive grade of the specified level of education by the number of pupils in the school-cohort i.e. those originally enrolled in the first grade of primary
education, and multiply the result by 100. The survival rate is calculated on the basis of the reconstructed cohort method, which uses data on enrolment and repeaters for two consecutive years.

46 The definition is based on the definition of UNESCO Institute of Statistics. However, because MEB’s current enrolment policy ignores attendance to a large extent, while the UIS definition is based on enrolment, for the purposes of the report attendance is used in the calculations.

47 This sub-section of the report is written based on the UNICEF and UIS’ Out-of-School Children Conceptual and Methodological Framework document.

48 The ISCED equivalence of Turkish levels of education has not yet been determined since the renewal of the ISCED in 1997. The 1st-5th grade and 6th-8th grade grouping used in the report reflects the primary school and middle school grades in Turkey prior to the 1997 Basic Education Reform. In 2012, after the completion of the analyses for this report, the levels of education in Turkey were revised and divided into three levels: 1st-4th grades, 5th-8th grades, 9th-12th grades.

49 TIMSS includes 4th and 8th grades but Turkey participated only in the study for 8th grade in 2007.

50 One example of not being able to utilize DHS 2008 data is that an analysis regarding first language could not be conducted for Dimension 1; regarding income distribution analyses conducted for other reports based on Household Budget and Household Labour Surveys were used. Because the Child Labour Survey covers only children who are 6-year-old and older, an assessment of child labour for Dimension 1 could not be carried out.

51 Calculated based on ADNKS 2010 and MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

52 Calculated based on ADNKS 2010 and MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

53 When the provinces are ranked in terms of the ratio of out-of-pre-primary-school 5-year-olds, the provinces that have a ratio higher than 50 per cent are Hakkari, Ağrı, Gaziantep, İstanbul, Şırnak, Mardin and Batman; between 40-50 per cent are Adana, Kahramanmaraş, Bursa, Diyarbakır, Biliş, Ankara, and Kayseri; between 30-40 per cent are Adıyaman, Kars, Kastamonu, Zonguldak, Iğdır, Erzurum, Siirt, Kiliş, Çankırı, and Aksaray; between 20-30 per cent are Osmaniye, Konya, Ordu, Sivas, Çorum, Bingöl, Tokat, Tekirdağ, Kocaeli, Malatya, Erzincan, Gümüşhane, Aydın, Manisa, Balikesir, İzmir, and Afyonkarahisar; between 10-20 per cent are Şanlıurfa, Düzce, Bolu, Edirne, Antalya, Sakarya, Eskişehir, Kırklareli, Yalova, Tunceli, Van, Bayburt, Yozgat, Uşak, Niğde, Bilecik, and Kırıkkale; less than 10 per cent are Kırşehir, Karabük, Muş, Bartın, Isparta, Rize, Elazığ, Muğla, Ardahan, Trabzon, Giresun, Samsun, Denizli, Çanakkale, Hatay, Nevşehir, Mersin, Amasya, Sinop, Kütahya, and Burdur, Karaman.

54 Calculated based on ADNKS 2010 and MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.


58 MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

59 Calculated based on TÜİK, Türkiye Özürlüler Araştırması (Turkey Disability Survey) 2002 data, which was published in 2009. There are 216,805 people with disabilities in the 0-9 age group. Disability rate increases with age but because the median age for the 0-9 age group is 5, the total figure was divided by 10. The total number of 5-year-olds is based on figures from ADNKS.

60 Based on MEB macro-data, 1st-5th and 6th-8th grade levels, and 6-to 10 year-olds and 11-to 13 year-olds cannot be analysed separately; as a result, basic education level (ilköğretim) consisting of 8 grades was analysed in its entirety. MEB macro-data only allows to calculate the proportion of children who are registered in the Address Based Population Registration System (ADNKS) but are not enrolled in any school to the total number of children registered in ADNKS. In other words, MEB data does not include any information about children who are enrolled in but are not attending school or who are not registered in ADNKS at all. For those children who are registered in ADNKS but are not enrolled in a school, disaggregation is possible on age, gender, urban/rural residence, province and region levels. However, reliability of education and/or population data seems questionable given the fact that age and urban/rural residence-based disaggregation results in certain sub-groups with number of enrolled children greater than number of children registered in ADNKS; in other words, net enrolment rate and adjusted net enrolment rate turns out to be greater than 1.

Gökşen, Cemalci ç and Gürsel, Türkiye'de İlköğretim Okullarında Okulu Terk ve İzlenmesi ile Önl enmesine Yönelik Politikalar (Drop-Out in First Education in Turkey and Policies for Monitoring and Prevention), November 2006.

When calculating the total number and rate, because the number of non-enrolled children was negative for certain ages, the calculation for single ages was based not on the number of children not enrolled but the number of those who are enrolled.

Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data and 2010 ADNKS data.

All students are marked as either active or passive in the e-School Management Information System. Passive status is used for a number of groups: children who have health problems that hinder their school attendance, deceased children, children who have moved overseas, children whose registration is postponed one year based on parental request, children who are no longer in the age group for basic education, and children who are enrolled in non-formal distant basic education. All other students are active.


Administered by MEB, non-formal distant basic education is available to those individuals who are older than the maximum age set for basic education and do not have a basic education diploma. Individuals registered in non-formal distant basic education learn on their own with support from textbooks, television and radio programmes, and are expected to pass examinations to advance into subsequent grades and to get a diploma.

The maximum age for attending first education is set at 14 by a regulation; petition can be submitted to extend it for up to two years. If a child who turns 16 is in 8th grade and if requested by parents, the child can continue first education for another year. Under other circumstances, the child's enrolment in the school is terminated and the child is directed to distance learning.

Other reasons for being marked as having 'passive status' and number of students are as follows: health reasons (31,987), death (14,409), moving to another country (60,631), postponement of enrolment with parental request (32,740), enrolment in open basic education (2521).

Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data and 2010 ADNKS data. For 6-year-olds, only 2.65 per cent are in enrolled in pre-primary education.


Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data and 2010 ADNKS data.

Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2002-2003 and 2010-2011 data.

Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data.

In the regional disaggregation used in DHS, the East Region consists of the Northeastern Region, Central Eastern Region and Southeastern Region at the NUTS-1 level.


The proportion of total number of enrolled students and the proportion of number of students who are registered in the system as having exceeded the maximum age of education is as follows across the regions – listed from highest to lowest in relative terms: Northeastern Anatolia (4.0 per cent vs 10.3 per cent), Southeastern Anatolia (15.7 per cent vs 35.6 per cent), Central Eastern Anatolia (6.8 per cent vs 13.1 per cent), Mediterranean (10.7 per cent vs 10.7 per cent), Istanbul (16.4 per cent vs 11.1 per cent), Western Marmara (3.2 per cent vs 1.7 per cent), Central Anatolia (5.3 per cent vs 2.3 per cent), Aegean (10.6 per cent vs 5.1 per cent), Western Black Sea (5.3 per cent vs 2.3 percent), Eastern Marmara (8.0 per cent vs 2.7 per cent), Western Anatolia (8.7 per cent vs 2.7 per cent), Eastern Black Sea (3.0 per cent vs 0.8 per cent).
The analyses based on Child Labour Survey data is based on tables prepared by Understanding Children’s Work (UCW) for the Global Initiative on Out-of-School Children. Since the definition of child labour used for the scope of this report is different from the definitions used in TÜİK’s Çalışan Çocuklar (Working Children) report based on the same data, the numerical values may differ. The definition used in this report is based on the decision accepted at the 18th International Conference of Labour Statisticians and that creates global standards for the statistical use of the legal definition of child labour. In brief, this definition is based on the child’s engagement in productive activities on the basis of the general production boundary. The general production boundary is a broad concept encompassing all activities whose performance can be delegated to another person with the same desired results. For example, this includes unpaid household services that are outside the more narrow scope of National Accounts. Accordingly, there are three groups within the scope of child labour as used in the report: (1) 5-to 11-year-old children engaged in economic activity (to be engaged in an economic activity for at least one hour in the reference week, and the economic activity includes all production for the market and other production not for the market); (2) 12-to 14-year old children who are engaged in non-light economic activity (to be engaged in an economic activity for at least 14 hours in the reference week); (3) 5-to 14-year-old children engaged in hazardous unpaid household services (to be engaged in the provision of services for consumption within their own household for at least 28 hours in the reference week). For a more detailed discussion on the definition of child labour, see Annex 2.

The information conveyed in Esra’s story is based on the information shared during an interview UNICEF conducted in Ankara in November 2011 with a 15-year-old girl.

One of the eight conventions of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) on basic rights is the Convention No 182 on the Worst Forms of Child Labour of 1999, which was ratified by the Republic of Turkey in 2001.


The information conveyed in Mustafa’s story is based on the information shared during an interview UNICEF conducted in Ankara in November 2011 with an 11-year-old boy.


Eğitim ve Bilim Emekçileri Sendikası (Union of Education and Science Workers), Mevsimlik Tarım İşçiliği Nedenleri ile Eğitimize Ara Veren İlköğretim Öğrencileri Araştırması (Study on First Education Students Taking Time off from their Studies as a Result of Seasonal Agricultural Labour), 2007.


94 TÜİK Sağlık Araştırması (Health Study) 2008.
96 MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data.
97 TÜİK Özürlüler Araştırması (Disability Study) 2002, 2009; TÜİK Census 2000 data.
103 Bakış et.al., Türkiye’de Eğitime Erişim Belirleyicileri (Determinants of Access to Education in Turkey); Eğitim Reformu Girişimi (Education Reform Initiative), Eğitimde Eşitlik (Equality in Education), 2009. The same study did not find a statistically significant relation for the participation of boys in neither basic education nor secondary education levels.
104 According to Article 103 of Turkish Criminal Code, any act of sexual nature against a minor who has not completed fifteen years of age or though completed fifteen years of age who lack the competence to perceive the legal meaning and consequences of such acts, and sexual acts against other children that involve the use of force, threat, deception or any other reason affecting the will of the child are considered as sexual abuse of children; according to Article 104 a person who is engaged in a sexual act with a child older than 15-year-old without the use of force, threat or deception can be sentenced with penalty of imprisonment upon complaint, and if the perpetrator is at least five years older than the victim such penalty can be imposed without a complaint.
105 Hacettepe University, Turkey Demographic and Health Survey 2008, 2009.
106 Hacettepe University, Turkey Demographic and Health Survey 2008, 2009.
108 2010 data provided by UNHCR Turkey. The rates are of children who informed UNHCR of their attendance in school and therefore it might be misleading to assume that they fully reflect the real attendance rates.
110 OECD, Recent Changes in Migration Movements and Policies – Country Notes, Turkey, 2010.
111 Calculated based on data provided by the Directorate General of Education Technologies in July 2011.
115 TÜİK Güvenlik Birimlerine Gelen veya Getirilen Çocuklar (Children Who Come or Are Brought to Security Units) 2009.
116 TÜİK Güvenlik Birimlerine Gelen veya Getirilen Çocuklar (Children Who Come or Are Brought to Security Units) 2009.
117 TÜİK TCK ve özel kanunlar uyarınca ceza mahkemelerine açılan dava ve yaş grubuna göre sanıklar (Cases and ages of defendants in all criminal law and special law cases) 2008.
These studies also include analyses on the characteristics of the school, class and teacher. These will be taken up in a subsequent section of the report on barriers.

Ögel and Karadayı, “Devamsızlığın önlenmesinde risk ihtiyaç değerlendirmesi formunun geliştirilmesi araştırma raporu (Research report for developing a risk needs assessment form to prevent absenteeism)”.

Ögel and Karadayı, “Devamsızlığın önlenmesinde risk ihtiyaç değerlendirme formunun geliştirilmesi araştırma raporu (Research report for developing a risk needs assessment form to prevent absenteeism)”.


The study was conducted in the following provinces: Diyarbakır, Erzurum, İstanbul, Konya, Mardin and Şanlıurfa.

Gökşen, Cemalcılar and Gürlesel, Türkiye’de İlköğretim Okullarında Okulu Terk ve İzlenmesi ile Ölenmesine Yönelik Politikalar (Drop-Out in First Education in Turkey and Policies for Monitoring and Prevention), November 2006.


Calculated based on data from e-School Management Information System sent by the Directorate General of Education Technologies electronically in July 2011 and MEİ 2010-2011 data.

Calculated based on data from e-School Management Information System sent by the Directorate General of Education Technologies electronically in July 2011 and MEİ 2010-2011 data.

Calculated based on data from e-School Management Information System sent by the Directorate General of Education Technologies electronically in July 2011 and MEİ 2010-2011 data.

Eurydice, “Grade retention during compulsory education in Europe”, 2011.

The maximum age for attending first education is set at 14 by a regulation; a petition can be submitted to extend it for up to two years. If a child who turns 16 is in 8th grade and if requested by their parents, a child can continue first education for another year. Under other circumstances, the child’s enrolment in the school is terminated and the child is directed to distance learning.

These rates are estimated based on DHS 2008 data.

MEB İlköğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Regulation on First Education Institutions), Article 15.

Gürkan et.al., İlköğretim Zamanında Kaydolmama: Nedenleri ve Önlenmesi için Öneriler (Late Enrolment in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), April 2011.

The figures are estimated based on DHS 2008 data.

Gürkan et.al., İlköğretim Zamanında Kaydolmama: Nedenleri ve Önlenmesi için Öneriler (Late Enrolment in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), April 2011.

Gürkan et.al., İlköğretim Zamanında Kaydolmama: Nedenleri ve Önlenmesi için Öneriler (Late Enrolment in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), April 2011.

MEB İlköğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Regulation on First Education Institutions), Article 47.

A maximum duration of absence that requires consideration for grade repetition is not defined in regulations.

Calculated based on ADNKS 2010 and 2010-2011 National Education Statistics.

Please note that DHS 2008 survey does not ask about pre-primary school attendance for this age group.

A similar observation about contributing factors is made in the report Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out); that is, that no single factor has a determining role in school drop-out or absenteeism and that factors joined together increase the likelihood of an undesired outcome.


The technical paper titled “The quantitative impact of conflict on education” published by UNESCO Institute for Statistics in 2011 states that the ratio of people not participating in formal education in Turkey showed a regularly declining trend starting from the 1950s, and that the only exception to this declining trend was for the 13-to 17-year-olds living in eastern regions of the country in 1990s. Another observation highlighted in the report was that by the end of 1970s the regional disparity with regard to the average years of education among people who participated in any formal education was almost eliminated, however that the disparity re-emerged by mid-1980s and particularly during 1992-1999 period.

This part of the report used the framework presented on the various dimensions of gender related factors in Ahmed et al., “Impact evaluation of the conditional cash transfer program in Turkey: Final report”, 2007.


The ratio of relative marriages in Turkey is 20.9 per cent. This ratio goes up to 40.4 per cent Southeastern Anatolia Region (TÜİK Aile Yapısı Araştırması (Study on Family Structure 2006).


In a report commissioned by UNICEF titled “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out)” highlighted among the problems arising from families are early development of girls, the concept of honour in families, and early marriages.

According to a research study conducted with Roma families in Edirne, marrying 13-14-year-old girls is common and such marriages are considered to be ‘normal’ in the Roma community. Girls who are married or pregnant do not return to school as a result of social pressure. (Gündüz-Hoşgör, “Kız çocuklarının ilköğretime gönderilmesine yönelik davranış değiştirme ihtiyacı ve stratejilerine temel olusturacak ihtiyaç analizi (Needs assessment that will be the basis of communication strategies towards change behaviour about sending girls to first education)”), 2005.


DPT and World Bank, Türkiye’de Kadınların İşgücüne Katılımı (Women’s Participation in the Workforce in Turkey), 2009.

Tables prepared by UCW based on Çocuk İşgücü Anketi (Child Labour Survey) 2006 data.

Tables prepared by UCW based on Çocuk İşgücü Anketi (Child Labour Survey) 2006 data.

Gündüz-Hoşgör, “Kız çocuklarının ilköğretime gönderilmesine yönelik davranış değişirme ihtiyacı ve stratejilerine temel olusturacak ihtiyaç analizi (Needs assessment that will be the basis of communication strategies towards change behaviour about sending girls to first education)”, 2005.

İsbir et al., Özhürülüğe Dayalı Ayrımcılığın Ölçülmesi Araştırması (Study to Measure Disability-Based Discrimination), 2010.


According to Kadına Yönelik Aile İçi Şiddet ve Sağlık Sonuçları (Domestic Violence against Women and Health Consequences) (2009) a study by Jansen, Üner and Kardam, behavioural problems observed in children as they relate to the mother experiencing physical or sexual violence are as follows: 33 per cent of children whose mother experiences violence have nightmares frequently compared to 20 per cent of children whose mother do not; 28 per cent of children whose mother experiences violence wets the bed compared to 18 per cent of children whose mother do not; 59 per cent of children whose mother experiences violence cries furiously compared to 36 per cent whose mother do not.

TÜİK Aile Yapısı Araştırması (Study on Family Structure) 2006.

Jansen, Üner and Kardam, Kadına Yönelik Aile İç Şiddet ve Sağlık Sonuçları (Domestic Violence against Women and Health Consequences), 2009.


Study commissioned by UNICEF, “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out),” Tables 5 and 6.

TÜİK 2009 Yoksulluk Çalışması Sonuçları (Results from Poverty Study), Haber Bülteni (Newsletter), 6 January 2011.

TÜİK 2009 data on poverty rates.

Gürkan et.al., İlköğretime Zamanında Kaydolmama: Nedenleri ve Önlenmesi için Öneriler (Late Enrollment in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), 2011.

Hacettepe University, Turkey Demography and Health Survey 2008, 2009.

Hacettepe University, Turkey Demography and Health Survey 2008, 2009.


Hacettepe University, Turkey Demography and Health Survey 2008, 2009.

Bakış et.al., Türkiye’de Eğitime Erişimin Belirleyicileri (Determinants of Access to Education in Turkey), 2009.

Bakış et.al., Türkiye’de Eğitime Erişimin Belirleyicileri (Determinants of Access to Education in Turkey), based on Household Labour Survey 2003 data, 2009.


Fees for residence permit are the figures declared by the Security Directorates for 2011.


The Council of Europe Human Rights Commissioner also voiced his concern that this administrative practice will lead to the violation of the right to education of undocumented migrant children in his letter dated 21 March 2011 to the Minister of National Education.


Okul Öncesi Eğitim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Pre-primary Education Institutions Regulation), Article 12.

Okul Öncesi Eğitim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Pre-primary Education Institutions Regulation), Article 14.

Interview with Directorate-General of Pre-primary Education, May 2011.

Okul Öncesi Eğitim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Pre-primary Education Institutions Regulation), Article 11.

Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı İlköğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (Ministry of National Education First Education Institutions Regulation), Article 8.

Report commissioned by UNICEF titled “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out).

Report commissioned by UNICEF titled “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out).

İlköğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (First Education Institutions Regulation), Article 25.
193 İlköğretim Kurumları Yönetmeliği (First Education Institutions Regulation), Article 27.
194 İlköğretim ve Eğitim Kanunu (Law on First Education and Training), Article 53.
195 İlköğretim ve Eğitim Kanunu (Law on First Education and Training), Article 55 and 56.
196 Bussing first education is the practice whereby students who live in areas without a school or with a school that is no longer serving or a school with multi-grade classes are transported to a selected central school every day (Taşımalı İlköğretim Yönetmeliği (Regulation on Bussing First Education), Article 4).
197 Gürkan et.al., İlköğretim Zamanında Kaydolmama: Nedenleri ve Önlenmesi için Öneriler (Late Enrollment in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), 2011.
198 Data provided by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education YİBO Unit in May 2011..
199 MEB Taşımalı İlköğretim Yönetmeliği (Bussing First Education Regulation), Article 9. The Planning Commission can decide to decrease the minimum distance to 1.5 km where necessary.
200 For 2003/2004 school year, the number of students in boarding education is the total of students in boarding regional first education schools (YİBO) and first education schools with lodging (PIO).
202 Report commissioned by UNICEF titled “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out)”. 
203 TBMM, Çocuklarda ve gençlerde artan şiddet eğilimini ile okullarda meydana gelen olayları araştırma komisyonu raporu (Report of the research commission on the increasing trend of violence among children and young people, and events occurring in schools) cited in TBMM, Kayıp Çocuklar Başıta Olmak Üzere Çocukların Mağdur Olduğunu Sorunların Araştırılarak Alınması Gereken Önlemlerin Belirlenmesi Amacıyla Kurulan Meclis Araştırma Komisyonu Raporu (Report of the Parliamentary Research Commission established to Research and Determine the Measures to be Taken on the Problems Facing Children and Particularly Lost Children).
204 Report commissioned by UNICEF titled “Devamsızlık ve okulu terk riski durum saptaması ve ihtiyaç analizi (Situation and need analysis on absenteeism and school drop-out)”. 
206 Interview with MEB Directorate General of Special Education, Counseling and Guidance Services, May 2011.
208 Interview with MEB Directorate General for Basic Education YİBO Unit, May 2011.
209 Division is a term used to describe a class of students. Two divisions share the same classroom in a double-shift system.
211 2010-2011 data provided by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education in June 2011.
212 Çıngı, Kadılar and Koçberber, Türkiye Genelinde İlk ve Ortaöğretim Olanaklarının İncelenmesi (Assessing First and Secondary Education Opportunities across Turkey), December 2007. These sub-provinces and the provinces they are part of are as follows from the lowest to the highest in terms of the educational resource index: Başkale (Van), Gerger (Adıyaman), Harran (Şanlıurfa), Tekman (Erzurum), Eğil (Diyarbakır), Diyar (Ağrı), Şemdinli (Hakkari), Akçakale (Şanlıurfa), Hazro (Diyarbakır), Derik (Mardin), Pervari (Siirt), Sincik (Adıyaman), Viranşehir (Şanlıurfa), Hani (Diyarbakır), Dicle (Diyarbakır), Karayazı (Erzurum), Siverek (Şanlıurfa), Şirvan (Siirt), Tutak (Ağrı), Kulp (Diyarbakır), Patnos (Ağrı), Suruç (Şanlıurfa), Savur (Mardin), Saray (Van), Gürpinar (Van), Özalp (Van), Bahçeşaray (Van), Çınar (Diyarbakır), Arıçak (Elazığ), Mutki (Bitlis), DIGOR (Kars), Malazgirt (Muş), Mazıdağı (Mardin), Çatak (Van), Köprüköy (Erzurum), Halfeti (Şanlıurfa), Hamur (Ağrı).
213 Calculated based on 2010-2011 data provided by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education in June 2011. Ratio of students in double-shift system is 80-90 per cent in Şanlıurfa; 70-80 per cent in Adana, Batman, Bursa, Gaziantep, Mardin; 60-70 per cent in Ankara, Diyarbakır, Elazığ, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kahramanmaraş, Osmaniye, Van; 50-60 per

214 Law 5378 on Amending the Law on People with Disabilities and Some Other Laws and Statutory Decrees.


216 Gökşen, Cemalcılar and Gürlesel, Türkiye’de İlköğretim Okullarında Okulu Terk ve İzlenmesi ile Önlenmesine Yönelik Politikalar (Drop-Out in First Education in Turkey and Policies for Monitoring and Prevention), 2006.


218 Türk Eğitim Derneği, Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri Özet Rapor (Teacher Capabilities Summary Report), 2009.


220 Data provided by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education YİBO Unit in Mayıs 2011.

221 Türk Eğitim Derneği, Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri Özet Rapor (Teacher Capabilities Summary Report), 2009.

222 Calculated based on MEİ 2010-2011 data and figures included in an official response sent from MEB Directorate General of Personnel to Anadolu Eğitim Sen (a teachers’ union) on 30.12.2010.

223 Calculated based on MEİ 2010-2011 data and figures included in an official response sent from MEB Directorate General of Personnel to Anadolu Eğitim Sen (a teachers’ union) on 30.12.2010. The ratio of permanent teachers in the other NUTS-1 regions are as follows: İstanbul (77.3 per cent), Western Marmara (75.3 per cent), Aegean (81.8 per cent), Eastern Marmara (75.4 per cent), Western Anatolia (84.6 per cent), Mediterranean (81.2 per cent), Central Anatolia (80.1 per cent), Western Black Sea (78.9 per cent), Eastern Black Sea (74.6 per cent).

224 An amendment in 2010 in MEB’s current appointment system allows for financial incentives to be provided to teachers serving in boarding first education schools; this amendment is expected to decrease the high teacher circulation rate in these schools (Interview with MEB Directorate General for Basic Education YİBO Unit, May 2011).

225 In countries participating in this study, these ratios are 25.8 per cent and 15.1 per cent respectively (OECD, “Creating Effective Teaching and Learning Environments: First Results from TALIS”), 2009.


227 Türk Eğitim Derneği, Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri Özet Rapor (Teacher Capabilities Summary Report), 2009.

228 Türk Eğitim Derneği, Öğretmen Yeterlilikleri Özet Rapor (Teacher Capabilities Summary Report), 2009.


232 Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data.


234 Calculated based on MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011 data and data from Eğitim İzleme Raporu (Education Monitoring Report) of Eğitim Reformu Girişimi (Education Reform Initiative).

235 Calculated based on GDP estimates and Central Management Budget Law.
At the NUTS-1 level, the highest per student spending is in Eastern Black Sea region and the lowest is in Istanbul; the
regions rank as follows from the highest to the lowest: Eastern Black Sea (1906 TL), Western Black Sea (1880 TL), Central
Anatolia (1773 TL), Northeastern Anatolia (1700 TL), Western Marmara (1683 TL), Western Anatolia (1625 TL), Central
Eastern Anatolia (1617 TL), Aegean (1603 TL), Mediterranean (1465 TL), Eastern Marmara (1425 TL), Southeastern
Anatolia (1245 TL), and Istanbul (944 TL).

Fuel, water, electricity and internet connection expenses are covered by allowances sent from Ankara to Provincial
National Education Directorates, and then from the National Education Directorates to Special Provincial Administration; as
a result there are cases where the realised expenses are higher than planned allowances and some of the expenses are
not paid and the schools fall into debt. (Interview with Education Reform Initiative, May 2011)

It is not possible to claim the presence of effective and widespread policies for mitigating the psycho-social barriers
attributable to traumatic experiences or for addressing barriers related to social capital. In the case of psycho-social
barriers, it is a welcome development particularly for children who are or have been in contact with the law who are at
higher risk of exclusion from education that a training programme has recently been piloted on the counselling services
to be given to a child for whom the court called for a counselling measure under the Child Protection Law. (Interview with
MEB Directorate General of Special Education, Counseling and Guidance Services, May 2011.)

In preparing the Information Box, “İlköğretime Erişim ve Devamda 10 Yıllı Türkiye Deneyimi (Access to and Attendance
in First Education: Experience of Turkey)” booklet published in 2011 and “İlköğretime Erişim ve Devamin İzlenmesi; Yeni
Yaklaşımlar (Monitoring Access to and Attendance in First Education: Causes and Recommendations for Prevention), 2011.


SYDGM 2010 Activity Report.

At the time when the impact evaluation was conducted, conditional education assistance was called conditional cash
transfer.


Interview with SYDGM, May 2010.

Calculated based on figures in SYDGM 2010 Activity Report.

SYDGM 2010 Activity Report. The figures are as follows for the other regions: Marmara (1.8 per cent), Aegean (4.1 per
cent), Mediterranean (3.6 per cent), Central Anatolia (13.8 per cent), Black Sea (10.4 per cent).


According to calculations based on figures in SYDGM 2010 Activity Report, the figures for the regional distribution of
this assistance are as follows: Marmara (21.4 per cent), Aegean (11.8 per cent), Mediterranean (10.6 per cent), Central
Anatolia (15.1 per cent), Black Sea (13.3 per cent), Eastern Anatolia (13.9 per cent), Southeastern Anatolia (13.4 per cent).

The number of beneficiaries is from 2010/2011 school year, the amount of the scholarship is from 2008.


Website of Directorate General of Foundations, “Social Services: Scholarship Services”.


Information sent by SYDGM in June 2011.

In calculating these figures in addition to conditional health assistance, treatment support and conditional pregnancy assistance were also included, but about 96 per cent of the total amount is conditional health assistance. (Calculated based on SYDGM 2010 Activity Report). In the regional distribution of conditional health assistance, the rest of the figures are as follows: Marmara (2.39 per cent), Aegean (2.2 per cent), Mediterranean (8.45 per cent), Central Anatolia (4.57 per cent), Black Sea (4.26 per cent).


Data of ÇSGB Directorate for Payments without Premium. Under the relevant laws (Law No 5378 and Law No 2022), monthly stipends are provided to individuals in different age groups, who meet certain criteria.

These provinces are Adıyaman, Batman, Diyarbakır, Gaziantep, Kilis, Mardin, Siirt, Şanlıurfa, and Şırnak.

DPT SODES presentation notes (May 2011).

These provinces are Adana, Adıyaman, Ağrı, Ardahan, Batman, Bayburt, Bingöl, Bitlis, Diyarbakır, Elazığ, Erzincan, Erzurum, Gaziantep, Gümüşhane, Hakkari, Hatay, Iğdır, Kahramanmaraş, Kars, Kilis, Malatya, Mardin, Mersin, Muş, Osmaniye, Siirt, Şanlıurfa, Şırnak, Tunceli and Van.

DPT SODES presentation notes (May 2011).


Interview with ÇSGB, May 2011.


According to Law 2828 on Social Services and Child Protection Agency, “a child in need of protection”, is a child whose physical, spiritual and moral development and personal security in under threat and (1) without a mother or a father; or without a mother and a father; (2) whose mother or father or both are unknown; (3) abandoned by a mother or a father or both; (4) neglected by a mother or a father, and left unprotected in the face of all types of social dangers and bad habits such as prostitution, beggary, alcoholic drinks and addictive substances, and drifting to idleness.

SHÇEK 2009 Activity Report.

Interview with SYDGM, May 2011.

SYDGM 2010 Activity Report.


No major changes have been observed regarding income distribution compared to the last year."

Newsletter, 28 February 2011.

DPT, Millennium Development Goals Report Turkey 2010 (Indicator 1.2).


Law 3294 to Support Social Assistance and Solidarity.

Law 5737 on Foundations.


Data sent by MEB Directorate General for Basic Education in June 2011.


MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

Interview with MEB Directorate General of Pre-Primary Education, May 2011.

MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

SYDGM 2010 Activity Report. Because pre-primary education is mandatory for 3-to 5-year-old children with a disability who are in need of special education, free transportation services extend to include this age group in addition to children in first education.

December 2008 – March 2011 figures on the number of non-enrolled children provided by MEB Directorate General forBasic Education in May 2011.


MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

Law No 4306, Provisional Article 1.

MEB Milli Eğitim İstatistikleri (National Education Statistics) 2010-2011.

Ministry of National Education 2010-2014 Strategic Plan.

The information in Annex 2 is provided by UCW for the purposes of this report.

Other country reports on out-of-school children analyse 5-11 year olds. Because the scope of the sample in ÇİA 2006 is children who are 6-years-old and older, for Turkey country report 6-11 year olds are analysed.

Other country reports on out-of-school children analyse 5-14 year olds. Because the scope of the sample in ÇİA 2006 is children who are 6-years-old and older, for Turkey country report 6-14 year olds are analysed.