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The background image shows two people in a hallway. On the left, a woman with long brown hair is wearing a light blue long-sleeved top and a white face mask. On the right, a man is wearing a dark blue suit jacket and a blue face mask. They are standing in front of a white wall with a red fire alarm pull station. A large yellow diagonal overlay covers the right side of the image, and a dark blue diagonal overlay covers the top left corner. A red arrow points from the left edge of the yellow overlay towards the text.

**Youth employment in Turkey:
Structural challenges and impact
of the pandemic on Turkish and
Syrian youth**

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Youth employment in Turkey: Structural challenges and impact of the pandemic on Turkish and Syrian youth

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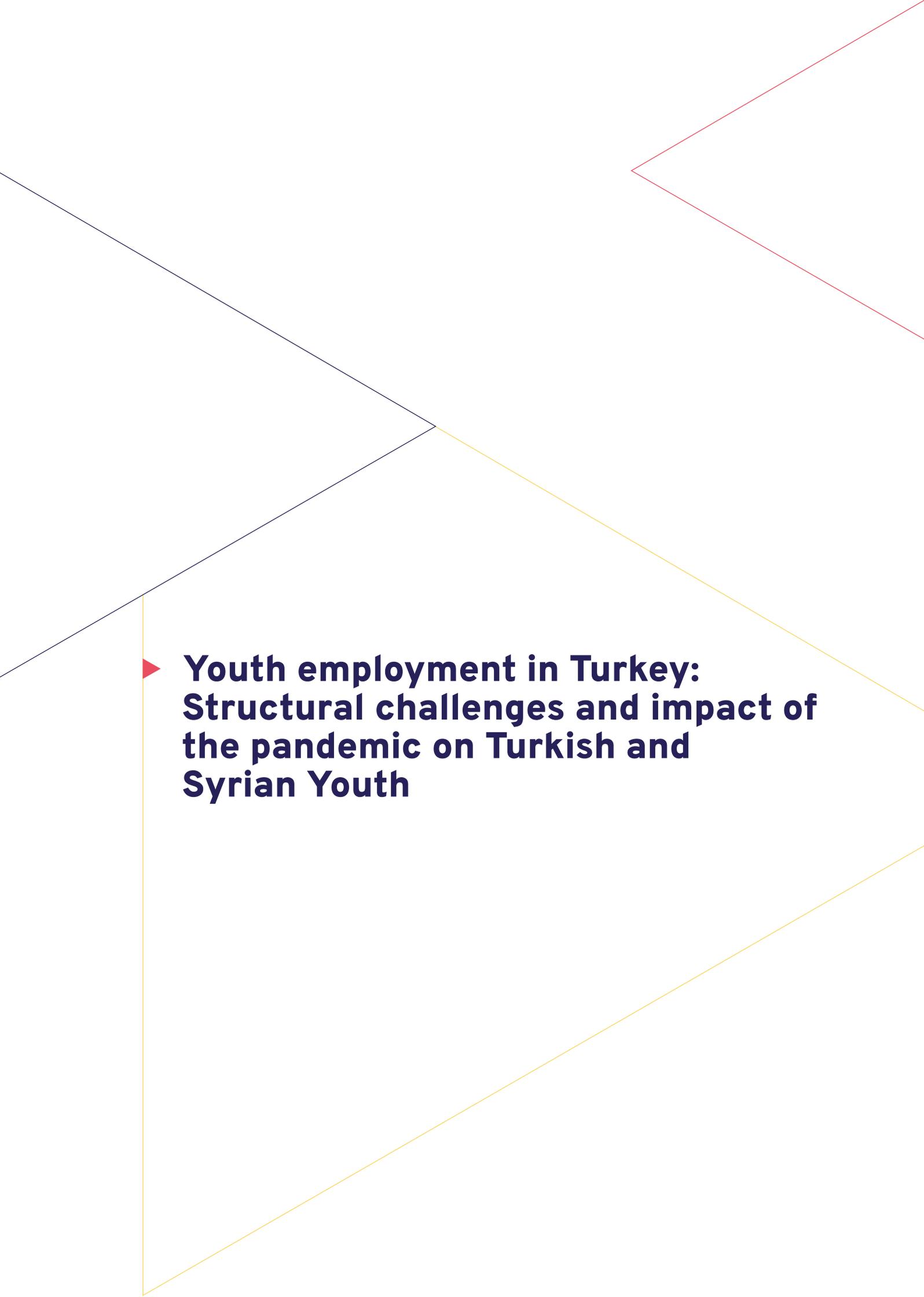
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DISCLAIMER

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**▶ Youth employment in Turkey:
Structural challenges and impact of
the pandemic on Turkish and
Syrian Youth**

► Contents

List of Figures	6
List of Text Boxes	7
Abbreviations	7
1. Executive Summary	8
2. Background	10
3. Data sources and methodology	11
4. Literature Review	13
4.1. Sociodemographic profile	13
4.2. Labour force status	13
4.3. Future expectations and desired working conditions	14
4.4. Perceptions regarding women’s employment	14
5. Research findings	15
5.1. Sociodemographic profile	15
5.2. Labour force status	21
5.2.1. Youth in employment	21
5.2.2. Previous work experience of those out of employment	29
5.2.3. Inactive youth	33
5.2.4. Unemployed youth	39
5.2.5. Impacts of the pandemic	45
5.3. Long-term and short-term plans to stay in Turkey	45
5.4. Perceptions regarding women’s employment	50
5.4.1. Women’s challenges in the labour market	53
5.5. Preferred working conditions	55
5.5.1. Narratives of discrimination and desired work conditions	58
Conclusion	59
References	60
Annexes	62
Table 1. Summary table of variables used in the regressions	62
Table 2. Logistic regressions on the determinants of employment	63
Table 3. Logistic regressions on the determinants of planning to stay in Turkey in the next 5 years	65
Table 4. Logistic regressions on the determinants of challenges faced in the labour market	68
Table 5. Sample size and weighting by groups	70

► List of Figures

Figure 1. Young people's marital status by age, gender and nationality	15
Figure 2. Syrian youth's duration of stay in Turkey	16
Figure 3. Highest educational degree by gender and nationality	16
Figure 4. Language competencies among Turkish and Syrian youth	17
Figure 5. Young people's enrolment in education institutions i.e. active students	18
Figure 6. Fields of study among active students by nationality and gender	19
Figure 7. Youth's participation to lifelong learning programmes outside of formal education	20
Figure 8. Proportion of young workers disaggregated by the highest educational qualification held	21
Figure 9. Young workers' status in employment by nationality and gender	22
Figure 10. Young workers' ongoing educational enrolment i.e. studying while working	23
Figure 11. Frequency of payments received by young workers	24
Figure 12. Average weekly payments of young workers who receive wages weekly	25
Figure 13. Average monthly payments of young workers who receive wages monthly	26
Figure 14. Informal workers: social insurance registration status of young workers	27
Figure 15. Degree of importance attributed to formal employment issues by Turkish and Syrian youth	29
Figure 16. Previous work experience of young persons who are not currently working by gender	29
Figure 17. Reasons for quitting the job as proposed by formerly working youth by nationality and gender	30
Figure 18. Reasons of business closure as proposed by youth formerly owning a business	31
Figure 19. Proportion of those who are not currently looking for a job among non-working youth	33
Figure 20. Reasons of not looking for a job as indicated by inactive youth by nationality	34
Figure 21. Gender disaggregation of the reasons of not looking for a job as indicated by inactive youth	35
Figure 22. Preferred conditions for accepting a job offer for inactive youth	36
Figure 23. Young people's self-expression for having the necessary qualifications to get a job	36
Figure 24. Having necessary qualifications (as declared by the respondents) to find a job by educational attainment level	37
Figure 25. Participation to skills development courses by inactive youth	37
Figure 26. Job-seekers by nationality and gender	39
Figure 27. Employment, unemployment and inactivity among Turkish and Syrian youth	39
Figure 28. Average duration of job search for job-seekers	40
Figure 29. Preferred type of jobs of job-seeking youth	40
Figure 30. Support received from governmental institutions, private companies or NGOs by job-seekers	41
Figure 31. Job-seeking channels of job-seeking youth	41
Figure 32. Main reasons for not being able to find a job as indicated by job seekers	42
Figure 33. Impact of the pandemic over young people's working conditions including active and inactive youth	45
Figure 34. Plan to stay in Turkey for at least five years ahead by nationality and gender	46
Figure 35. Issues determining long-term permanence Turkey for Turkish and Syrian youth, average scores	47
Figure 36. Young people's reasons for planning to leave Turkey in a year by nationality	48
Figure 37. Young people's reasons for planning to stay in Turkey in a year by nationality	48
Figure 38. Youth's perceptions related to women's employment	50
Figure 39. Allowing wife/partner to work based on mother's work experience	51
Figure 40. Reasons of not allowing wife/parent to work	51
Figure 41. Young people's perceptions about allowing daughter to work	52
Figure 42. Young people's proposed reasons of not allowing daughter to work	53
Figure 43. Challenges encountered while looking for a job as a woman by nationality	54
Figure 44. Challenges encountered while working as a woman by nationality	54
Figure 45. Degree of importance attributed to various criteria concerning desired working conditions	55
Figure 46. Discriminatory situations encountered in the workplace by nationality	56
Figure 47. Gender disaggregation of discriminatory practices encountered at the workplace	57

► List of Text Boxes

Text box 1. The sociodemographic drivers behind youth employment in Turkey	28
Text box 2. Youth's socio-economic situation as reported in KIIs	31
Text box 3. Syrian women's socioeconomic reality, experiences and expectations in the labour market	38
Text box 4. Experiences, needs, and expectations in the labour market	43
Text box 5. Factors behind the permanence in the country	49
Text box 6. Factors behind the challenges faced in the labour market	57

► Abbreviations

CAPI	Computer assisted in-person interview
CATI	Computer assisted telephone interview
HLFS	Household Labour Force Survey
ISKUR	Turkish Employment Agency
KIIs	Key informant interviews
MEM	Vocational Education Center
NEET	Not in employment, education or training
PEC	Public Employment Center
PES	Public Employment Services
PMM	Presidency for Migration Management
SGK	Social Insurance Institution
SuTP	Syrians under Temporary Protection
TL	Turkish Lira
TOBB	Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey
TR	Turkish citizens – host community members
TUIK	Turkish Statistical Institute
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
TEPAV	Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey

► 1. Executive Summary

Objective

This research report aims to provide data-driven evidence for policies to improve youth resilience and well-being. To this end, the research report:

- 1 provides an overview of the socio-economic profile of urban young people living in Turkey;
 - 2 reflects the needs and expectations of young people regarding their labour market experiences including the effects brought by the pandemic;
 - 3 reports their perceptions and experiences regarding public employment services;
 - 4 reports their perceptions regarding women's employment
 - 5 and, at last, their plans to stay in Turkey in the short and long term.
-

Methodology

This report is divided in three sections; (1) literature review, (2) main survey results, and (3) key informant interviews' results (KIIs). The main survey was conducted with 1800 respondents of 18-29 years of age (900 Syrians and 900 host community members) between 15 November 2021 and 14 December 2021. The survey was based on quota sampling. The respondents were reached out through snowballing method. The sample quotas were arranged based on the respondents' city of residence, age, sex, educational attainment, and nationality. The survey data was weighted based on key sociodemographic attributes of TurkStat's household labour force survey (HLFS). The survey results represent young people (18-29) living in urban areas of Turkey during the 4th quarter of 2021. Key informant interviews (KIIs) were carried out with 19 informants between 1-15 December 2021 to discuss and validate the initial findings of the main survey.

Turkish labour market overview

1. According to the household labour force survey of TurkStat and ILO's own calculations, the youth (18-29) employment rate in 2019 was 48.1 per cent among Turkish natives (33.5 among women and 62.6 among men) and 41.3 per cent among Syrians living in Turkey (15.6 among women and 67.6 among men). In urban areas, the same source estimates that most young workers (87.7 per cent) are regular employees, 5.8 per cent are own account workers, 1.8 per cent are employers and 4.7 per cent are contributing family workers. Regular employee status is more prevalent among Turkish cohort (84 per cent) compared to Syrian refugees (75 per cent). It is noteworthy to mention that men have a higher tendency to have their businesses and Syrians tend to work as own-account workers more often than Turkish natives.
2. The TUIK HLFS informs that the youth unemployment rate was 22.2 in 2019 among young people aged 18-29. Higher among Turkish natives than among Syrians.

Key findings

3. Average weekly working hours is higher among Syrians (59 hours) than Turkish workers (46 hours). We find that Turkish workers tend to be paid on a monthly basis (87 per cent). Among Syrians, five out of ten are paid monthly, four are paid weekly and one is paid on a daily basis.
4. The proportion of Turkish employees who are formally employed with social insurance (85 per cent) is much higher than the one of Syrian employees (29 per cent). Perhaps as a consequence of informality, cash payments follow a similar pattern, with 75 per cent of Syrians receiving their salary in hand while the percentage is only 25 per cent among Turkish natives.

5. The NEET rate for Syrian refugees (18-29) is as high as 38 per cent. It is slightly lower among Turkish natives at 31 per cent, mostly due to the higher labour force participation of Turkish women and the higher school attendance rates. It is critical to address gender disparities in NEET rates: The NEET rate among Syrian men is 19 per cent, but 56 per cent among Syrian women. Disparities are smaller among the Turkish population but still significant, 37 per cent among women and 25 among men aged 18-29.
6. More than a third (38 per cent) of those not in employment had previous work experience. The problems argued by those who quitted their jobs are long working hours, low salary, changing the city of residence and emerging family responsibilities. The nature of the reasons do not differ much across sexes with one exception; marriage, pregnancy and emerging childcare responsibilities which primarily affect women.
7. For those who got fired from previous jobs, major reasons were pandemic (44 per cent) and emerging family responsibilities (17 per cent). For those who closed their own business, 22 per cent stated that the main reason was the pandemic (17 per cent having no clients and 5 per cent facing the risk of being infected) and 30 per cent stated that their previous business was not profitable.
8. This study found that among those who are not currently working 81.6 per cent have not been seeking a job. Inactive cohort is predominantly women: 61 per cent among Turkish inactive youth and 74 per cent among Syrian inactive youth. Majority of the NEETs (82 per cent) are not looking for a job. Inactive youth would accept a job if offered higher pay (39 per cent), flexible work hours (16 per cent), reduced work hours (12 per cent), and equal treatment to all workers (11 per cent).
9. Among those who are not working, 18.3 per cent has been looking for a job - 17.4 per cent among Turkish to 29.2 per cent among Syrian youth. Job-seekers are mostly women: 54 per cent among Turkish and 71 per cent among Syrian job-seekers. Unemployed youth have been seeking jobs on average for 5.6 months (9.4 months among Syrians whilst 5 months among Turkish youth. Over two-thirds (73 per cent) of the job-seeking youth would prefer full-time jobs, 19.3 per cent prefer part-time, and 5 per cent prefer freelance-home based jobs.
10. For NEETs, the reasons why they cannot find a job include Turkey's economic conditions (23 per cent), lower-than-expected salaries offered (21 per cent), not having a reference/acquaintance to help find a job (15 per cent) and inadequate previous work experience (7 per cent).
11. Most young people (80 per cent) did not perceive changes in their working hours during the pandemic. Among those who suffered the effects of the pandemic, 7 per cent lost their jobs, 12 per cent worked less hours than expected and 4 per cent endured both, employment losses and reduced working time.
12. In five years time, 3 per cent of the Turkish youth plans to leave country while 5 per cent is thinking about it. Among those who plan to leave 49 per cent have university education (28 per cent among those who want to stay), pointing at a possible brain drain.
13. In contrast, 18 per cent of the Syrian youth plans to leave Turkey within 5 years, while 48 per cent is unsure about it and 34 per cent plans to stay.
14. A quarter of the youth (27 per cent) agree that household chores are under women's responsibility. One in five young persons agree that women can engage with certain types of work and 15 per cent expressed that women cannot work outside of home. Syrian men agree significantly less with the expressions of gender equality. A quarter (25.2 per cent) of Syrian men would not let their wives work outside - higher than Turkish men (5.8 per cent). A third (30.3 per cent) of Syrian men would not let their daughter work outside, higher than Turkish men (10.4 per cent).
15. A quarter (26 per cent) of women who previously worked, currently working or seeking a job faced discrimination, 19 per cent were offered lower income compared to men with similar competencies, 16 per cent were rejected because of being a woman, 13 per cent feared from sexual abuse, 9 per cent hindered by the lack of childcare facilities. More than a third (35 per cent) were under-paid, 20 per cent were discriminated, 12 per cent feared from sexual abuse, and 10 per cent faced family-related problems.
16. Considering ideal work conditions, Turkish youth prioritize salary level, old-age pension, health insurance, unemployment insurance, and working hours. Syrian youth value salary level, working hours, and health insurance the most. Syrian youth attribute less importance than Turkish youth to all the proposed items of working conditions. Young women consider free childcare opportunities more than men while men consider working environment/workplace culture more than women.
17. Less than half (46 per cent) of Syrian youth and 68 per cent of Turkish youth reported no mistreatments/violence in their labour market journey. Among those who were mistreated, financial abuse (22 per cent), neglect (19 per cent), emotional-psychological violence (17 per cent), verbal abuse (11 per cent), age discrimination (11 per cent) and gender-based discrimination (8 per cent) rank highest. Being woman, being Syrian or having a tertiary degree increases the likelihood of encountering a mistreatment.

► 2. Background

Turkey has been both a destination and transit country for refugees as humanitarian crises around its neighborhoods persist. According to the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) estimates, there are currently over 5.7 million Syrian refugees in the world (UNHCR, 2022). Large number of refugees who fled the conflict continues to impact neighboring host countries economically, politically, and socially. Turkey currently hosts the world's largest refugee population - more than 4 million refugees, of which over 3.7 million are Syrians under Temporary Protection (hereafter called as Syrian refugees²). Refugees in Turkey live mostly in urban areas (PMM, 2022). Syrian refugee population is concentrated in Istanbul, Bursa and İzmir in the west, Konya in central Anatolia, and Kilis, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Mardin, Hatay, Adana and Mersin, which have relatively higher unemployment rates in Turkey.

Besides Syrian refugees, there are half a million International Protection (IP) applicants or status holders in Turkey, residing in 62 provinces determined by the Presidency of Migration Management (PMM). This is a heterogeneous group of more than 80 different nationalities, with Iraqis, Afghans and Iranians representing the three largest cohorts. The total number of IP applications is around 480,000. Migration flow to Turkey is likely to continue due to the ongoing conflicts in Syria and domestic tensions and socio-economic conditions in countries such as Iraq, Iran and Afghanistan.

Participation in the local labour market is key to integrating refugees into host countries in the medium and long term. Inactive periods at early ages can bring long-term damage in terms of earnings and employment opportunities as well as psychologically. The ILO's global estimates for 2020 show that more than one in five young people aged 15-24 (22.4 per cent) are not in employment, education or training (NEET) (ILO, 2022). This rate is even higher in Turkey with 28.3 per cent. In particular, young women's lower participation in the labour market, the pandemic's economic effects, and Turkey's macroeconomic vulnerabilities affect young people's participation and their experiences in the labour market.

Further, the COVID-19 pandemic has a significant impact on the world economy and labour markets. In Turkey, structural challenges of the labour market and the effects of the pandemic on employment and working hours have created additional negative pressures on labour force participation. For example, in the 4th quarter of 2020, despite the improvement in the labour market due to the normalization of pandemic measures, NEET rates were 4.9 points higher among young men and 4.7 points higher among young women compared to the pre-pandemic period. These rates are even higher among refugees due to the tendency of Syrian young women not to participate in the workforce and the tendency of Syrian young men not to continue their education.

This research report aims to provide data-driven evidence for policies to improve youth resilience and well-being. To this end, the research report (1) provides an overview of the socio-economic profile of young people in Turkey, (2) reflects their needs and expectations regarding their labour market experience considering the impacts of the pandemic; (3) reports their perception and experience regarding public employment services, and (4) reports their perception regarding women's employment and their plans to stay in Turkey in the short and long terms.

² The terms "Syrians" and "refugees" are used in terms of sociological context and widespread daily use, and independent of the legal context in Turkey and Turkish Law. Turkey is a party to the 1951 Refugee Convention and 1967 Protocol. Turkey retains a geographic limitation to its ratification of the 1951 UN Convention on the Status of Refugees, which means that only those fleeing as a consequence of "events occurring in Europe" can be given refugee status. Syrian nationals, as well as stateless persons and refugees from Syria, who came to Turkey due to events in Syria after 28 April 2011 are provided with temporary protection.

► 3. Data sources and methodology

This research study consisted of three major stages: (1) literature review, (2) main survey, (3) key informant interviews (KIIs).

The literature review was conducted to take a snapshot of the existing literature related to this study's specific focus: socio-demographic profile of young Syrian refugees and host communities, their labour force status, expectations, and their aspirations for working conditions and perceptions regarding the women's employment. The literature review was based on desk research and aimed to serve as a background for the findings of the main survey and key informant interviews.

The main survey was conducted with 1800 respondents of 18-29 years of age (900 Syrian refugees and 900 host community members) between 15 November 2021 and 14 December 2021. The survey was based on quota sampling. The respondents were reached out through snowballing method. The sample quotas were arranged based on the respondents' city of residence, age group, gender, educational attainment, and nationality (see Annex Table 5). To enhance the survey's power of representation, survey weights have been assigned so that the following variables align with the official TurkStat statistics:

- Nationality: Syrian, Turkish

- Marital status: Single, Married

- Age group: 18-24, 25-29

- Educational attainment: Below secondary, secondary, tertiary

- Region: Istanbul, South-east (Gaziantep, Adiyaman, Kilis, Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır, Adana, Mersin, Hatay, Kahramanmaraş, Osmaniye), Other (remaining provinces of Turkey)

- Employment status: Employed, Not in employment

To circumvent the pandemic's disruption on labour market figures, pre-pandemic (2018 and 2019) TurkStat HLFS were taken as basis while determining weights for sub-groups e.g. Turkish, single, 18-24 age group, secondary, Istanbul, unemployed. The years selected (2018-2019) are not too far in time so it is assumed that marital status, age-groups, educational attainment and province of residence are not considerably affected. Two years were chosen to have a larger sample size while calculating the weights.

Results on the above-mentioned indicators (i.e. nationality, marital status, age, education, province of residence, employment status) align with the TurkStat Household Labour Force Survey (HLFS). The main survey's unique findings entail working conditions, labour market experiences and perceptions. The survey represents young people (18-29) living in urban areas of Turkey during the 4th quarter of 2021. The population is estimated at 10,934,547 of which 759,010 are Syrian refugees and 10,175,537 are Turkish citizens.

The main survey collected information using one questionnaire, with certain modules customized based on the respondents' characteristics (e.g. woman-man, Syrian refugee-Turkish, employment status). The questionnaire consisted of four modules:

- **1.** Socio-demographic questions covering; age, educational attainment, attendance to school, labour force status, employment, disability status.

- **2.** Perceptions about public employment services covering; (a) Syrian refugees' perceptions/experiences regarding formal work, (b) work permit regulations, and (c) host community members' perceptions about and experiences with the public employment services. Respondents were asked

about the importance of social security coverage, including access to health services, unemployment insurance, and pension coverage. Following labour market questions, respondents were asked about their perceptions and plans to stay in Turkey in the short (1 year) and long (5 years) terms.

- **3.** Perceptions regarding women’s employment entailing; (a) men’s perceptions regarding women employment and (b) women’s past experiences and the challenges they faced in seeking a job or at a workplace accessing the labour market or retaining their jobs.
- **4.** Expectations and experiences on the working conditions, including (gender-based) violence and harassment at the workplace and occupational health and safety. In addition, respondents were asked about their perceptions of the new forms of work (gig work, telework, reduced 4-day work week) and workplace culture.

The questionnaire was piloted between 23-25 October 2021 with 29 Syrian refugees and 26 Turkish respondents. The average duration of questionnaire implementation was 26 minutes. The questionnaire was fine-tuned based on the pilot implementation findings. The enumerators were trained specifically for the survey to hone their understanding regarding labour market terminology. The main survey was conducted through computer-assisted telephone interviews (CATI) or in-person interviews (CAPI) through direct data input into SurveyMonkey by the enumerators. The survey was conducted in Turkish and Arabic languages by native speaker enumerators. Survey completion rate was approximately 65 per cent among Turkish respondents and 47 per cent among Syrian refugees.

► **Table 1: The number of people reached out in the main survey and the final completion rate**

	Total number of persons outreached	Declined to participate	Not in the survey’s target group	Could not complete the survey	Dropped in data cleaning	Completed	Completion rate
Turkish	1386	248	108	116	14	900	64.9 %
Syrian	1915	487	96	417	15	900	46.9 %

Complementing the main survey, 14 key informant interviews (KIIs) were carried out with 19 informants on 1-15 December 2021. The informants included four clusters:

- **1.** Teachers, academics, and academic counsellors (High Schools, Vocational Education Centers, Universities)
- **2.** ISKUR, Public Education Centers (PEC) and Municipalities Vocational Centers & Employment Desks
- **3.** Academics
- **4.** Chambers and/or private sector representatives

Geographical coverage was observed during the selection of the informants. KIIs were conducted face-to-face or remotely depending on the availability of the participants. Tailor-made open-ended questions were asked for key informants and responses were duly recorded. KII findings were cited in the report anonymously. KII interview minutes were analyzed through categorizing the individual remarks according to the main themes of this study. Word frequency analyses were undertaken. Proceedings from the KIIs were integrated into this report as featured boxes to compare with the main survey findings.

► 4. Literature Review

4.1. Sociodemographic profile

According to the Address Based Population Registration System data, 16 per cent of Turkey's population in 2021 consists of individuals between the ages of 20-29 half of which are (51 per cent) men and the other half are (49 per cent) women (TUIK, 2021). The "Syrians Barometer 2019" published by the UNHCR in 2020 reported from the Presidency of Migration Management (PMM) figures that 54 per cent of Syrian refugees Turkey are men and 46 per cent are women (Erdoğan, 2020). Men outnumber women among Syrian refugee youth (19-29 ages): 58 per cent versus 42 per cent. According to the PMM's January 2022 data, the city with the highest number of Syrians, based on the place of registration, is Istanbul with 533,429 Syrian refugees (3.5 per cent of the urban population) followed by 460,799 in Gaziantep (22.1 per cent of the population), 433,724 in Hatay (26.2 per cent of the population) and 427,582 in Şanlıurfa (20.3 per cent of the population). Kilis is the province with the highest number of Syrians in proportion to its population (75.5 per cent). According to the January 2022 PMM data, 23.5 per cent of Syrian refugees are between the ages of 19-29, while this rate is 8.6 per cent among Turkish people. Having a young population among Syrian refugees poses strengths such as the availability of labour supply and youth entrepreneurship opportunities. It can also pose additional pressure on unemployment and inactivity incidence, wages, sectoral replacement of workers, and on public employment services.

4.2. Labour force status

A recent comprehensive study titled "Syrians in the labour market: Supply and demand side analysis" was published under the scope of the "Mahir Eller" Project carried out by the Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey (TOBB) in partnership with the Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey (TEPAV) (Akyıldız et al., 2021). The study³ revealed that (1) the vast majority of Syrians hold a profession, competency and vocational skills; (2) cultural differences, employers' approaches, economic conditions and legal regulations lie behind the fact that Syrians are mostly employed informally; (3) the number of companies declaring that they formally employ Syrian workers is considerably low; (4) the widespread belief that a significant part of the Syrians coming to Turkey are unqualified is unfounded; (5) there is a serious gap in the legal regulations of municipalities concerning Syrian refugees (Akyıldız et al., 2021).

Further, the ILO study titled "Syrian refugees in the Turkish labour market" presented several key findings based on the TUIK's HLFS data: (i) the significant prevalence of child labour among Syrians, (ii) lower labour market participation of Syrian women than men, (iii) sectoral concentration of Syrian workers and (iv) informal work among Syrian refugees (Caro, 2020).

Earlier studies zooming in selected cities confirmed the above key challenges and heterogeneity of the labour market situation of Syrian refugees and host communities. The study titled "Changes in the labour markets of the five cities with the most Syrian immigrants: 2011-2014" examined the labour markets of Gaziantep, Kilis, Şanlıurfa, Mardin and Hatay. The study confirmed that Syrians increased the local labour supply but refuted the assumption that Syrians reflect homogeneous labour force characteristics (Lordoğlu & Aslan, 2016). Syrian refugees and Turkish youth have diverse employability and employment attributes with significant intra- and inter-communal interactions influencing the social life in cities. For instance, the study titled "Involvement of Syrian Migrant Workers in the Textile Sector Labour Market at Istanbul Scale and Their Effects" revealed that Turkish workers in the textile sector perceive Syrian workers as a factor that increases housing rents and decreases the value of labour. The same study however found that despite their negative perceptions towards Syrian workers, Turkish workers do exercise cooperative attitude towards Syrian workers in the workplace (Mutlu et al., 2018). The study argues that Syrian workers associate the discrimination they face with Turkish employers and capital-holders rather than with Turkish workers.

³ The study surveyed 15,617 Syrian refugees, 4,169 Turkish citizens and 1,537 employers in Adana, Bursa, Gaziantep, Hatay, İstanbul, İzmir, Kayseri, Kilis, Konya, Mardin, Mersin and Şanlıurfa on a non-random basis.

Syrian refugees are not immune to Turkey's existing labour market challenges and they affect and are affected by local irregularities such as informal employment. According to the study titled "Syrian Migrants Working in Informal Employment in Mardin", local geographical, economic and cultural characteristics and legal framework gaps regarding the status of refugees in Turkey are the main reasons behind the increase of informal employment with Syrian refugee influx (Özkarslı, 2015).

4.3. Future expectations and desired working conditions

There is no comparative study that focuses on the desired working conditions and future expectations of Turkish and Syrian refugee youth. According to the study titled "Syrians in the Labour Market: Supply and Demand Side Analysis", despite the difficulties they face in social and work life, the majority of Syrian refugees would prefer to stay in Turkey even if the Syrian crisis ends (Akyıldız et al., 2021). At local scale, the study titled "Adaptation and Future Expectations of Syrian Immigrants: The Example of Mardin" indicated that more than 70 per cent of Syrians expected basic human needs such as education and health to be met before coming to Turkey and half of them reported that their expectations have been partially met (Apak, 2015). The study determined that only 36.3 per cent of the respondents preferred to live in Turkey but revealed that 76.5 per cent wanted to obtain citizenship. The study also found that 67.4 per cent of the participants are hopeful regarding their future.

4.4. Perceptions regarding women's employment

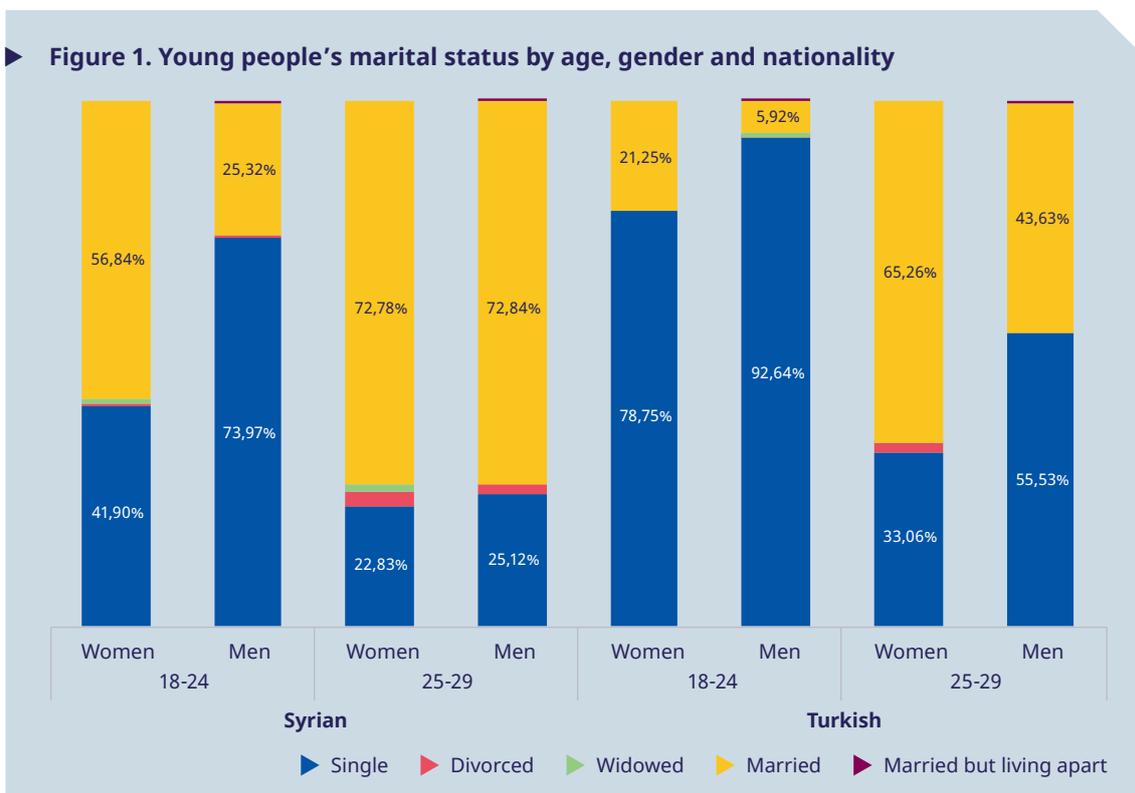
There are studies outlining women's labour market status such as the "Needs Assessment of Syrian Women and Girls Under Temporary Protection Status in Turkey" (UN Women, 2018). However, there is a dearth of literature regarding the perceptions of women's employment at national scale. Local studies indicate that the general perception is that Syrian women's labour is perceived as an additional income, support or assistance to the household or man breadwinner, as articulated in the study titled "Syrian Women of the Gaziantep Piecework Labour Market: Labour, Forced Migration and Violence" (Biehl, 2020). It can be stated that one of the reasons for this situation is the cultural background, where men are expected to work outside, and women are expected to work at home (Caro, 2020). Gender differences between Turkish and Syrian young workforce are considered as a subject that needs to be further investigated in detail.

► 5. Research findings

5.1. Sociodemographic profile

Sociodemographic profiles of the respondents were shaped by the sample quotas of this research that align with TUIK HLFS. The youth's sociodemographic profile is reflected as follows:

- 93 per cent Turkish and 7 per cent Syrian refugees,
- 51.8 per cent women and 48.2 per cent men,
- 57.9 per cent at ages 18-24 and 42.1 per cent at ages 25-29,
- 29.2 per cent from Istanbul, 17.2 per cent from Southeast Turkey⁴ and 53.6 per cent from other provinces,
- 35.9 per cent of below secondary, 37 per cent secondary and 27 per cent tertiary education degree holders.



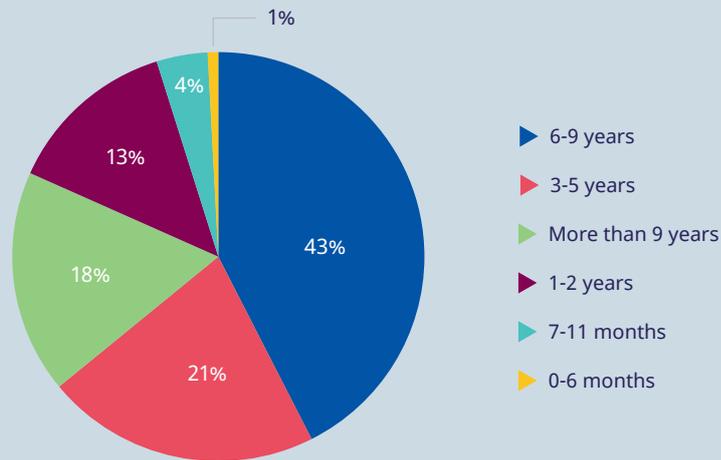
Note: The graph illustrates young people's marital status disaggregated by age groups, genders and nationalities. Married status is most common among Syrian men and women at 25-29 age group and least common among Turkish men and women at 18-24 age group.

Majority of the youth (66 per cent) are single, while one-third are married and the rest either divorced, widowed or married but living apart. Young Syrian men and women at ages 25-29 are mostly married (above 70 per cent) while majority of the young Turkish men at ages 25-29 are single (55.5 per cent). When compared to young Turkish men and women at ages 18-24, young Syrians, especially Syrian women at same ages are more likely to be married. Divorce is more prevalent among women at ages 25-29 while those who are married but living apart only seen among young men, mostly Turkish at ages 25-29.

⁴ Gaziantep, Adiyaman, Kilis, Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır, Adana, Mersin, Hatay, Kahramanmaraş, Osmaniye

In terms of disability status, certified disability incidence is 3.1 per cent among the youth in Turkey with no nationality difference. Both Turkish and Syrian men have higher disability rates which is above the average (3.58 per cent for Syrian men and 5.08 per cent for Turkish men).

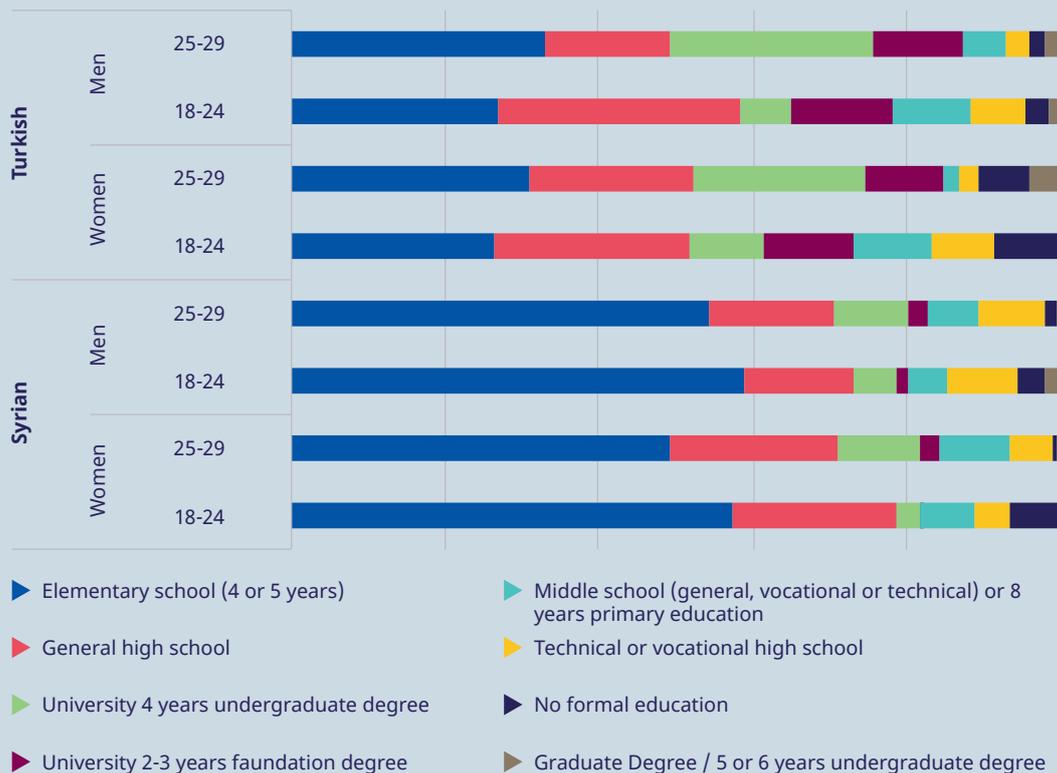
► **Figure 2. Syrian youth's duration of stay in Turkey**



Note: The graph illustrates young Syrians' duration of stay in Turkey. All Turkish respondents responded that they have been staying in Turkey since their birth. The graph includes only Syrians' responses to illustrate the duration of stay breakdown among refugees.

As reflected in the Figure 2, among Syrians, 18 per cent have been living in Turkey for more than 9 years, 43 per cent for 6-9 years, 21 per cent for 3-5 years, and 13 per cent for 1-2 years. Only 5 per cent of Syrian youth came to Turkey less than a year ago. All the Turkish youth represented in this research are born in Turkey.

► **Figure 3. Highest educational degree by gender and nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates the highest level of education that young people obtained disaggregated by nationalities, genders, and age groups. The term general high school used here entails Anatolian and Science high schools. Technical and vocational high schools form a separate category.

Highest educational degree of youth is illustrated in Figure 3. Majority of the youth are elementary school (30.8 per cent) graduates, followed by general high school (24 per cent) and 4-years university degree holders (14.4 per cent). Proportion of general high school graduates are slightly higher amongst Turkish (24.5 per cent) compared to Syrians (18.2 per cent). Proportion of Turkish elementary school graduates (28.9 per cent) are lower than Syrians (55.7 per cent) in general. Technical or vocational high school degree is more prevalent among Syrian men (8.9 per cent) compared to their Turkish peers. Lack of formal education is the highest among Turkish women (7.7 per cent) amongst the youth population.

Language competencies are illustrated in Figure 4. Almost 41 per cent of Syrian youth have B1 or higher level of proficiency in Turkish language while 4 per cent speak Turkish as their mother tongue. In terms of foreign languages, 9 per cent of Turkish youth speak English at B1 or higher level whilst this figure rises to 16 per cent among Syrians.

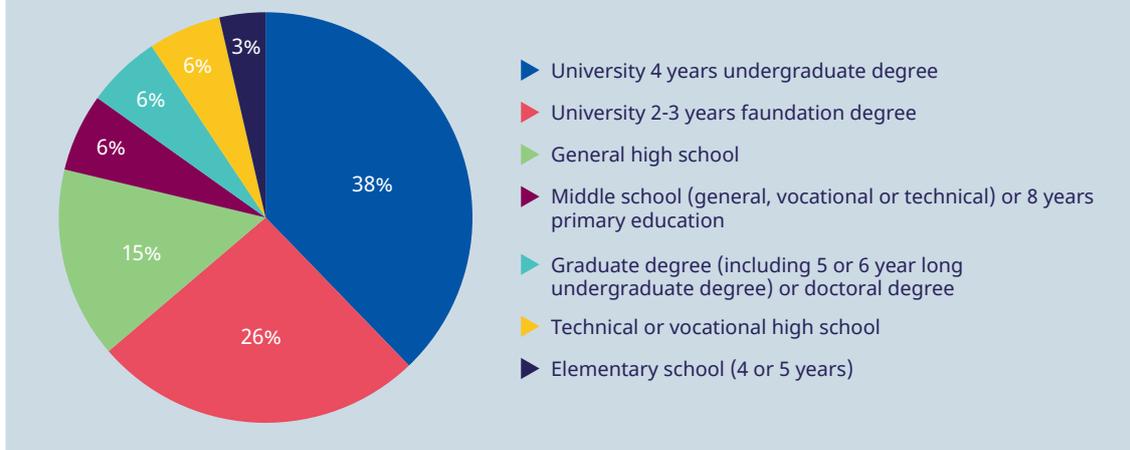
► **Figure 4. Language competencies among Turkish and Syrian youth**

TR	Turkish	Kurdish	Arami	Arabic	English	French	Spanish	Russian
None	0%	83%	100%	95%	65%	99%	100%	98%
A1	0%	0%	0%	3%	18%	1%	1%	2%
A2	0%	0%	0%	1%	8%	0%	0%	0%
B1	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%
B2	0%	0%	0%	1%	4%	0%	0%	0%
C1	0%	10%	0%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%
C2	0%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%
Mother tongue	100%	7%	0%	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%
SuTP	Turkish	Kurdish	Arami	Arabic	English	French	Spanish	Russian
None	8%	94%	100%	0%	65%	97%	99%	99%
A1	18%	1%	0%	0%	14%	2%	1%	1%
A2	29%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	0%
B1	13%	0%	0%	0%	2%	0%	0%	0%
B2	10%	0%	0%	0%	4%	0%	0%	0%
C1	17%	0%	0%	0%	10%	0%	0%	0%
C2	1%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%
Mother tongue	4%	4%	0%	100%	0%	0%	0%	0%

Note: The table illustrates young people's language competencies based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages ranging from A1 to C2. Classification was made based on the following expressions: A1 for "limited but enough to carry on my daily life", A2 for "I know at a level that I can go to the market and fulfil my needs", B1 for "I know enough to easily handle my work in local authorities", B2 for "I know enough to follow a training session and work/do the homework in that language", C1 for "I can speak the language fluently", and C2 for "I can speak as much as a native speaker". The main survey was not translated into Kurdish and was conducted in Turkish and Arabic languages which may influence the respondents' language competency composition.

Twenty-eight per cent of the youth are active students. Proportion of students differs by nationality: 30 per cent among Turkish versus 8 per cent among Syrians. As illustrated in Figure 5, students are enrolled in university (37.8 per cent for an undergraduate degree, 25.9 per cent for a 2-3 years foundation degree and 5.8 per cent for a graduate degree) while 20.7 per cent enrolled in high school followed by middle school (6.1 per cent) and elementary school (3.6 per cent).

► **Figure 5. Young people’s enrolment in education institutions i.e. active students**



Note: The table illustrates current educational enrolment of active students. The term general high school used here entails Anatolian and Science high schools. Technical and vocational high schools form a separate category.

As illustrated in Figure 6, youth is enrolled in various fields of studies (both university and vocational or technical high school degrees). There are certain patterns between women and men, and the diversity of fields of study among Syrians are less compared to Turkish students. Women in general prefers educational sciences: students in educational sciences are 37 per cent among Syrian women while it is 25 per cent among Turkish women. Engineering students on the other hand are mostly men among both nationalities but Syrian women (15 per cent) choose this field more frequently than Turkish women (7 per cent). Educational sciences (37 per cent), architecture and civil engineering (21 per cent) are the most popular subjects for Syrian women while human sciences (humanities) (21 per cent), languages (20 per cent) and business and administration (19 per cent) are the most popular subjects among Syrian men. For Turkish women, the most popular subject is educational sciences (25 per cent) followed by medicine (16 per cent) and business and administration (11 per cent). For Turkish men engineering (17 per cent) is the most popular subject followed by educational (13 per cent) and human sciences (humanities) (10 per cent).

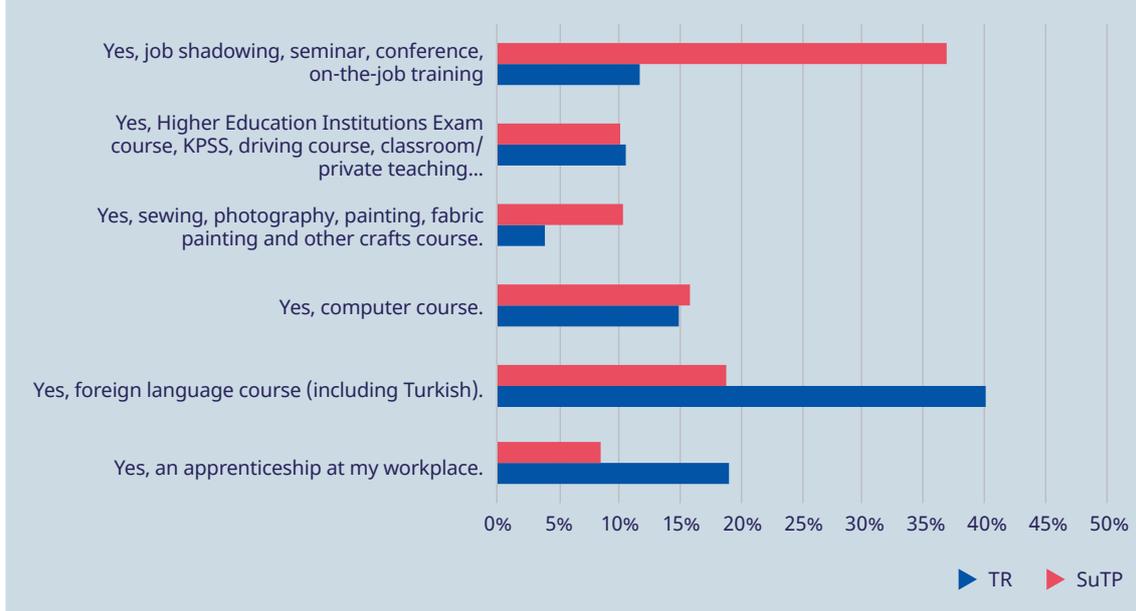
► **Figure 6. Fields of study among active students by nationality and gender**

	Syrian		Turkish	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Educational sciences	37%	4%	25%	13%
Business administration	15%	19%	11%	6%
Engineering	15%	11%	7%	17%
Medicine	1%	2%	16%	2%
Social sciences	11%	10%	6%	8%
Human sciences	0%	21%	1%	10%
Languages	0%	20%	3%	7%
Architecture and civil engineering	21%	1%	2%	4%
Behavioural sciences	0%	2%	6%	3%
Journalism and informatics	0%	4%	2%	3%
Law	0%	0%	2%	3%
Information and communication technologies	0%	0%	2%	7%
Personal services	0%	0%	8%	3%
Other	0%	5%	10%	15%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%

Note: The table illustrates fields of study among active students disaggregated by nationalities and genders. The classification is based on the International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED) – Fields of Education and Training (ISCED-F) 2013 edition.

Majority of the youth (85 per cent) have not participated in lifelong learning (LLL) sessions outside of formal education institutions within the last four weeks. Job-shadowing, seminar, conference, on the job training, computer classes, foreign languages were popular among those who participated in a training session. Job-shadowing, seminar, conference and on the job training sessions are more popular among Turkish youth. Turkish language courses are more popular among Syrian youth compared to their Turkish peers. Besides LLL sessions, apprenticeship, as a formal education programme, is found to be considerably more popular among Syrian youth (19 per cent) than among Turkish youth (8 per cent).

► **Figure 7. Youth's participation to lifelong learning programmes outside of formal education**



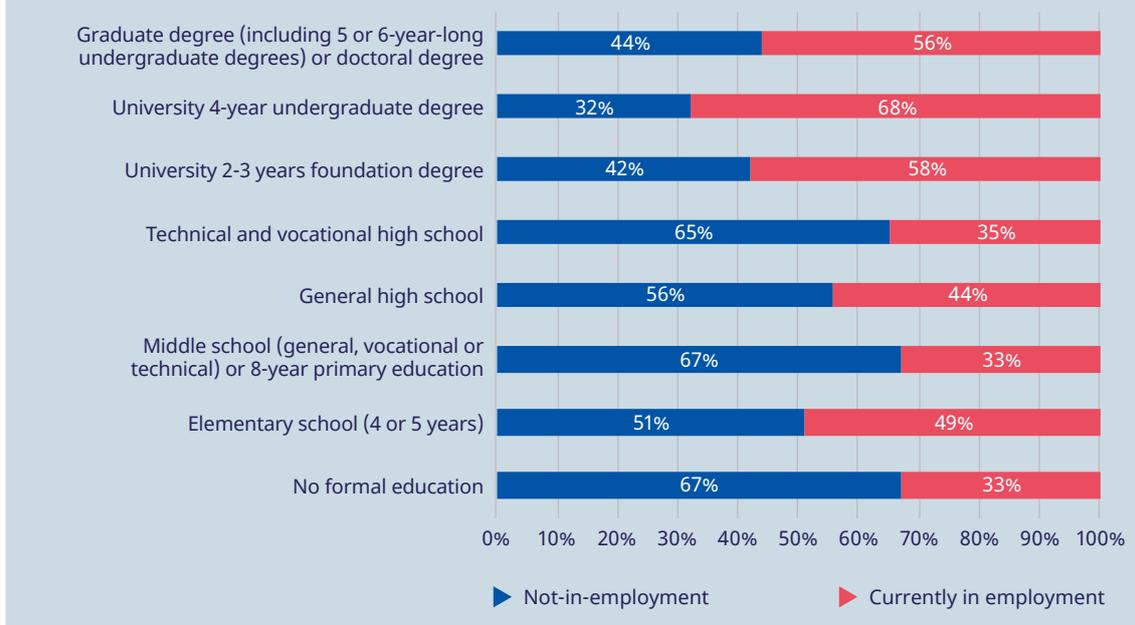
Note: The graph illustrates young people's participation to various non-formal learning opportunities. The associated question was as follows: "Have you attended any training program or a course other than formal education in the last 4 weeks?"

5.2. Labour force status

5.2.1. Youth in employment

As per the quota sampling methodology, employment status of the survey sample was pre-arranged to align with the TUIK HLFS findings. Approximately half of the youth (48.7 per cent), representing 5.3 million people, are currently working corresponding to 58 per cent among young men and 40 per cent among young women. Those who have been working actively at least one hour in the past week to earn cash or in-kind income are classified as currently working – including for instance part-time, temporary, and informal workers. Majority of those who are currently working are university graduates including foundation degree, undergraduate and graduate degrees (35 per cent) followed by elementary school graduates (31 per cent) and general high school graduates (22 per cent).

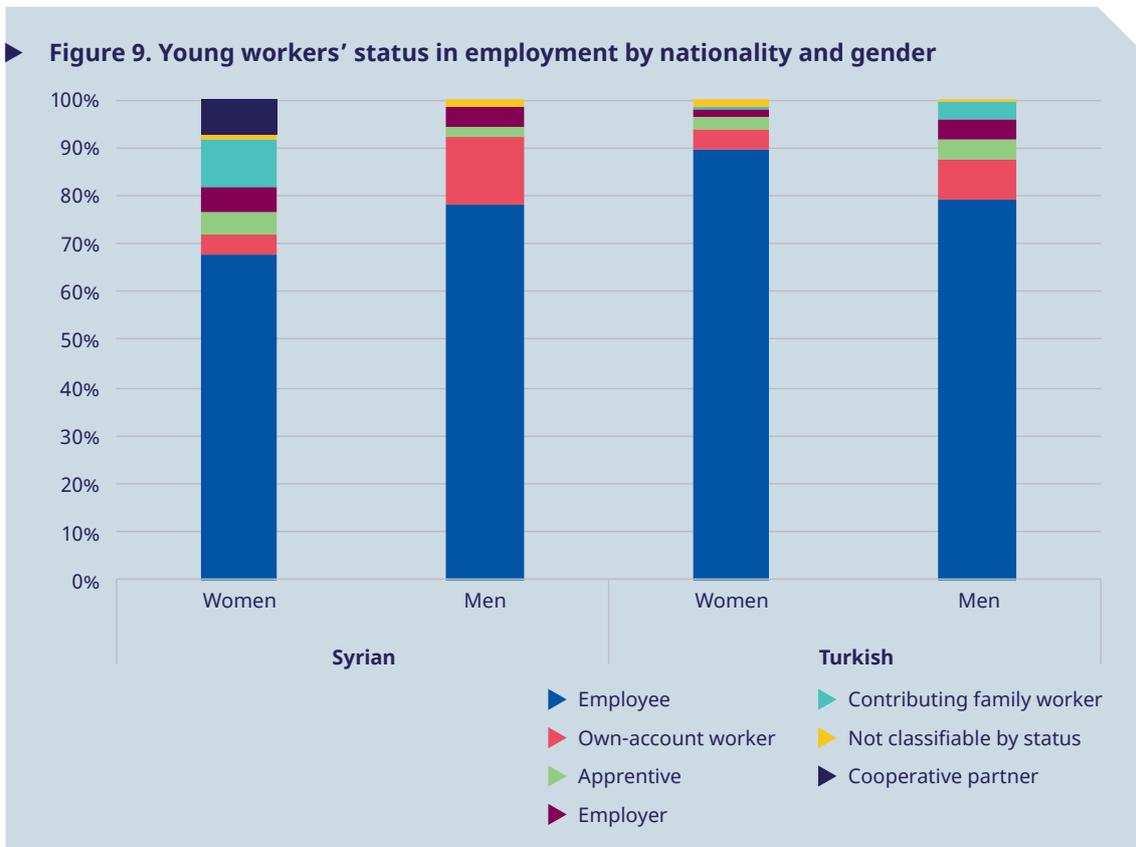
► **Figure 8. Proportion of young workers disaggregated by the highest educational qualification held**



Note: The graph illustrates work incidence within sub-groups formed by educational qualifications. For instance, the highest employment rate is among undergraduate degree holders while the lowest employment rate is among middle school or 8-year primary education degree holders. Note that the term general high school used here entails Anatolian and Science high schools. Technical and vocational high schools form a separate category.

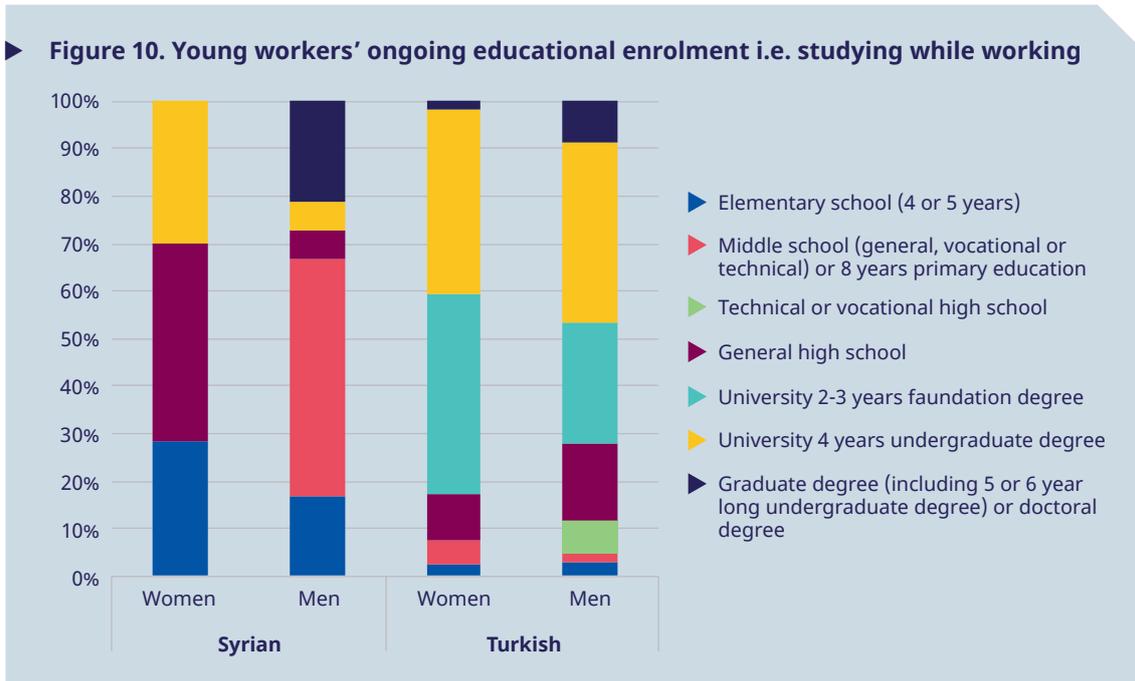
In terms of workers' status in employment, 83 per cent of young workers are regular employees (corresponding to 4.4 million people), 7 per cent are own account workers, 4 per cent are apprentices⁵ or interns, 3 per cent are employers and 2 per cent are contributing family workers. Working with an employee status is more prevalent among Turkish youth workers: 84 per cent among Turkish versus 75 per cent among Syrians. Proportion of own account workers is higher among Syrians (11 per cent) than Turkish (7 per cent) youth. It is also noteworthy that 7 per cent of Syrian young women are cooperative partners.

⁵ Employment status of candidate apprentices, apprentices and students who receive vocational training in enterprises is regulated by Law No. 3308. Candidate apprentices and apprentices retain their *de jure* student title during their vocational and technical training in enterprises.



Note: The graph illustrates young workers' status in employment. This question is asked only to those who declare that they work. The status in employment is based on the 1993 International Classification of Status in Employment (ICSE-93) (ILO, n.d.).

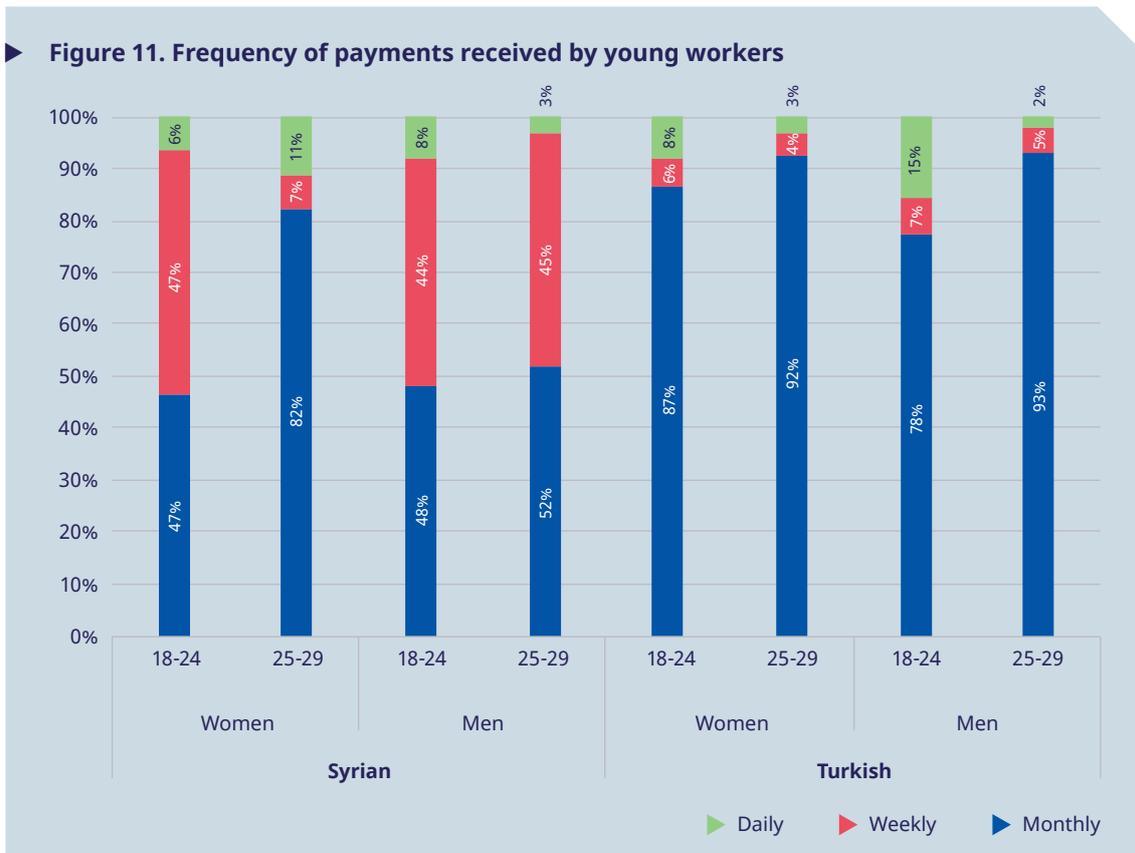
One-fifth (22 per cent) of the young active workers continued their formal education in the last 4-weeks while they have been working. Working students are much scarcer among Syrians (7.5 per cent) while it is 23 per cent among Turkish nationals. Fifty-nine per cent of those who are both working and studying are in 18-24 age group (majority men) while 41 per cent are in 25-29 age group (no gender difference). Majority (76 per cent) of those who are both working and studying are university students (38 per cent 4-year university students, 32.4 per cent foundation degree and 6 per cent graduate degree), while 17 per cent continue high school, 4 per cent continue middle school and 3 per cent continue elementary school.



Note: The graph illustrates young workers' continuing educational activity disaggregated by nationalities and genders. This graph shows the incidence of studying and working at the same time for youth sub-groups.

Almost one-third (31.6 per cent) of the respondents (representing 3.4 million people) are not in employment, education or training (NEET). No sizeable difference is observed across age groups, but the NEET prevalence is skewed towards 25-29 age group (33.5 per cent). Gender and nationality disparity in NEET prevalence remains: 38 per cent among women and 25 per cent among men, 38 per cent for Syrians and 31 per cent for Turkish.

Among young workers (5.3 million people), 85.5 per cent receive their remuneration monthly (87 per cent among Turkish and 55 per cent among Syrian refugees), while 7.6 per cent receive weekly and 6.9 per cent receive daily. Syrian workers (38 per cent) get paid weekly more than Turkish workers (5.6 per cent). Especially Syrian men (44.3 per cent) are more likely to get paid weekly, which points out to short-term employment patterns and irregular working schedule for Syrians. In general, men at ages of 18-24 work in daily paid jobs more frequently (over 14.6 per cent) compared to women and men at ages 25-29 (2.5 per cent).



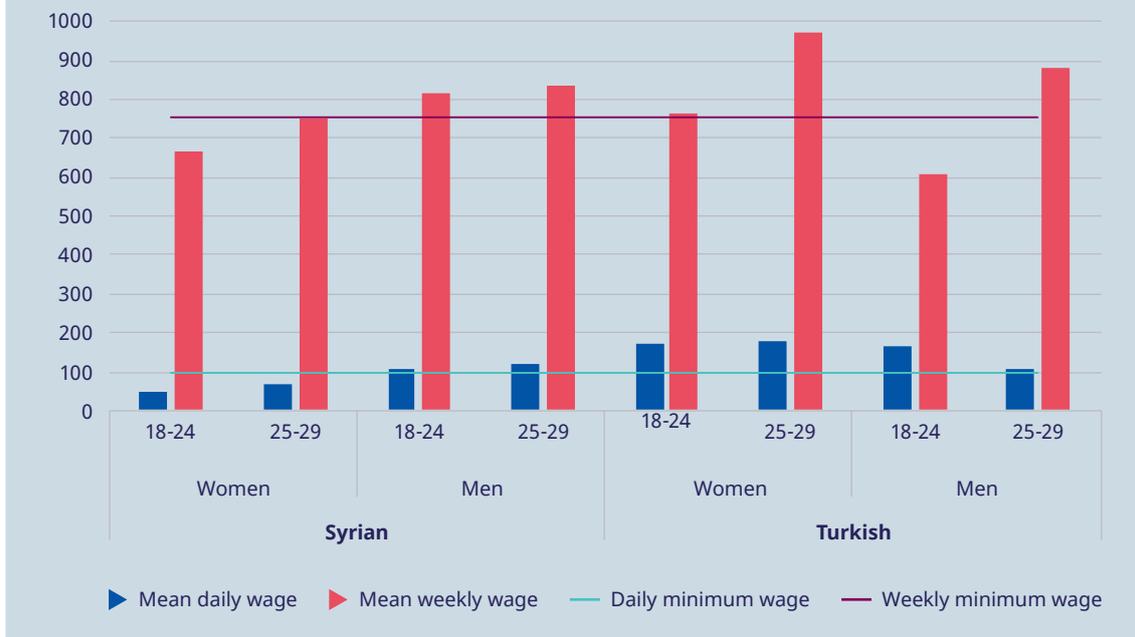
Note: The graph illustrates the frequency of remuneration that young workers receive disaggregated by nationalities, gender and age groups.

On average, regular employees work 5.4 days a week and 46.8 hours per week, which points out to overtime work for an average worker. Average working days per week is higher for Syrian (5.7 days a week) than Turkish (5.4 days a week). Average working hours per week is longer for Syrians (59 hours per week in general, 63 for Syrian men workers and 49 for Syrian women workers), while it is 46 for Turkish workers with no gender disparity. Turkey's statutory regulation (Law no. 4857) limits the weekly working hours to 45 – beyond which shall be considered overtime work.

In 2021, net minimum monthly wage in Turkey ranged between 2,826 TL and 3,014 TL depending on the worker's marital and parental status. This corresponds to 94 TL to 100 TL per day. The survey reveals that very few daily workers (2 per cent) earn less than 50 TL per day, almost one-third (28.7 per cent) earn 51-100 TL per day; 58.7 per cent earn 101-200 TL per day, and 7.9 per cent earn more than 200 TL per day.

Dividing the statutory minimum wage in 2021, net weekly minimum wage corresponds to 706.5 TL to 753.5 TL. Overall, 10.3 per cent of weekly workers earn less than 500 TL per week, almost one-third (28.3 per cent) earn 501-750 TL per week, while 41 per cent earn 751-1000 TL and only 12.6 per cent earn over 1001 TL per week. It is noteworthy that 7.8 per cent of the youth either did not answer this question or stated that it depends – pointing out to a potential irregularity in remuneration.

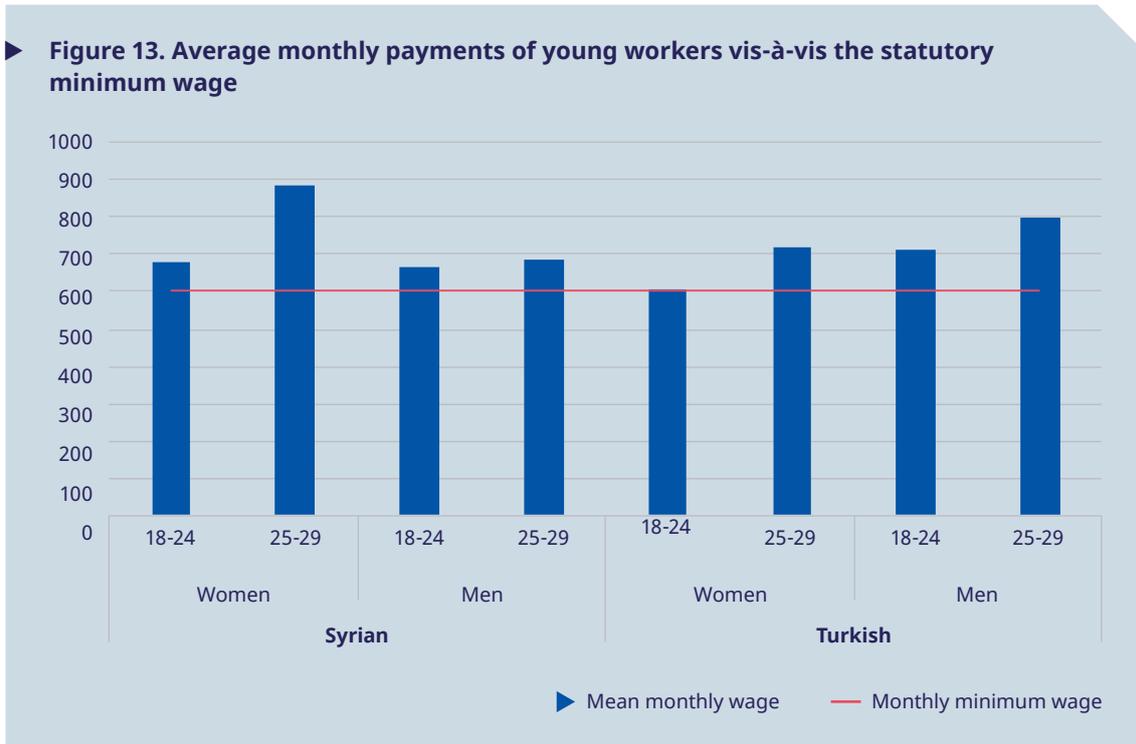
► **Figure 12. Average daily and weekly payments of young workers vis-à-vis the statutory minimum wage**



Note: The graph illustrates average daily and weekly payments of young workers. The daily statutory minimum wage in 2021 was 94-100 TL. Almost 30 per cent of daily workers declared to earn less than 100 TL per day. The weekly statutory minimum wage in 2021 was 706-753 TL. Almost 40 per cent of weekly earners declared to earn 750 TL or less per week – remaining below the statutory weekly minimum wage.

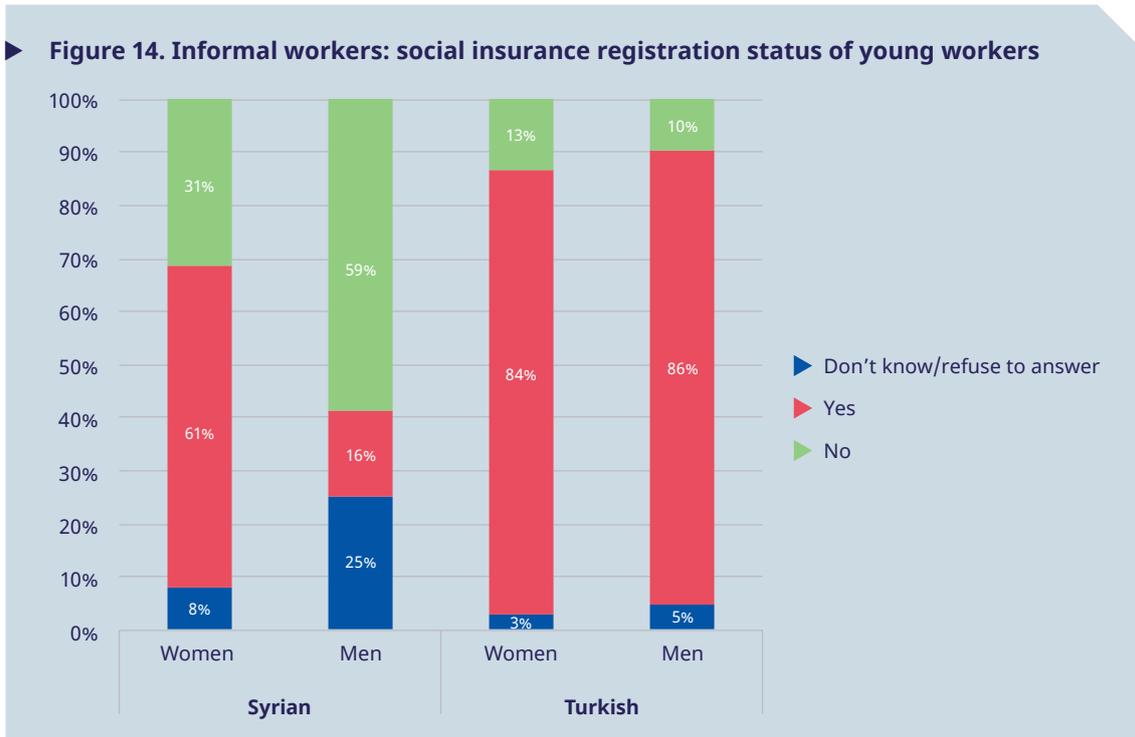
In 2021, net minimum monthly wage in Turkey ranged between 2,826 TL and 3,014 TL depending on the worker's marital and parental status. The survey reveals that 26.7 per cent of young workers earn less than 3000 TL, 38.2 per cent earn 3000-3500 TL, 27 per cent earn 3501-5000 TL, and 7.5 per cent earn more than 5000 TL. Proportion of Syrian men earning below 3000 TL (30 per cent) is slightly higher than Syrian women (25 per cent), while Turkish women (33 per cent) are more likely to earn below 3000 TL compared to Turkish men (21 per cent). Syrian women, especially those at the ages of 25-29 years (49 per cent) are more likely to earn above 5,000 TL compared to their Turkish peers and men in general. This overall finding should not overshadow occasional nationality pay gaps in specific sectors such as textile manufacturing in specific provinces.

This study finds that Syrian monthly workers on average earn more than Turkish monthly workers, those who earn more than 5000 TL is higher for Syrians (18 per cent) compared to Turkish workers (7 per cent). This difference may be attributed to relatively high number of Syrians who did not disclose their wages (either it depends or not knowing their exact salaries). Vast majority of Turkish women workers (97 per cent) earn less than 5000 TL and Turkish men workers (91 per cent).



Note: The graph illustrates average monthly payments of young workers who declare to receive their remuneration monthly. In 2021, net minimum monthly wage in Turkey ranged between 2,826 TL and 3,014 TL depending on the worker's marital and parental status. The survey reveals that 26.7 per cent of young workers earn less than 3000 TL per month.

Two-thirds of those who are not currently employed but had previous work experience (both formally or informally) used to earn below 3000 TL per month, while 27 per cent earned 3001-3500 TL. The rest (5.6 per cent) used to earn more than 3501 TL.



Note: The graph illustrates social insurance registration incidence among young workers disaggregated by nationalities and genders. The associated question was asked as follows: "Is there a health and social security insurance SGK record made by your employer for you?". The question was asked only to those working under employee or apprentice status.

Social insurance is an indicator of formal employment. Those who work without a social insurance registration are employed informally. Significant majority (81 per cent) of young workers (working as employees or apprentices, representing 4.4 million people) have social insurance, while 14 per cent lack insurance. Five per cent of young workers refused to answer or do not know whether they have an insurance - most of which are Syrians: 20 per cent of the Syrian workers versus 4 per cent of Turkish workers. Proportion of the Turkish workers who has insurance (85 per cent) is much higher compared to Syrian workers (29 per cent). Overall, proportion of women workers who have insurance (83 per cent) is slightly higher than men workers (80 per cent). Proportion of those who have insurance among both Turkish and Syrian women workers are above 60 per cent, while for Syrian men workers this decreases to 16 per cent which is much lower than the average of both men and women youth. Majority (81 per cent) of those who have insurance reported to have a social security (SGK) record, while 6 per cent have insurance only covering work accidents and occupational diseases underpinning apprentices, interns, and on-the-job trainees as per the regulation. The remaining 12 per cent do not know what type of insurance they have.

More than a quarter (28 per cent) of the working youth receive their payment in cash (envelope wage), partially or fully. Among cash wage-earners, the majority (77 per cent) receive their entire wage in cash. Among Syrian workers, 75 per cent receive their remuneration through cash payments while it is only 25 per cent for Turkish workers. In cash payments, enterprises declare only a certain amount of the wage to authorities (under-reporting) and pay the rest of the wage informally. Cash (envelope) payments reflect the complexity of informal employment making it harder to distinguish between fully informal sector and informal employment in formal enterprises. The effects of this practice include tax evasion, narrower social protection scope, and illicit competition through reduced wage costs compared to companies that employ formally (Miheş, Popova, and Roch, 2011). Cash wage can also be a symptom of fully informal employment: 80 per cent of the un-insured report cash wage receipt whereas only 16 per cent of insured workers report cash wage receipt.

Among Syrian workers without a social security record and thus work permit (around 146 thousand people), 34 per cent reported that their employer was not willing to apply for a work permit. According to the respondents, employers were unwilling because they did not want to bear work permit application costs (78 per cent) or were unable to afford due to the enterprise's small scale (18 per cent). Overall, 42 per cent of Syrian workers indicated that they wish to have a work permit while only 1 per cent do not want to have work permit.

► **Text box 1. The sociodemographic drivers behind youth employment in Turkey**

To better understand the drivers behind youth employment⁶, a set of logistic regressions were conducted (Annex Table 2). Based on the hypothesized models, significant predictors of employment e.g. gender, nationality, age, educational attainment were identified and their average marginal effects on the likelihood of employment were calculated.

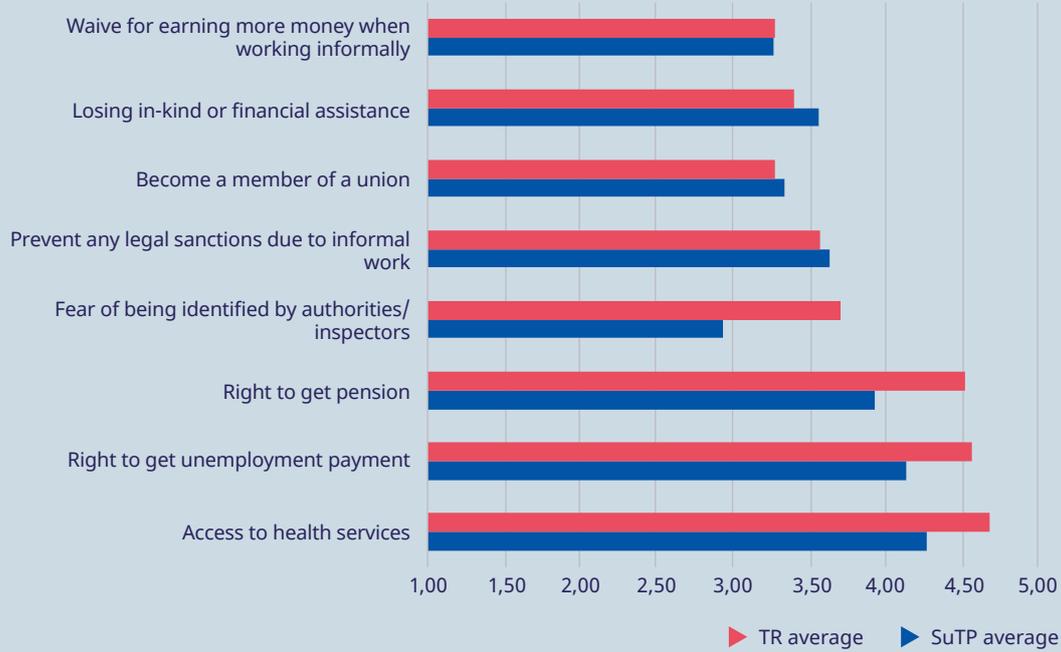
The model explored whether employment (dependent variable) is associated with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size, educational qualification, Turkish language proficiency, place of residence and desire to stay in Turkey in the long term.

- Gender is a significant factor in determining the employment status of a young person. A young (18-29) men is 16 per cent more likely to work compared to a young woman with the same age, nationality, and marital status characteristics.
- Young persons who are at 25-29 years of age are 23 per cent more likely to work compared to their peers at 18-24 age group with the same gender, nationality, and marital status attributes. Young people are thus more likely to assume breadwinner role as they get older.
- Youth living in larger households are less likely to work. An additional member in the household reduces a young man or woman's probability of employment by 3.5 per cent.
- Marital status does not have its own significant impact on employment. However, being married in a larger household with 5+ members significantly and sizably (34 per cent) reduce the probability of employment for a young person compared to a single person living alone.
- A person's desire to stay in Turkey in the long term or short term do not have a significant marginal effect on the person's current employment status.
- Nationality, education, provinces of residence, and time spent in Turkey are not significant factors affecting a young person's employment status. Put differently, individual characteristics pertaining to nationality (Syrian or Turkish), educational attainment level, provinces of residence (Istanbul, Southeastern Turkey or other provinces), or duration of stay in Turkey (from 0-6 months to since birth) do not have a significant marginal effect on a person's employment status. In addition, among Syrian youth, the model predicted no significant average marginal effect of Turkish language competency on employment status.

When asked about the degree of importance of major formal employment-related issues, actively working youth considered health service entitlement, unemployment benefits, and pension as very important or absolutely essential. Syrian youth regard fear of being identified by authorities relatively less than Turkish peers whilst Syrians equally value prevention of legal sanctions due to informal work.

⁶ Youth employment implies young persons who declared that they worked at least one hour in the past/reference week to earn cash or in-kind income.

► **Figure 15. Degree of importance attributed to formal employment issues by Turkish and Syrian youth**

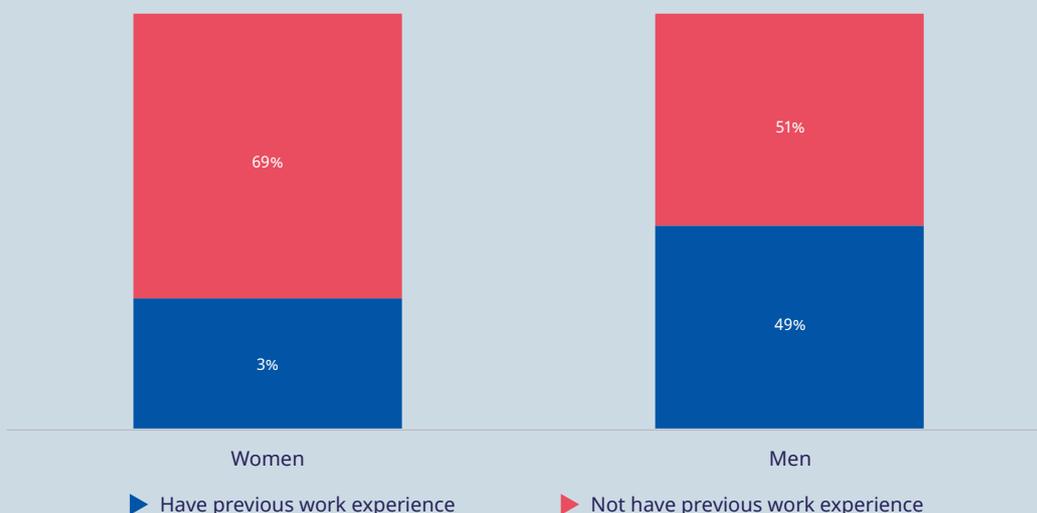


Note: The graph illustrates young active workers' attitudes towards selected issues related to formal employment. This question was asked only to active workers including formal and informal employment. The attributed importance was classified based on 5-point likert scale where 1 implied "not important at all" and 5 implied "absolutely necessary".

5.2.2. Previous work experience of those out of employment

More than one-third (38 per cent) of those who are not currently working had previous working experience representing 2.1 million young people. Women were higher compared to men among those who have never worked before.

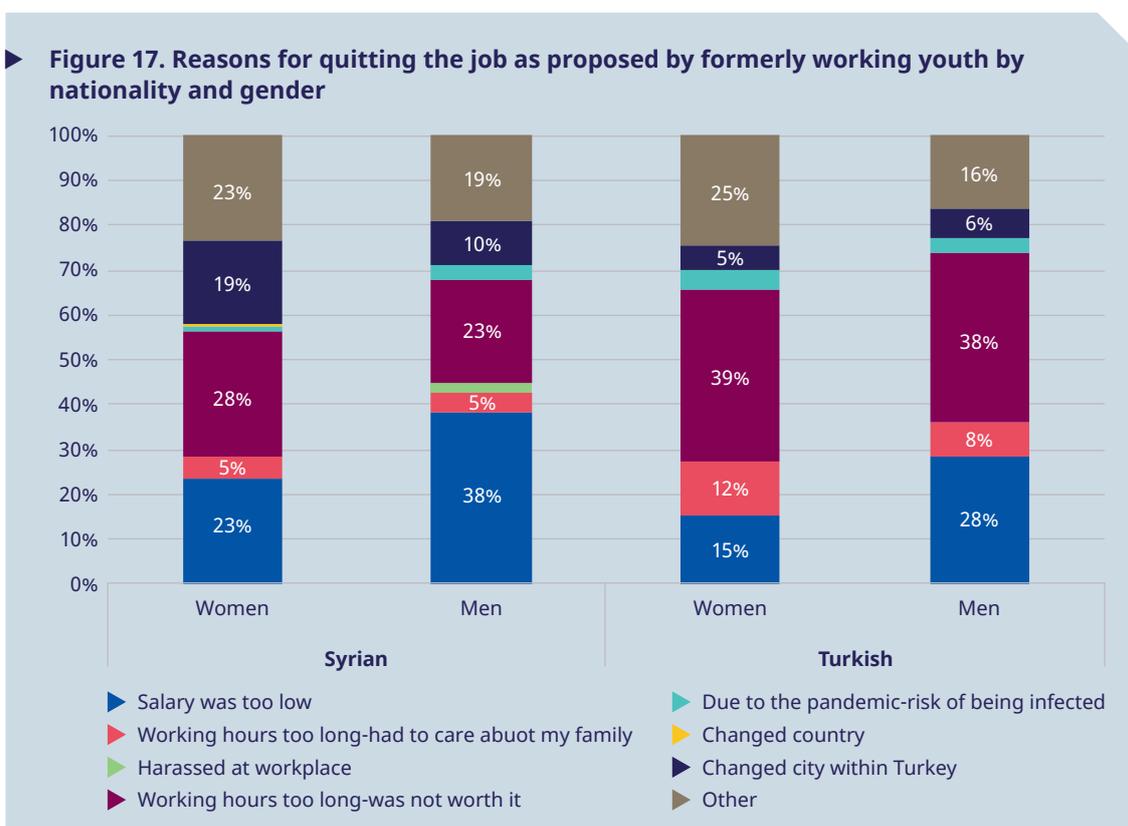
► **Figure 16. Previous work experience of young persons who are not currently working by gender**



Note: The graph illustrates the presence of previous work experience of young persons who are currently not working disaggregated by genders. Previous work experience information was collected only from those who are not currently working.

Majority (75 per cent) of those who had previous work experience quitted an employee job, while 17.5 per cent got fired or their contracts were not renewed. Previous own-account workers or employers (7 per cent) closed their own businesses. Percentage of those who closed their business is higher among men (12.6 per cent) compared to women (1.8 per cent) and higher among Syrians (11.6 per cent) compared to Turkish youth (7 per cent).

For those who quitted an employee job (representing 1.6 million people), major reasons were long working hours, low salary, changing the city of residence and emerging family responsibilities. Long working hours are cited more among Turkish youth while low salary and changing city within Turkey are other major reasons for Syrian youth. Whilst there are no sizeable gender differences, men cited low salary more than women. The “other” category also illustrates gendered results. Among women who cited “other” reasons, marriage (20 per cent), pregnancy and emerging childcare responsibilities (32 per cent), temporary nature of internship jobs (11 per cent) and resuming education (4 per cent) were main reasons for quitting a job. Among men who cited “other” reasons, resuming education (55 per cent), military service (5 per cent), and personal preference to discontinue (7 per cent) were main reasons for quitting their previous job.

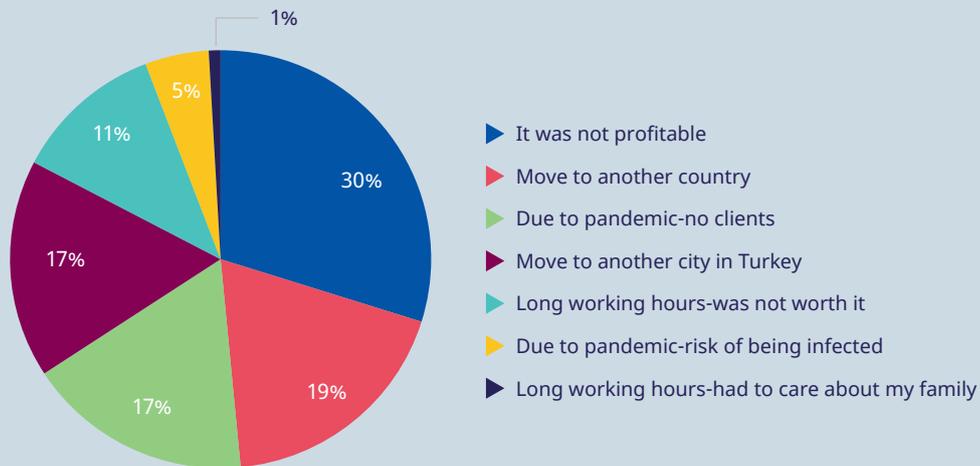


Note: The graph illustrates reasons for job quits for formerly working youth disaggregated by nationalities and genders. This question was asked only to those who discontinued their jobs by resignation.

For those who got fired from their previous jobs (representing 376 thousand people), major reasons were pandemic (44 per cent), emerging family responsibilities (17 per cent), poor relations with coworkers/manager (11 per cent), workplace closures (not pandemic-related) (11 per cent), and situation where enterprise hired a lower-paid substitute (11 per cent). Turkish youth were affected considerably more by emerging family responsibilities, pandemic, and poor relations with coworkers. Syrian youth cited workplace closures (not pandemic-related) considerably more than Turkish peers. In terms of genders, while 29 per cent of women cited emerging family responsibilities as a reason for quitting a job, this figure remains at 5 per cent among men.

For those who closed their own business (representing 155 thousand people), 22 per cent stated that the main reason was the pandemic (17 per cent having no clients and 5 per cent facing the risk of being infected) and 30 per cent stated that their previous business was not profitable. Other reasons for shutting down the business are moving to another city within Turkey (17 per cent), long and unworthy work hours (11 per cent), and changing the country of residence (19 per cent)

► **Figure 18. Reasons of business closure as proposed by youth formerly owning a business**



Note: The graph illustrates reasons behind business closures by those who formerly owned an enterprise. This question was asked only to those who declare to shut down their business.

► **Text box 2. Youth’s socio-economic situation as reported in KIIs**

Youth’s Socio-Economic Situation

Education

During the key informant interviews, experts emphasized that the main challenge for the Syrian youth is insufficient household income. This forces Syrian youth to participate in income generating activities to contribute to household income. Syrian youth are thus obliged to leave school as soon as convenient (hence avoid educational costs such as registration fee, transportation/stationary costs), seek job and work. It is imperative to capture Syrian youth within labour force statistics. Yet, the main survey findings suggests that 38 per cent of Syrians are NEET in contrast to 31 per cent among Turkish youth. The drivers behind young Syrian NEETs shall therefore be further scrutinized – moving beyond anecdotal evidence that key informants can offer.

Key informants stated that Turkish tertiary degree holders are more likely to be unemployed and that Syrian youth are unemployed irrespective of their educational attainment level. The main survey, likewise, suggested that there is no significant association between educational qualification and employment (Figure 8) and that the perceived reasons of youth unemployment include Turkey’s economic conditions (23 per cent), lower-than-expected salaries offered (21 per cent), not having a reference/acquaintance to help find a job (15 per cent), and inadequate previous work experience (7 per cent) (See Fig. 32). Key informants also emphasized that Syrian and Turkish young people are aware that education does not guarantee to find a job in Turkey. Hence, many Turkish and Syrian youth aim to find a job as soon as possible at the expense of dropping out from formal education. A key informant underlined that *“Is it a better career path for a young person to enter a university or becoming a blue-collar worker in the industry? No disparity between Syrian refugees and Turkish youth: preferring a blue-collar work in the industry over university degree offers a much better career prospect. Higher education does not create any additional value in participating in the labour market unless graduating from the top 5 universities in Turkey.”*

Key informants highlighted that Syrian youth run into difficulty in finding jobs that match their skills or education, because of not having a diploma equivalency certificate or the loss of the original diploma. The skills mismatch hampers the desire to work, sense of belonging to the job, and permanence in the jobs among Syrian youth.

The skills mismatch hampers the desire to work, sense of belonging to the job, and permanence in the jobs among Syrian youth.

Interviewees underlined that perceived discrimination⁷ is a strong negative effect for disengagement from education and from social life. Discrimination usually affects a wider audience than the immediate target person, because they are directly or indirectly witnessed by others. As defined under ILO Convention No. 111, discrimination is any distinction, exclusion or preference made on the basis of race, colour, sex, religion, political opinion, national extraction or social origin (among other characteristics), which has the effect of nullifying or impairing equality of opportunity and treatment in employment or occupation. The main survey found out that 72 per cent of youth who currently works, previously worked or seeking a job faced harassment or discrimination during their labour market journey (also see Annex Table 4).

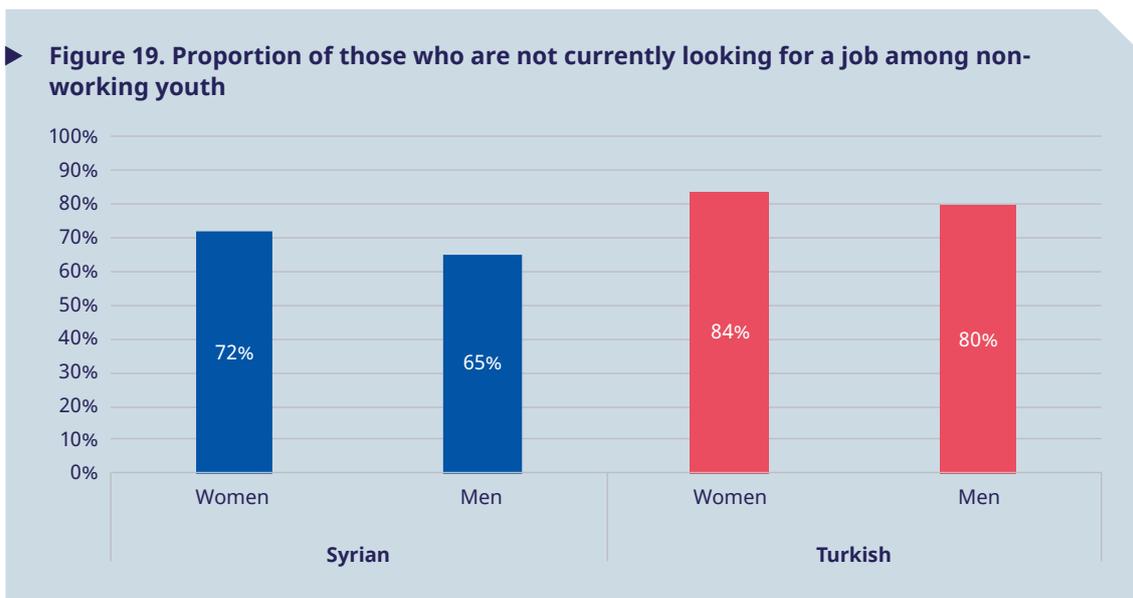
There is a wide range of skills development programmes delivered by public authorities (İŞKUR and MONE) in addition to non-governmental organizations targeting both host and refugee communities. Most of these courses offer daily cash allowances for the beneficiaries. Key informants reported that Syrian youth did not attend training courses that aimed to gear them for work opportunities if subsistence given to Syrian youth as part of the course was cut. Some key informants reported that subsistence given as part of courses was misinterpreted by beneficiaries/trainees – leading to training attendance conditional upon the receipt of daily cash allowance. Key informants claimed some Syrian youth has become “professional trainees”, and courses were seen as a way to generate income rather than building skills. Interviewees underlined that Syrian youth become beneficiaries in multiple projects at the same time – generating a considerable daily amount serving as a livelihood for themselves. Because of the beneficiaries’ misguided intent, vocational or language courses hardly to build permanent skills for the beneficiaries. Notwithstanding, the main survey suggests that a limited proportion of Syrian young refugees (22.3 per cent) attend skills development courses as of the fourth quarter of 2021.

The survey revealed that 45 per cent of Syrian youth speak Turkish language at B1 or higher level. The language barrier was one of the issues almost all key informants mentioned. From Syrian youth’s access to work opportunities to education and integration, language was reported to be a significant barrier for Syrian youth. Key informants claimed that this was caused by Syrian youth’s feeling of being temporary in Turkey. Further, interviewees claimed that this feeling has caused Syrian youth to form their communities in Turkey disconnected from the rest of the people.

⁷ See ILO (2019) for definition of discrimination at the workplace.

5.2.3. Inactive youth

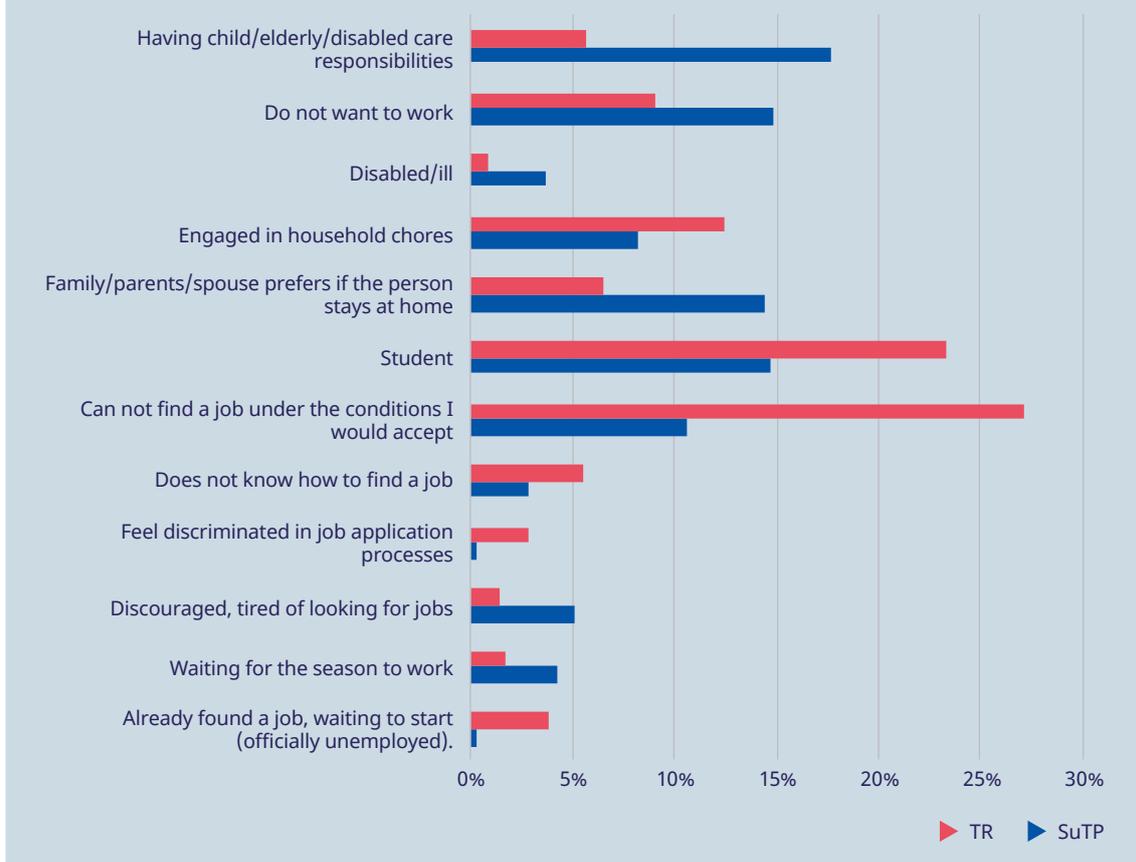
According to the main survey, 81.6 per cent of those who are not currently working (corresponding to 4.6 million people) has not been actively looking for a job within the last 4 weeks, ranging from 82.5 per cent among Turkish to 70 per cent among Syrian youth. Majority of the inactive are women: 61 per cent among Turkish inactive youth and 74 per cent among Syrian inactive youth. 82 per cent of NEETs is also not looking for a job. Majority of the inactive youth are secondary degree holders (42.9 per cent) followed by below-secondary degree holders (40.9 per cent) and tertiary degree holders (16.6 per cent).



Note: The graph illustrates inactivity among the youth who are not currently in employment. The question was asked as follows: "Have you looked for a job or made an effort to start your own business in the last four weeks?" This question was asked to those who declare that they are not currently working.

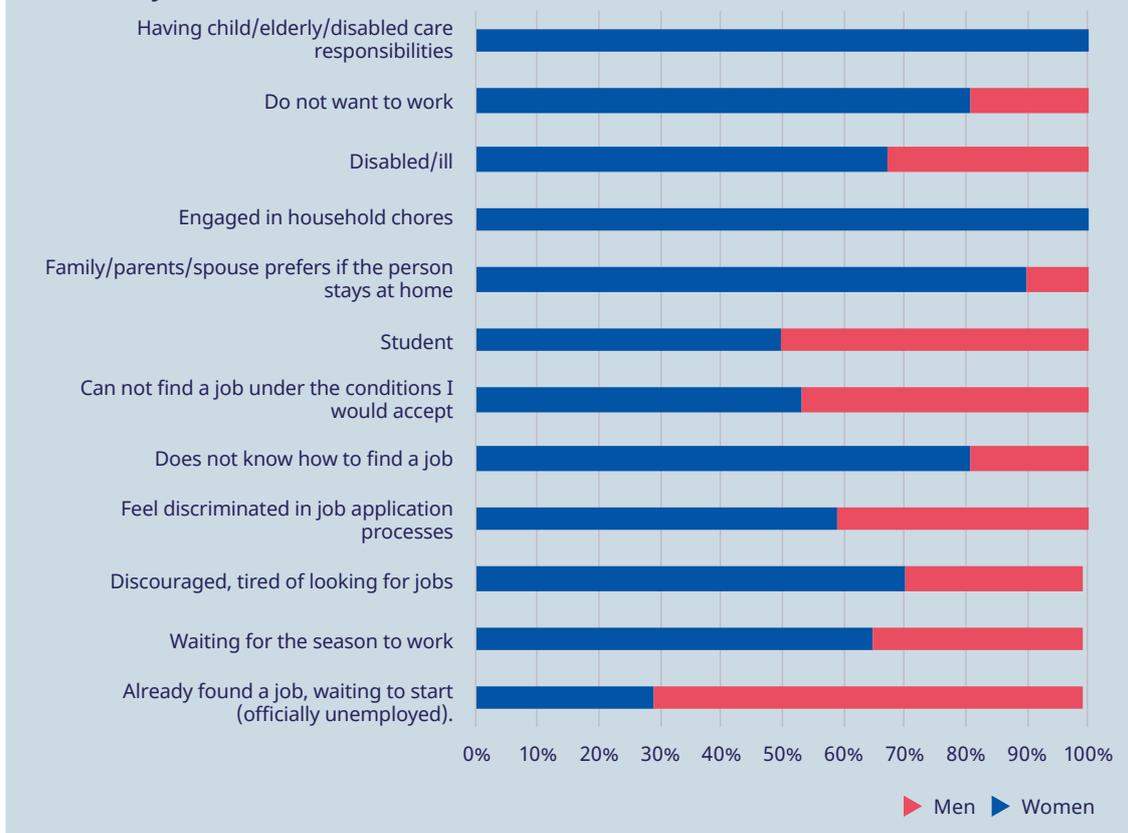
For the inactive youth, primary reasons for not looking for a job are (1) mismatch in the conditions of the jobs offered and sought (26 per cent), (2) being a student (23 per cent), (3) household chores (12 per cent). Women are considerably over-represented among those expressing care responsibilities, household chores, family's preference to keep him/her at home, reluctance to work and not knowing how to find a job as primary reasons of not seeking a job. Among Turkish youth, the mismatch in the conditions of the jobs offered and sought and being student are considerably higher compared to their Syrian peers. Reluctance to work, care responsibilities, family's preference for inactivity are considerably higher for Syrian youth compared to their Turkish peers.

► **Figure 20. Reasons of not looking for a job as indicated by inactive youth by nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates reasons of inactivity among the youth who are not actively seeking a job. This is a multiple response question documenting all reasons that apply for an individual.

► **Figure 21. Gender disaggregation of the reasons of not looking for a job as indicated by inactive youth**

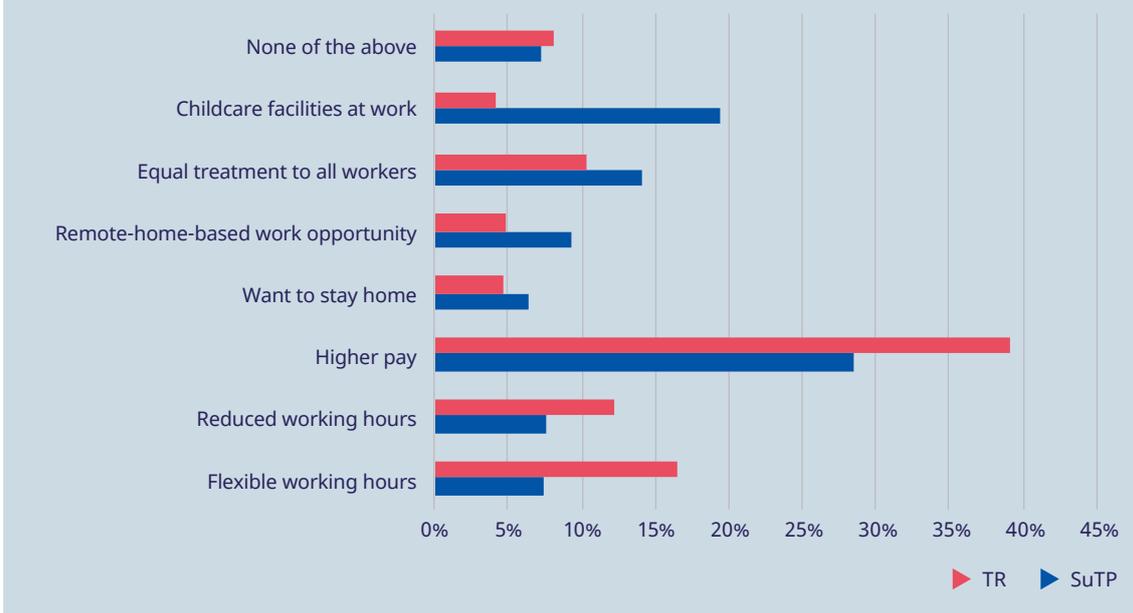


Note: The graph illustrates reasons of inactivity by genders. The graph seeks to highlight gendered patterns of specific inactivity motivations such as care responsibilities and relatives' pressure to stay at home.

Among inactive young workers (who are neither working nor seeking a job) 7.7 per cent reported that they have been discriminated during the job search process. Those who have been discriminated are higher among Syrians (16.4 per cent) while the proportion is 6.9 per cent for Turkish youth. Women report discrimination more frequently (54.6 per cent) than men (45.4 per cent). Details about the incidence and narratives of discrimination are reported in Section 6.5. "Preferred working conditions".

Those who are not actively looking for a job (representing 4.6 million people) declare that they would accept a job offer if offered a higher pay (39 per cent), flexible working hours (16 per cent), reduced working hours (12 per cent), and equal treatment to all workers (11 per cent). Higher pay increases the opportunity cost of staying inactive and for example engaging in care responsibilities and household chores at home. Pursuit of higher wages should be interpreted as young person's individual economic rationale for activation and not simply a personal appetite. Higher pay, flexible working hours and reduced working hours are favoured more among Turkish youth. Childcare facilities at work, equal treatment of all workers and remote work are favoured more by Syrian youth compared to their Turkish peers. Those who prefer to stay home and seek childcare facilities at the workplace to accept a job consist of young women entirely – pointing out to gendered dimension of inactivity and childcare responsibility.

► **Figure 22. Preferred conditions for accepting a job offer for inactive youth**

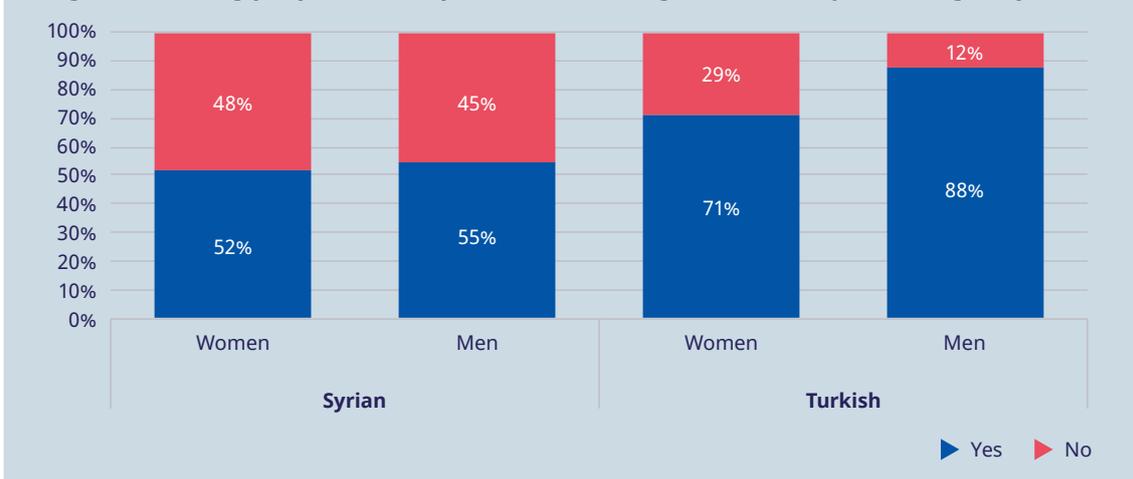


Note: The graph illustrates preferred conditions for accepting a job. The question is only asked to young people who are not actively seeking a job to understand potential motivations for activation. The question was asked as follows: "You are not looking for a job; but what conditions would you look for to accept a job?"

Among the inactive youth (representing 4.6 million people), 75.9 per cent believe that they have necessary skills for getting employed. The percentage decreases to 69.5 per cent for women, while it is 86.2 per cent for men. Proportion of inactive Syrians who believe that they have necessary skills for getting a job (52.6 per cent) is less than inactive Turkish youth (77.6 per cent). The percentage of those who report to have necessary skills for getting job is lower among inactive Syrian women (51.9 per cent) than their inactive men peers (54.6 per cent).

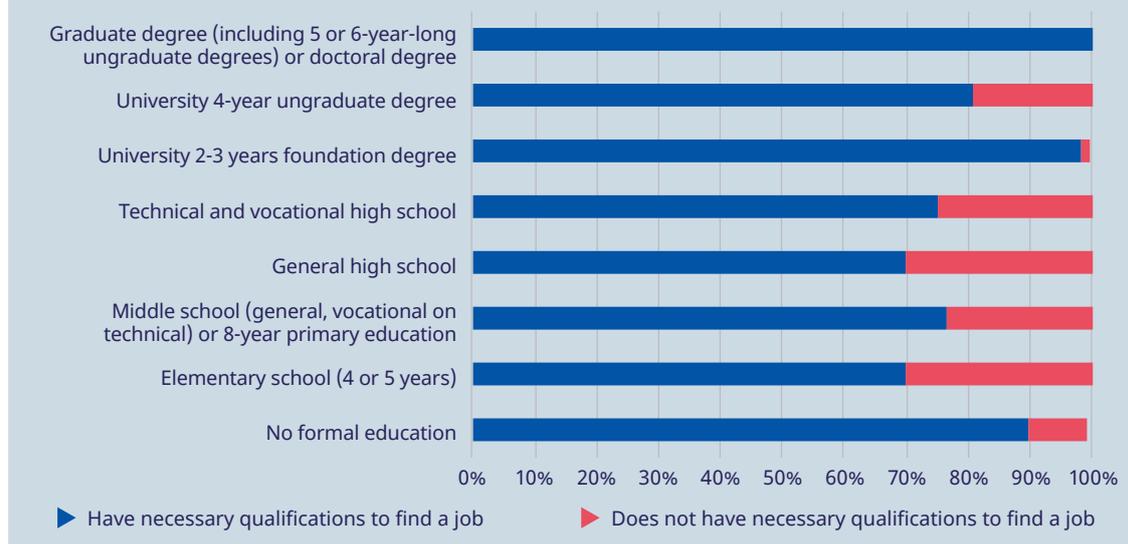
Graduate degree holders, university foundation degree holders and interestingly those with no formal educational attainment declares that they have necessary skills to get a job. Around a quarter of high school, middle school and elementary school graduates think they are underskilled for getting a job.

► **Figure 23. Young people's self-expression for having the necessary skills to get a job**



Note: The graph illustrates young inactive people's self-expressions regarding their adequacy of skills to get a job. The question is asked only to inactive youth to understand how they regard their skills adequacy as a starting point for propensity to attend skills development programmes.

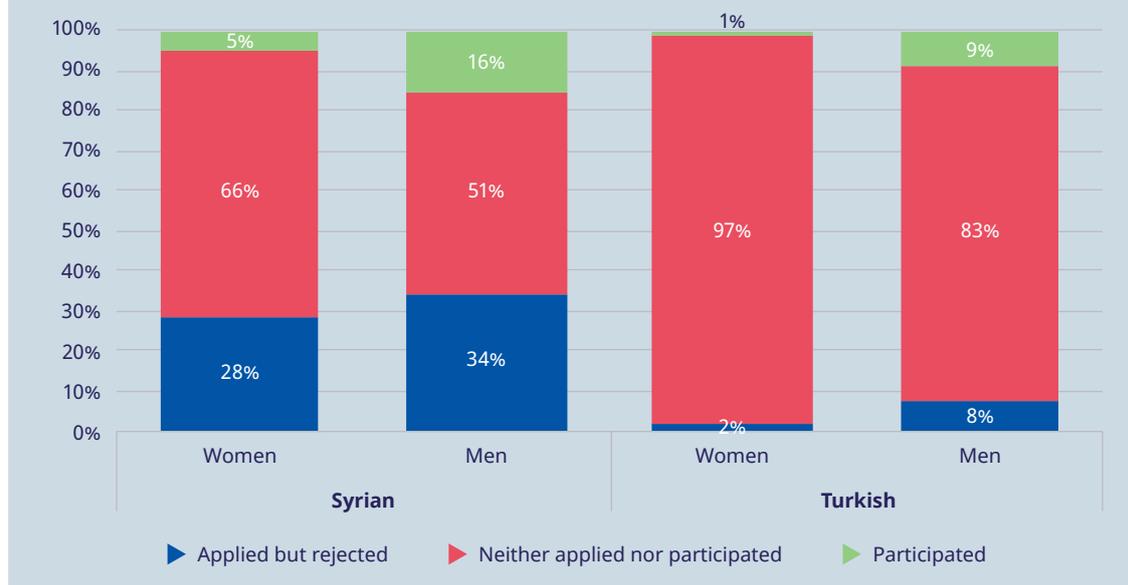
► **Figure 24. Having necessary skills (as declared by the respondents) to find a job by educational attainment level**



Note: The graph illustrates young inactive people's self-expressions regarding their adequacy of skills to get a job disaggregated by their educational attainment level. The graph sheds light on higher incidence of perceived skills-shortage among youth with relatively lower educational attainment with the stark exception of those with no formal education.

Amongst inactive young people who believe that they do not have necessary skills for getting employed (representing 1.1 million people), the vast majority (90.8 per cent) have neither applied nor participated in a skills development course, while 6 per cent applied but rejected and only 3.2 per cent participated to courses. Level of rejection is much higher for Syrian applicants (29.8 per cent) compared to Turkish applicants (3 per cent). Rejection of Syrian men applicants (33.8 per cent) are higher compared to Syrian women applicants (28.4 per cent). Level of interest amongst Syrian youth are higher compared to Turkish youth, especially among Syrian young men. While 94.5 per cent of the inactive Turkish youth who believe that they have necessary skills for getting employed neither applied nor participated to any skills development course, this percentage decreases to 62.2 per cent for Syrians. Level of interest amongst Turkish women are much lower compared to Turkish men and Syrian youth in general.

► **Figure 25. Participation to skills development courses by inactive youth**



Note: The graph illustrates inactive youth's participation to skills development courses by nationalities and genders. This question was asked only to those who declare that they do not have necessary skills for being employed (representing 1.1 million people).

To explain the non-participation to skills development opportunities, young people mentioned that (i) they did not have sufficient proficiency of Turkish (among young Syrians), (ii) they did not feel the need to apply and take part in a skills-building training, (iii) they were not aware of such opportunities, or (iv) they were preoccupied with household chores or their formal education. Half of those who have participated in training were Syrian (47 per cent) most of which attended lifelong learning programmes (LLP) of the Ministry of National Education (i.e. “Halk Eğitim Merkezleri”) (68 per cent) and İŞKUR on-the-job training schemes (15 per cent). The other half, composed of Turkish youth, attended İŞKUR on-the-job training schemes (56 per cent), LLP programmes (25 per cent) and international organization-led skills-building programmes (18 per cent).

► **Text box 3. Syrian women’s socioeconomic reality, experiences and expectations in the labour market**

Syrian women’s socio-economic reality, their experiences, and expectations in the labour market

The key informants from Turkey’s different regions emphasized that cultural factors keep Syrian women out of learning, skill building and work opportunities. The experts reported that, on average, Syrian households’ size is larger and households’ main care-givers are young Syrian women. Main care-giver role is also attributed to Turkish women. Hence, household chores are one of the factors that have kept young Syrian and Turkish women out of the workforce. In the main survey, a quarter of the young men and women (27 per cent) in the main survey agree or strongly agree that household chores are under women’s responsibility. Combined with the reported trend of early marriages women are further distanced from education and work according to key informants. As the main survey shows, a young (18-29) men is 16 per cent more likely to work compared to a young woman with the same age, nationality, and marital status characteristics.

Childcare facilities have an important role for Syrian women to participate in working life. There is not enough child-care facilities and some key informants reported Syrian women’s distrust towards childcare facilities. For Turkish and Syrian women to participate in the labour force, childcare facilities must be free, accessible and reliable. Syrian women’s reservations about childcare centers concern the possibility of their children being discriminated against or bullied by teachers and other students, difficulties in communicating with teachers due to language barriers, and problems in communication with peers.

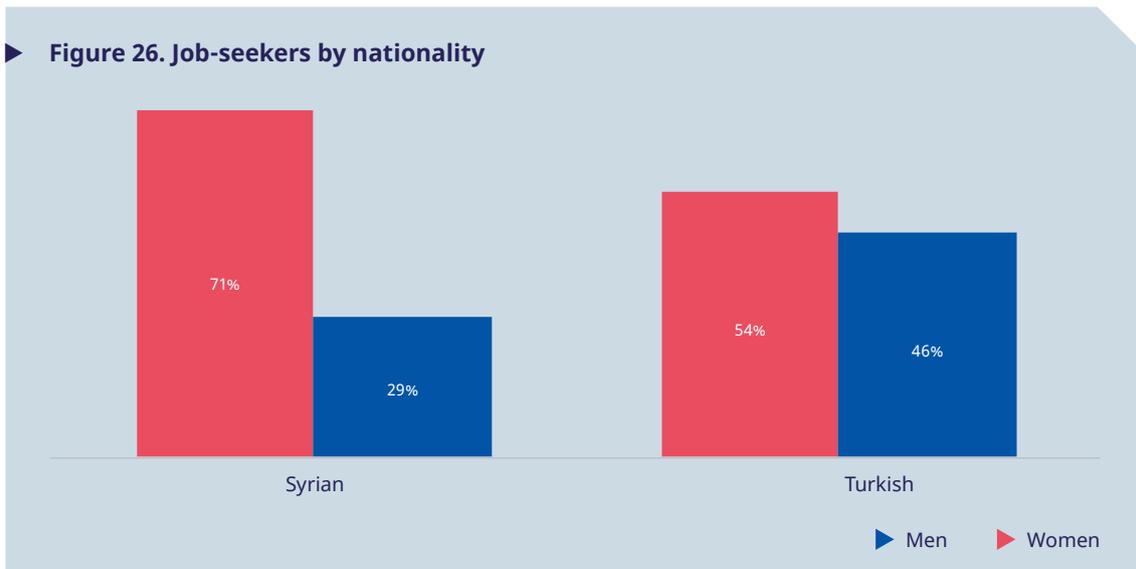
Young Syrian women’s propensity to work is also shaped by their maternity status. The interviewed experts noted that mothers are occasionally more enthusiastic in their job search. An important reason for this is that if mothers do not work, their older children would have to work – pointing out to mothers’ motivations to prevent child labour.

As part of a more significant trend in Turkey, some key informants reported that Syrian women prefer white-collar jobs. Currently, however, there is significant Syrian women labour participation in sectors like textile. Some key informants reported that Syrian women did not feel comfortable working with men colleagues. For this reason, Syrian women’s sector preferences are restrained to specific sectors such as textile, child-care, and office work. Indeed, employers in these sectors occasionally prefer Syrian women rather than men because of their work discipline and loyalty. The anecdotal evidence underlined however that despite high demand, Syrian women tend to turn down working in some sectors with sizeable workforce growth recently such as delivery services in Istanbul, for instance. A reason for this might be the higher likelihood of facing a discrimination or harassment related challenges in the labour market for women in Istanbul compared to other provinces (Annex Table 4).

As part of a more significant trend among Syrian workers, some key informants reported that informal employment further exposed Syrian women towards harassment in the workplace. The logistic regressions using the main survey data did not find insurance to be a predictor of harassment and discrimination-related challenges in the labour market, however.

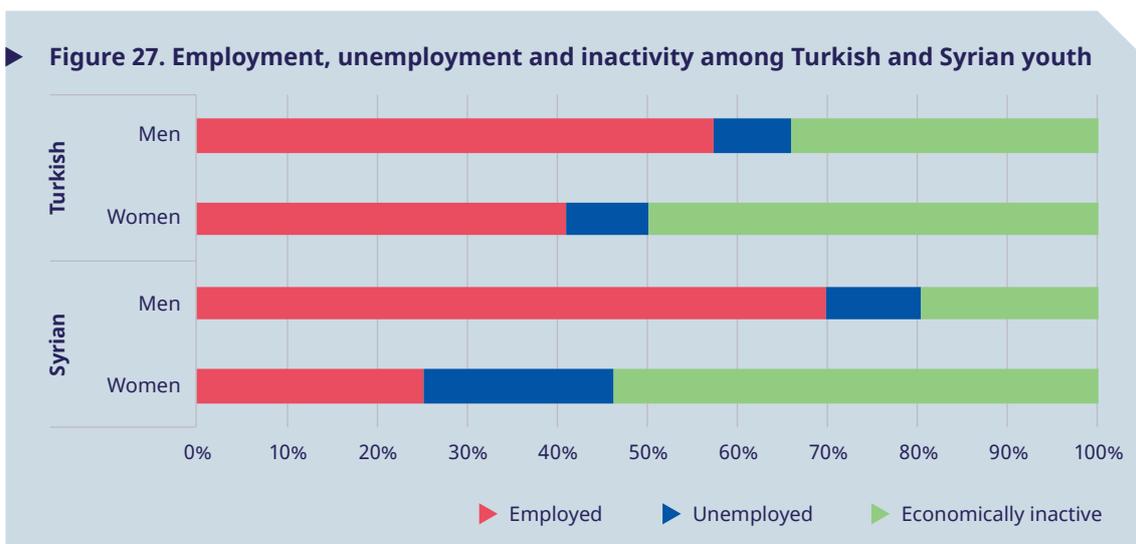
5.2.4. Unemployed youth

According to the main survey, 18.3 per cent of those who are not currently working has been actively looking for a job within the last 4 weeks ranging from 17.4 per cent among Turkish to 29.2 per cent among Syrian youth. Job-seekers (representing 1 million people) are mostly women: 54 per cent among Turkish and 71 per cent among Syrian job-seekers.



Note: The graph illustrates jobseekers disaggregated by nationalities with gender disaggregation within the groups. The question was asked to those who declare that they are not currently working representing 5.6 million people.

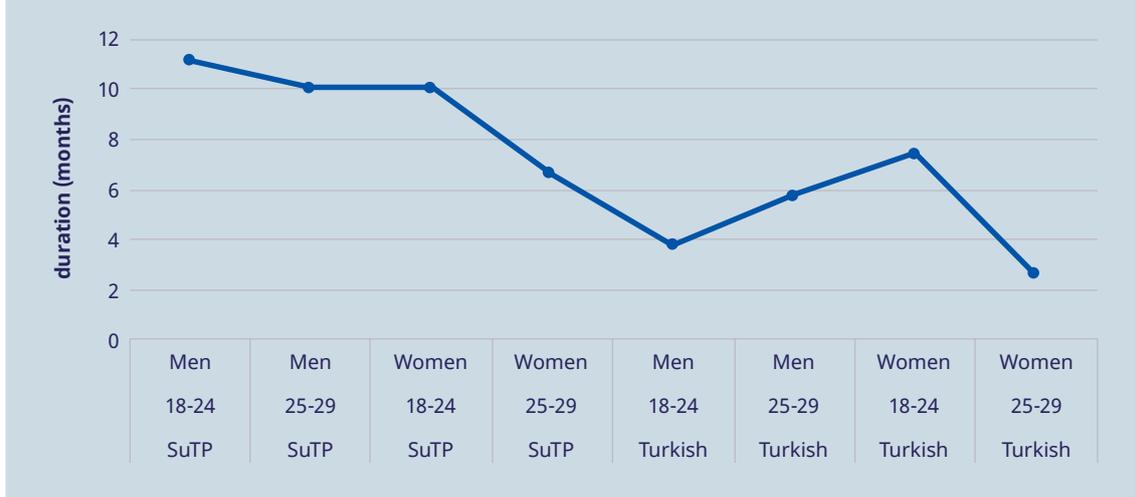
Unemployment rate stands at 16.1 per cent ranging from 12.9 per cent among Turkish and Syrian men to 18.5 per cent among Turkish women and 45.3 per cent among Syrian women.



Note: The graph illustrates labour force status among youth (overall representing 10.9 million people). This graph gives an overall picture of youth labour market disaggregated by nationalities and genders. This graph compiles information from two different questions asking the employment status and job seeking status.

Unemployed youth (representing 1 million people) have been looking for jobs on average for 5.6 months. Average job search duration is higher among Syrians (9.4 months on average; peaking at 10.3 among Syrians at ages 18-24) compared to Turkish youth (5 months on average).

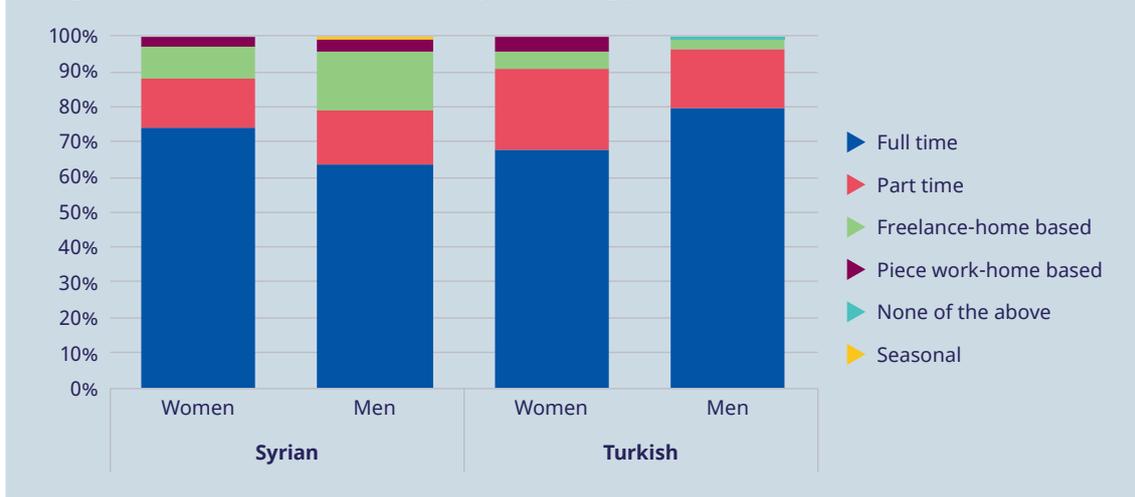
► **Figure 28. Average duration of job search for job-seekers**



Note: The graph illustrates average duration of job search for job-seeking unemployed youth. This question is only asked to those who declare that they have been looking for a job in the last four weeks.

Over two-thirds (73 per cent) of job-seeking youth reported that they would prefer full-time jobs, while 19.3 per cent preferred part-time and 5 per cent preferred freelance-home based, 2.3 per cent piece work - home based works and less than 1 per cent seasonal work.

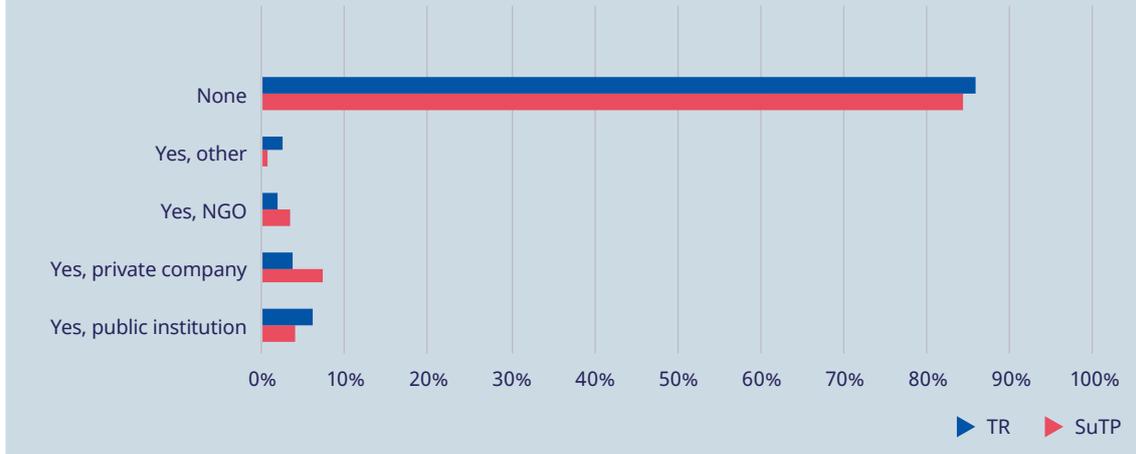
► **Figure 29. Preferred type of jobs for job-seeking youth**



Note: The graph illustrates young job-seekers' preferred type of jobs disaggregated by nationalities and genders. The question was asked as follows: "What kind of job would you prefer to work in?" to job-seekers representing 1 million people.

In terms of the support received from public and non-public employment service providers, 86 per cent of the youth that are not in employment (including those who are actively looking for jobs and inactive youth) have not received any job intermediation support from public, private or non-governmental entities. Merely 6 per cent mentioned public service providers and 4 per cent received a private company's support in finding a job or skills-building opportunity. No significant discrepancy across nationalities was observed.

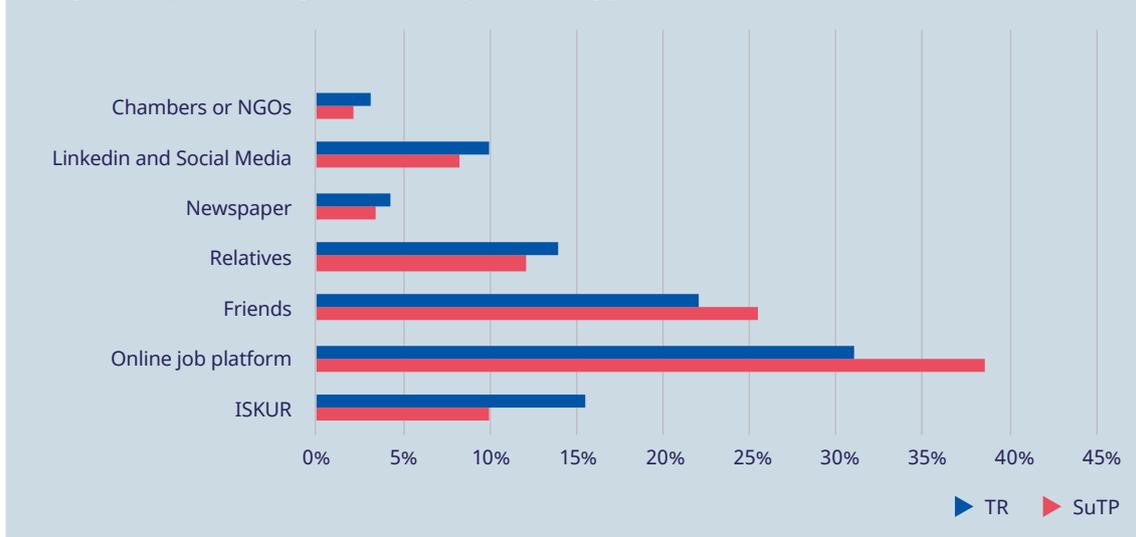
► **Figure 30. Support received from governmental institutions, private companies or NGOs by job-seekers**



Note: The graph illustrates the activation support received by young people who are not in employment including job-seekers and inactive youth. The question was asked as follows: "Has a public, private, or a non-governmental organization helped you find a job or skills development program?"

Job seeking channels are diverse: Friends and relatives (36 per cent), online job platforms (32 per cent), ISKUR (15 per cent), and LinkedIn and social media (10 per cent) rank highest. Friends and online job platforms are more popular among Syrian youth than Turkish youth. Young women are overrepresented among those seeking job through ISKUR (68 per cent) and online job platforms (58 per cent), social media (59 per cent).

► **Figure 31. Job-seeking channels of job-seeking youth**

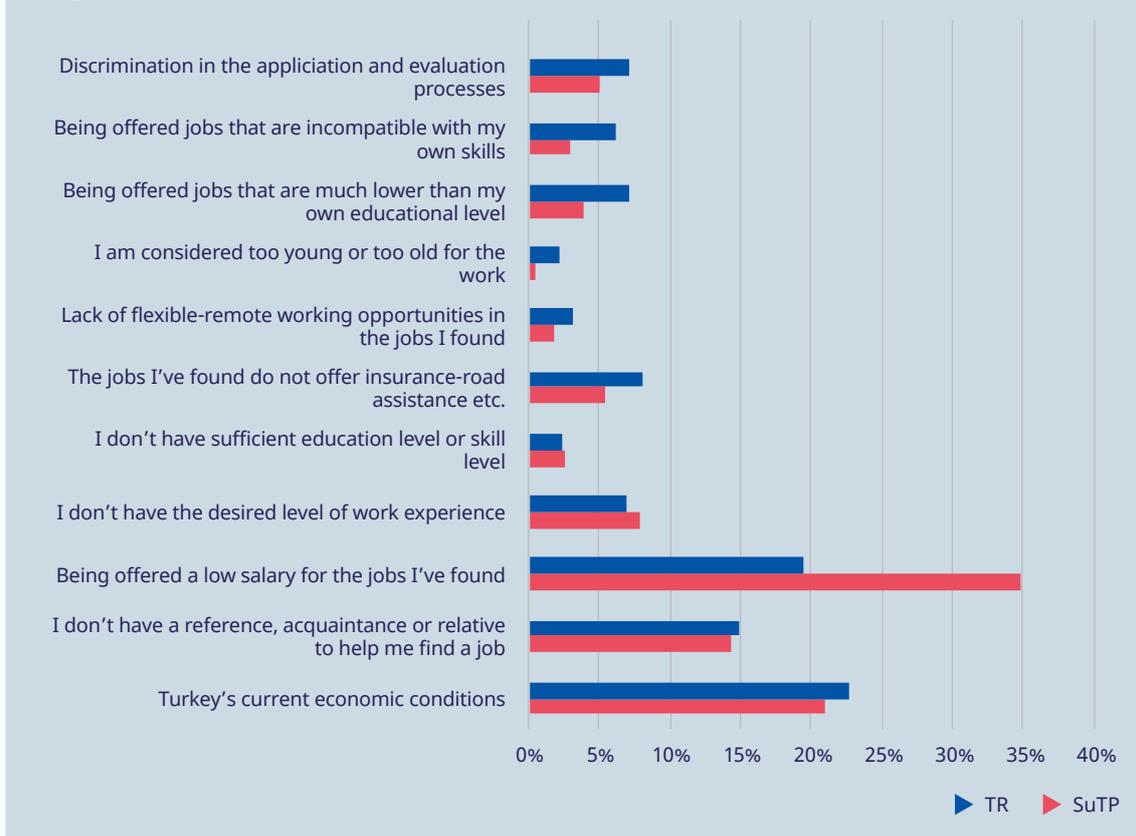


Note: The graph illustrates the job-seeking channels used by young people who are not in employment including job-seekers and inactive youth. Young inactive respondents who declare not to actively look for a job would be expected to skip this question. However, this graph also includes job-seeking channels of inactive young people who responded to this question.

For the unemployed and inactive youth, the reasons why they cannot find a job include Turkey's economic conditions (23 per cent), lower-than-expected salaries offered (21 per cent), not having a reference/acquaintance to help find a job (15 per cent), and inadequate previous work experience (7 per cent). Structural macroeconomic constraints affect labour demand, wages, labour intermediation/job finding patterns and thus young people's ability to gain first job experience. Turkish and Syrian youth perceive structural constraints as primary reasons for not being able to find a job.

Salaries that are below the expectations are perceived as a more acute reason for not being able to find a job among Syrian youth. In terms of gender disaggregation, women are more likely to indicate lack of flexible job opportunities (87 per cent), discrimination (60 per cent), lack of fringe benefits (60 per cent), being offered jobs inferior to qualifications held (54 per cent), and Turkey's economic conditions (53 per cent) as main reasons for failing to find a job.

► **Figure 32. Main reasons for not being able to find a job as indicated by job seekers**



Note: The graph illustrates main reasons for not being able to find a job for young people who are not-in-employment. The graph seeks to shed light on youth's perceived reasons of exclusion.

► **Text box 4. Experiences, needs, and expectations in the labour market**

Experiences, Needs, and Expectations in the Labour Market

In our key informant interviews, public employment service (PES) providers reported that one of the most pressing issues regarding Syrian youth in the labour market has been working without a work permit. Informal workers cannot be provided with monitoring and job counseling services by the job counselors because of the discrepancy between their actual work pattern and status in the formal employment records. While TurkStat HLFs and other relevant surveys, including the present survey, can capture the data of informal workers, there are legal barriers that hinder employment service providers to serve informal workers. The inadequacy of inter-institutional data sharing has also been mentioned as a challenge by local public policymakers vis-à-vis developing policies towards Syrian young informal workers.

On work permits, key informants reported varying processing times. For example, a similar work permit application could be processed in under a month or more than six months – although there are pre-determined criteria of work permit applications in Turkey. The Directorate General for International Labour Force (DGILF) stated that it has not been legally possible to delay the application (except for the first COVID-19 lockdown period) and reject the application without reason. Notwithstanding, interviewees also reported ambiguous work permit rejections from authorities. Interviewees stated that there have been several improvements in the last 5 to 6 years but no major changes were realized in work permit regulations. Combined with a potential preference to work informally among Syrian youth, informal labour has become endemic. The main survey states that the proportion of the Turkish workers who have insurance (84.8 per cent) is much higher compared to Syrian workers (28.7 per cent). The interviews suggested that the economic reason why Syrian youth prefer informal work is the financial assistance Syrian youth receive from various institutions, most of which are conditional upon being not in employment. Interviewees noted that many Syrian youth and their families are afraid that after getting the work permit or transition to formal work, the aid they receive from institutions will be cut off. On the other hand, the main survey states that the degree of importance of major issues related to formal employment; health service entitlement, unemployment benefits, and pension is more significant than losing in-kind or financial assistance (Figure 13).

As formal work is closely connected with retirement and pension schemes, Syrian youth's view of retirement affects their formal employment approach. Interviewees reported that most Syrian youth did not plan on retiring for two reasons: (1) lack of information about retirement conditions, (2) ambiguity of their permanence in the country which would make sense for them to invest in the retirement ages. In that vein, the main survey showed that insurance was not a statistically significant predictor of long-term permanence in the country (Annex Table 3).

Some key informants mentioned high entrepreneurship rates among Syrian youth, compared to Turkish youth. As the main survey suggests, the proportion of those who have their own account work is slightly higher among Syrians (11.2 per cent) than Turkish (6.8 per cent) youth (Figure 9). Interviewed experts stated that Syrians tend to start their own business instead of working outside due to non-preferable working conditions, low salary, discrimination at an employee status.

Key informants also reported on different work cultures between Turkish and Syrian youth. One of the issues stated by the key informants is that Syrians are not used to working in 9-to-5 jobs, are taking breaks very often while working and being late for work. Interviewed experts also noticed that Syrians are in the process of getting used to the working culture in Turkey. In addition, the main survey also showed different priorities of Syrian and Turkish youth's expectation of working conditions. The main survey reported that higher pay, flexible working hours and reduced working hours are favoured more among Turkish youth. Childcare facilities at work, equal treatment of all workers and remote work are favoured more by Syrian youth compared to their Turkish peers.

Key informants also reported that Syrian youth, like Turkish youth, prefer white-collar jobs. As claimed, Syrian youth's resistance is lower towards blue-collar jobs because of their dire need for livelihoods. Interviewees also mentioned that because of cultural and language barriers, Syrian

youth prefer hiring Syrian youth, and Turkish youth prefer hiring Turkish youth. Some informants also reported on discriminatory layoff practices during the pandemic. In the main survey, for those who got fired from their previous jobs, major reasons were pandemic (44 per cent), emerging family responsibilities (17 per cent), poor relations with coworkers/manager (11 per cent), workplace closures (not pandemic-related) (11 per cent), and situation where enterprise hired a lower-paid substitute (11 per cent). Those who cited discrimination as a reason of getting fired from their previous jobs were only 2.7 per cent. Interviewees claimed Syrian youth were overwhelmingly more likely to be fired because of conditions created by the pandemic. The main survey confirms this claim: 15.6 per cent of Syrians lost their jobs due to the pandemic while this figure is only 6.1 per cent among Turkish youth.

One of the issues that our KIIs collected conflicting views was the issue of the payments: While some interviewed experts claimed that Syrian youth made less than Turkish youth for the same labour, others argued there was no difference between the two communities. It is also claimed that Syrian youth earned even more than Turkish youth in some sectors, namely shoemaking, because of their experience with handcraft. The main survey also found that Syrian monthly workers on average earn more than Turkish monthly workers, those who earn more than 5000 TL is higher for Syrians (18 per cent) compared to Turkish workers (7 per cent).

Working Conditions

Key informants noted that large-scale companies care about the rights of Syrians to avoid authorities' inspections, but since the small-scale business might care less about statutory regulations, Syrian employees are expected to work longer hours for low wages. The main survey showed that average working hours per week is longer for Syrians (59 hours per week in general, 63 for Syrian men workers and 49 for Syrian women workers), while it is 46 for Turkish workers with no gender disparity. Turkey's statutory regulation (Law no. 4857) limits the weekly working hours to 45 – beyond which shall be considered overtime work.

Finding Jobs

Key informants stated that both Turkish and Syrian youth find jobs primarily through acquaintances. Syrian youth are limited in reaching out to jobs due to language barriers in terms of employment agencies and accessing job postings in the media. Syrian employees focus more on specific sectors such as welding, textile, packaging, machinery, electrical fields coming forward as permanent and guaranteed business areas. Anecdotal evidence suggests that Syrian youth are inclined to be long-term employees in these sectors. Notwithstanding, to be formally recruited, Syrian refugee youth must wait at the entry because of the work permit requirement whilst Turkish citizens can enter employment directly.

Local Authorities and Projects

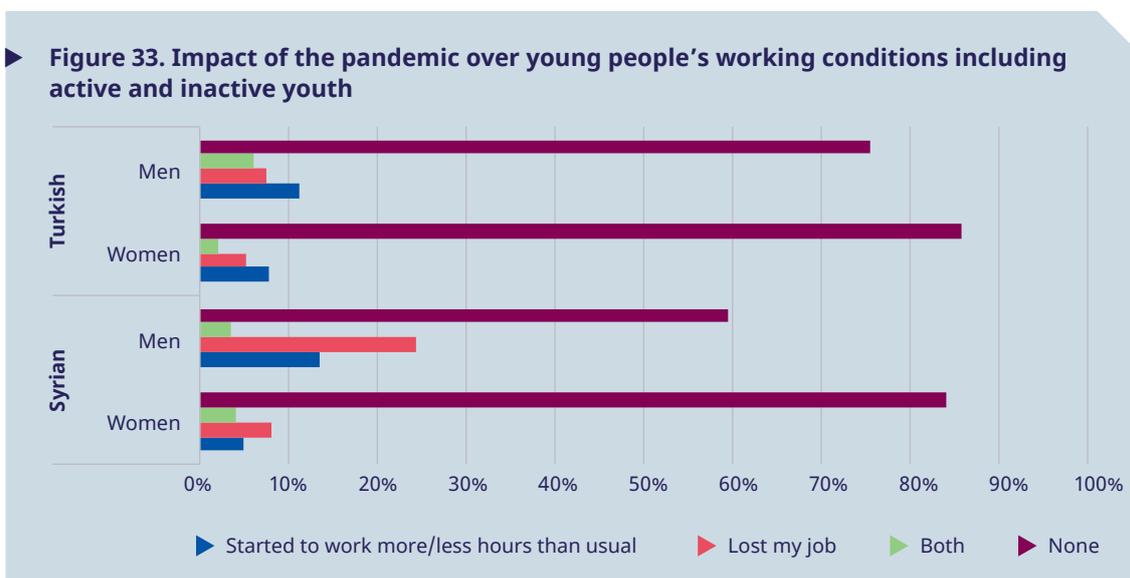
Municipalities working with refugees emphasized that they generally provide in-kind assistance (furniture, stationary, etc.) with no defined follow-up or conditionality mechanisms such as attendance to the formal or non-formal education of Syrian youth.

Key informants highlighted that many of the vocational training courses appeal to the same sectors. Interviewed experts stated that mapping the skills and identifying the need in the labour market is an important exercise, but it is useless unless it informs policymaking. A considerable share of refugees has taken and completed vocational training courses, having at least 7-8 certificates, but still have not been able to find a job. The reason lies under the mismatch between what the economy needs and where the refugee labour is being trained.

The limited social impact and employment outcomes of the livelihoods projects including vocational education trainings can be attributed to inadequate coordination between institutions. Key informants (researchers and academics) underlined the need to improve coordination between service provider institutions and policy-makers.

5.2.5. Impacts of the pandemic

Significant majority (80 per cent) of the youth (10.9 million people including workers, inactive and unemployed) perceived no changes in their working conditions due to the pandemic. Some (6.8 per cent) stated that they lost their jobs, started to work more or less hours than usual (9.3 per cent) or experienced both situations at the same time (3.8 per cent). Syrian men were the most acutely affected group in terms of job losses and changing working hours. Those who lost their jobs have been unemployed for 9 months on average. Those who reduced working hours have underworked for 7 months. Those who increased working hours have overworked for 4.4 months on average. Those who declare that they were affected from the pandemic have worked 32.3 hours per week⁸, considerably lower than the average 46.8 hours of work per week for the overall youth population.

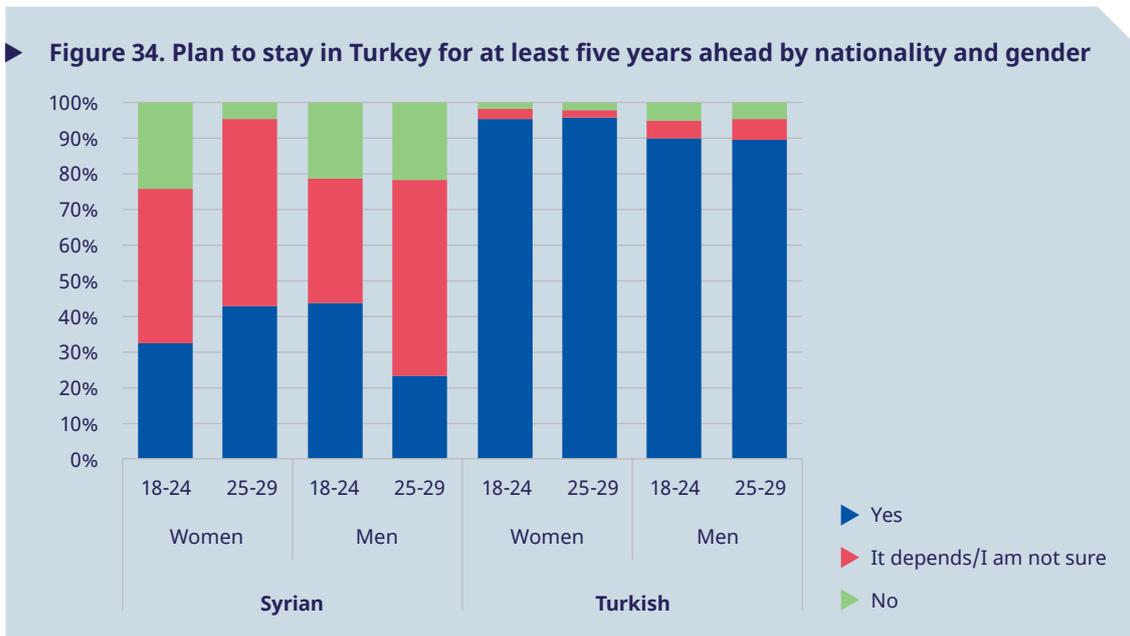


Note: The graph illustrates impacts of the pandemic over work status of young people disaggregated by nationalities and genders. The question was asked to all respondents regardless of their current work status (representing 10.9 million people).

5.3. Long-term and short-term plans to stay in Turkey

Among the responding youth representing 10 million people, majority (88.9 per cent) plan to stay in Turkey for at least five years ahead, while 6.6 per cent are not sure and 4.4 per cent do not plan to stay in the country. Almost all (92.8 per cent) of Turkish youth plan to stay in Turkey, much higher than Syrian youth (36.1 per cent). In the five years ahead, 44.8 per cent of young Syrian refugees are not sure about staying in Turkey while 19.2 per cent do not plan to stay in Turkey. Across nationalities, proportions for women and men differ slightly. Young women seem more eager to stay in Turkey.

⁸ This figure reflects working hours of those who declared that they were under-worked, over-worked or lost their jobs due to the pandemic and worked at least 1 hour per week during the pandemic period since March 2020.

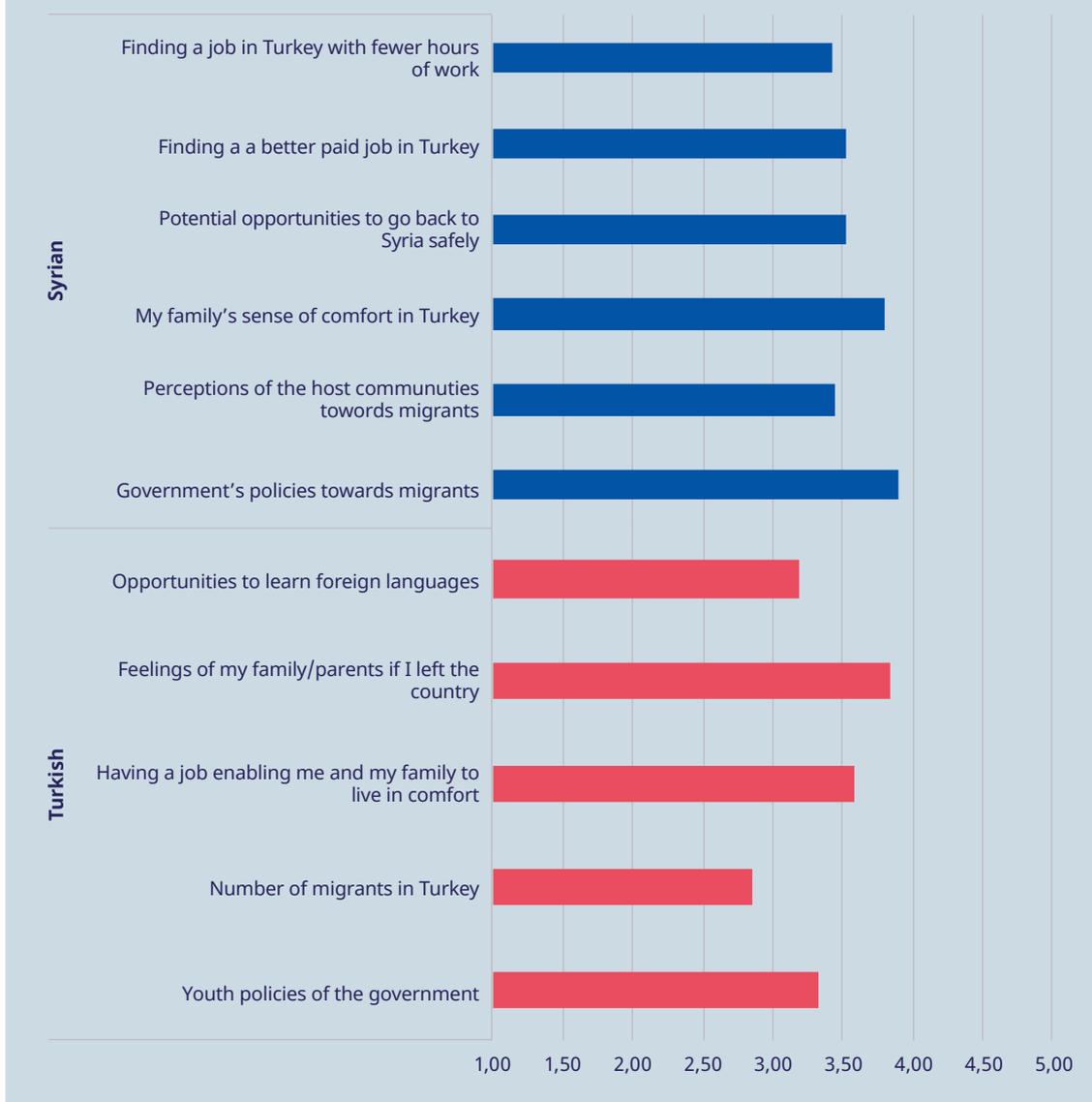


Note: The graph illustrates young people's plans to stay in Turkey in the long term (five years from now) disaggregated by nationalities and genders. The question was asked as follows: "Do you plan to stay in Turkey in the long-term, for instance, 5 years from now?"

Turkish youth's willingness to stay in or leave the country are determined by several factors. Young people consider the following factors listed in the order of attributed importance: (1) the feelings of family/parents being left behind, (2) having a decent job in Turkey, (3) youth policies of the government, (4) opportunities to learn foreign languages. The number of migrants in Turkey is the least important of the proposed issues according to Turkish youth. Young Turkish women consider the number of migrants in the country and government's youth policies relatively more important compared to Turkish men as an issue that would determine their long-term stay in the country.

Syrian youth's willingness to stay in or leave the country are determined by several factors yet they consider (i) government's policies towards migrants and (ii) family's sense of comfort in Turkey relatively more important than other proposed issues. There are no sizeable gender differences; however, on average young Syrian men attribute less importance to opportunities for safe return to Syria compared to young Syrian women as an issue determining their long-term stay in Turkey.

► **Figure 35. Issues determining long-term permanence Turkey for Turkish and Syrian youth, average scores**

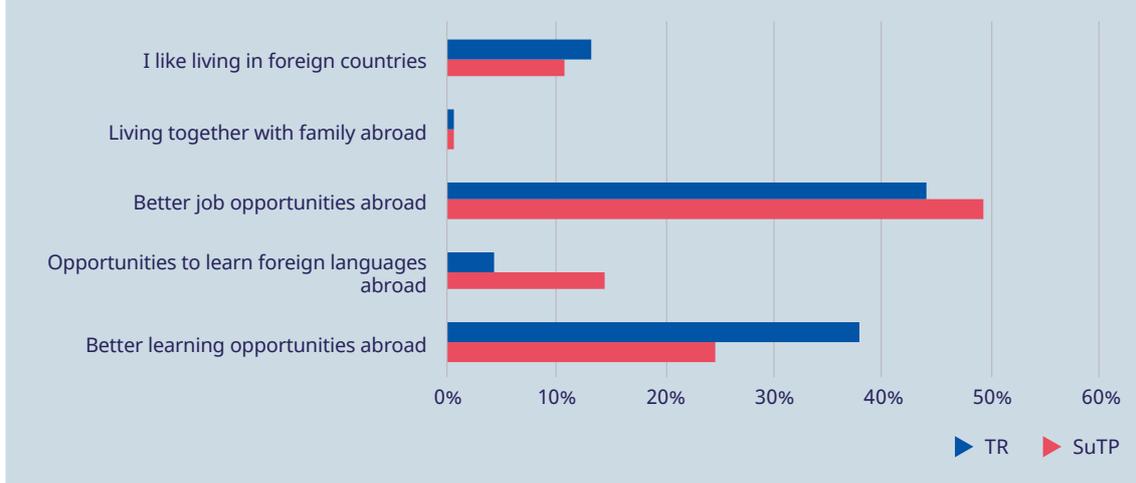


Note: The graph illustrates select issues that would determine young people's decision to stay in Turkey in the long-term. The issues proposed in the question are pre-determined and were customized for Turkish and Syrian respondents. The question was asked as follows: "Which of the following issues does your long-term stay in Turkey depend on? Can you rate the issues according to their importance for you as 1 (not important at all) to 5 (absolutely essential)?"

In the short term (1 year), among the responding youth representing 10.1 million people, 86 per cent do not have any plan or willingness to leave Turkey within a year, while 6.7 per cent would like to leave and 4.6 per cent are indecisive. While 88.8 per cent of the Turkish youth have no plans to leave Turkey within a year, this decreases to 48.7 per cent for Syrians. Parallel to longer-term (5 year) mobility inclination, men (10.5 per cent) plan to leave Turkey within a year more than women (3.5 per cent). In terms of age groups, the number of 18-24 year old youth who plan to leave Turkey within a year are slightly higher than the number of 25-29 years old youth. These age groups almost have the same willingness to stay in Turkey for a year ahead.

Significant majority of active students (86 per cent) or workers (81.8 per cent) have no plans to leave Turkey within a year. 14.3 per cent of Syrian youth who continue their education stated that they would like to leave Turkey within a year, while this decreases to 8.4 per cent for Turkish youth. Those who seek to leave the country in a year regard better job and learning opportunities abroad as primary reasons. Turkish youth (38 per cent) consider better education abroad more than Syrian youth (25 per cent). Parallel to preponderance of men within those wishing to leave in the short-term, men outnumber women in both better education (70 per cent) and better work seekers (76 per cent) abroad.

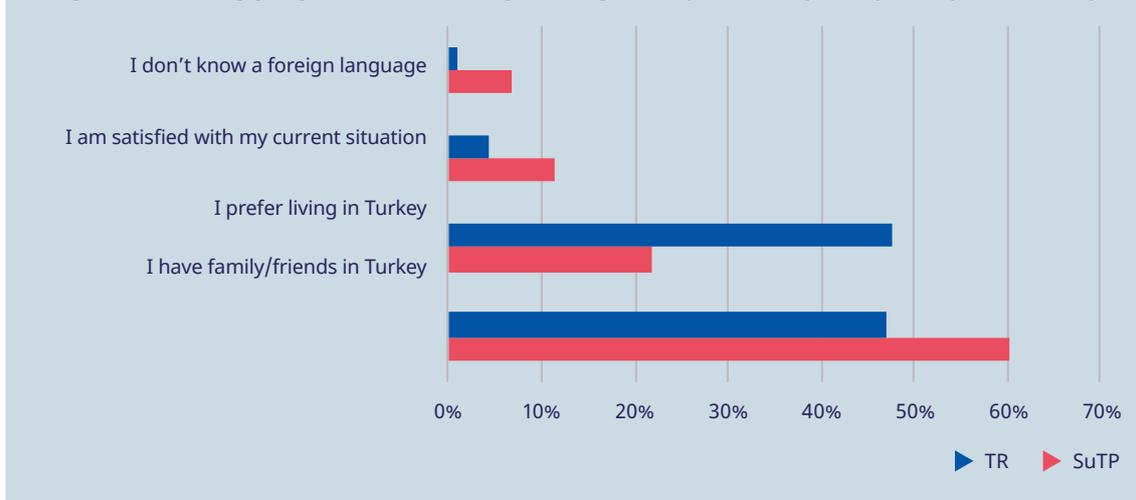
► **Figure 36. Young people’s reasons for planning to leave Turkey in a year by nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates young people’s reasons for planning to leave Turkey in the short term (one year from now). The question was asked to those who declare that they will leave the country in a year if the current conditions continue in Turkey.

Those who wish to stay in Turkey within a year consider their family/friends in Turkey and personal preferences to live in Turkey as primary reasons for staying. Personal preference to live in Turkey is more prevalent among Turkish youth while family connections within the country is relatively more common among Syrian youth as a reason for staying in Turkey. Only 11 per cent of Syrian and 4 per cent of Turkish youth declare to stay in the country in the short term because they are satisfied with their current situation. In conjunction with a wider women cohort within those wishing to stay in the short-term, there is women overrepresentation among those who prefer living in Turkey (57 per cent women) but not among those who stay due to family/friends (48 per cent women).

► **Figure 37. Young people’s reasons for planning to stay in Turkey in a year by nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates young people’s reasons for staying in Turkey in the short term (one year from now). The question was asked to those who declare that they will not leave the country in a year if the current conditions continue in Turkey.

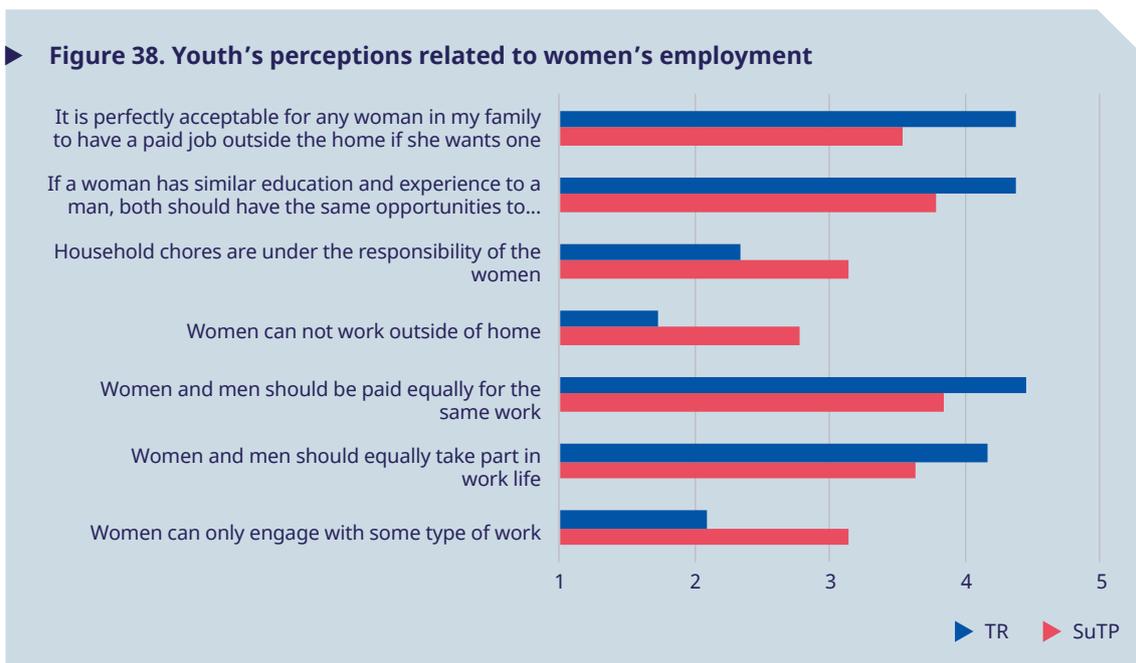
► **Text box 5. Factors behind the permanence in the country**

To dive deeper into the factors behind prospects for staying in Turkey for a duration of 5 years, logistical regressions were conducted (Annex Table 3). The regressions explored whether planning to stay in Turkey (dependent variable) is associated with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size, educational attainment, employment, and province of residence in Turkey.

- A young Syrian is 31 per cent less likely to plan to stay in Turkey compared to their Turkish peers.
- Among Syrian youth, those staying in Turkey for 7-11 months are 85 per cent less likely to plan to stay in the country compared to the newcomers (within the last 0-6 months). Those staying in Turkey for 1+ years are approximately 30 per cent less likely to plan to stay in the country compared to the newcomers.
- Tertiary-degree holders are less likely to stay in the country in the long term. A young person with a tertiary degree is 4.4 per cent less likely to plan staying Turkey in the long-term compared to a person with below secondary degree. This figure ranges from 3.7 per cent among Turkish tertiary degree holders to 22.6 per cent among Syrian young tertiary degree holders. Hence, brain drain is a significant pattern.
- A young and employed person is 2.7 per cent less likely to plan staying in the country compared to a young non-employed person. Disaggregated by provinces, the marginal effect of employment is only significant in Istanbul where employment reduces the probability of long-term permanence by 2.2 per cent. Among the employed, our model did not find insurance (formal employment) as a significant factor behind the long-term permanence in the country.
- Compared to Istanbul, a young person in Southeastern Turkey is 5 per cent less likely to plan to stay in the country in the long-term (4.6 per cent among Turkish youth versus 25 per cent among Syrian youth). The model did not identify a significant marginal effect of staying in other provinces of Turkey on the long-term permanence.
- Looking at the drivers behind short-term (1 year ahead) permanence, nationality was found significant. Being Syrian decreases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 23 per cent (ranging from 17 per cent among those living in Istanbul to 25 per cent among those living in Southeastern Turkey). Among Turkish youth, employment status and provinces of residence were to have significant effect on short-term permanence. Among Syrian youth, gender, household size and educational attainment were found to have significant effect on short-term permanence.
 - ▷ Among Turkish youth, being in employment decreases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 6% compared to non-employment (ranging from 3.1% in Istanbul to 8.3% in Southeastern Turkey).
 - ▷ Among Turkish youth, compared to living in Istanbul, living in Southeastern Turkey decreases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 5.3% while living in the rest of Turkey decreases the likelihood of short term permanence by 3.4%
 - ▷ Among Syrian youth, gender was identified as a significant predictor: being men reduces the probability of staying in Turkey in the short term by 2.4%.
 - ▷ Among Syrian youth, having a tertiary degree sizably increases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 20.6%.
 - ▷ Among Syrian youth, every additional household member in Turkey increases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 2.4%.

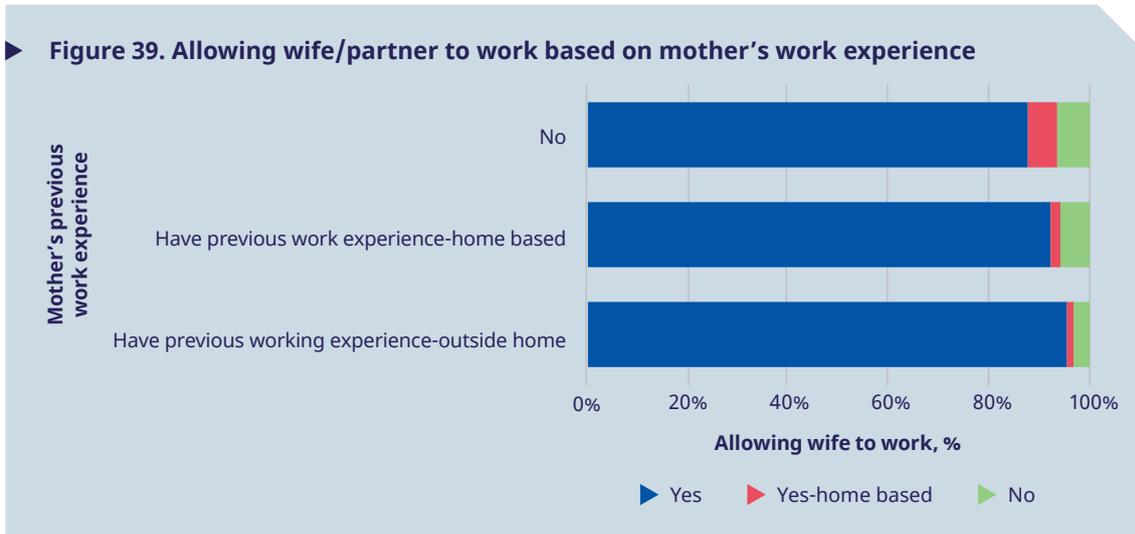
5.4. Perceptions regarding women’s employment

Significant majority of the youth agree or strongly agree that (1) women and men should be paid equally for the same work (84 per cent), (2) a woman with similar education and experience to a man should have the same opportunities to find a good job (80 per cent), (3) women and men should equally take part in the professional life (78 per cent), and (4) any woman in their family can have a paid job outside the home if she wants one (80 per cent). Notwithstanding, a quarter of the youth (27 per cent) agree or strongly agree that household chores are under the responsibility of the women. One in five young persons (21 per cent) agree or strongly agree that women can only engage with certain types of work and 15 per cent expressed that women cannot work outside of home. There are significant differences across nationalities as shown in Figure 37. Syrian youth tend to agree considerably less with the expressions of gender equality.



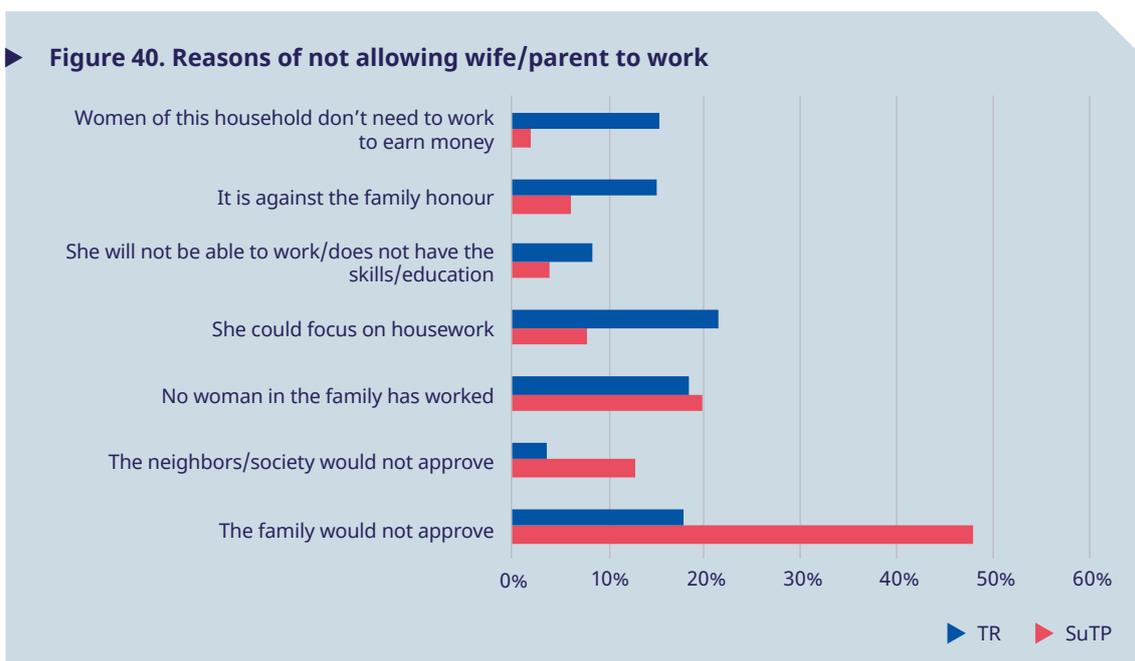
Note: The graph illustrates young people’s attitude towards selected statements related to women’s employment. The responses were collected based on the 5 point likert scale as 1 denoting strong disagreement and 5 strong agreement with the proposed statement. The question was responded by all respondents representing 10.9 million young people.

Majority (64.8 per cent) of young men reported that their mother has never worked while only 26.8 per cent worked outside of the home and 8.3 per cent worked home based. Majority (74.6 per cent) of young Syrian men stated that their mother has never worked while this figure decreases to 64.1 per cent for young Turkish men. Working experience of young persons’ mothers from Istanbul and other provinces are slightly higher compared to Southeastern Turkey.



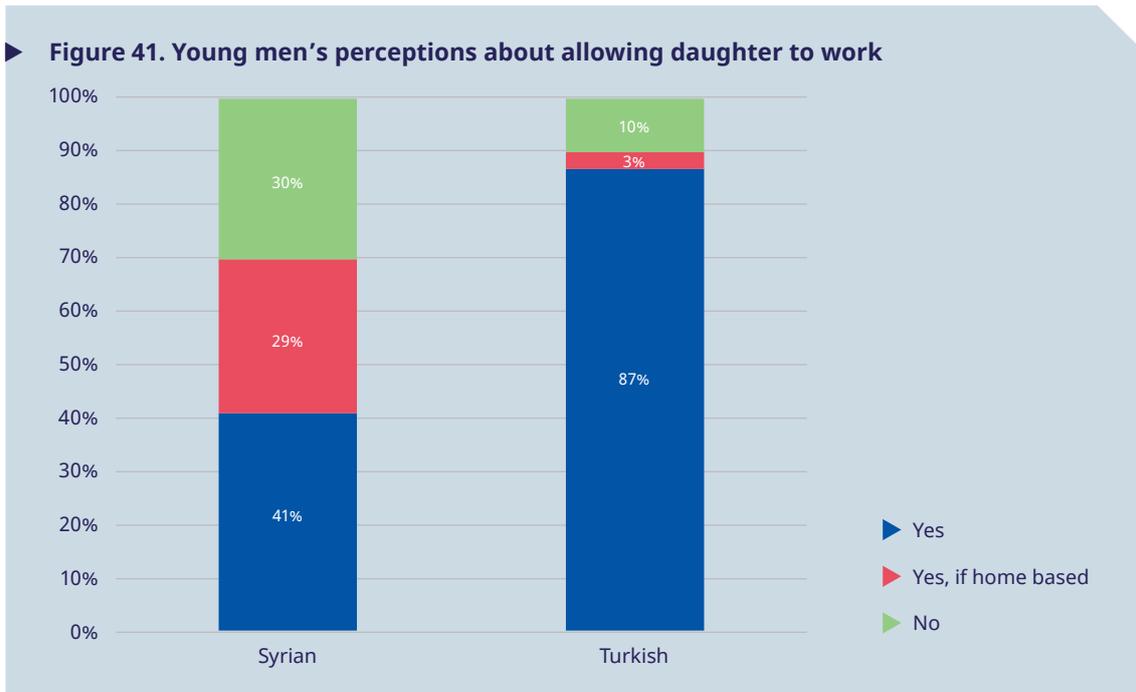
Note: The graph illustrates young men's tendency to allow wife/partner to work based on their mother's previous work incidence. The graph seeks to show if mother's working experience affect young people's decisions to allow their spouse/partner to work. This question was asked only to men respondents representing 5.3 million people.

Significant majority (88.3 per cent) of young men reported that they will let their wives/partners work outside of home while 7.1 per cent would not let them work outside and 4.6 per cent let them work if home based. Young men with a previously working mother tend to let their wives/partner work outside of home more (95.2 per cent) than the rest (85.5 per cent). A quarter (25.2 per cent) of Syrian men would not let their wives/partners work outside - much higher than the Turkish men (5.8 per cent). Young men who would not let their wives/partners work outside of home provide the following reasons: (1) their family would not approve (24 per cent), (2) none of the women at the household had ever worked (19 per cent), (3) household chores should be prioritized (19 per cent), (4) it is against the family honour (13 per cent), and (5) women of that household do not need to work to earn money (13 per cent). There are significant differences across nationalities as shown in the Figure 35. The family's and society's disapproval are more prevalent excuses proposed by Syrian youth. Household chores, incompatibility with the family honour, the lack of household's need for women's paid labour, and women's lack of skills or education are underlined as excuses by Turkish young men not allowing their wives/partners to work outside of home.



Note: The graph illustrates young men's proposed reasons for not allowing their spouse/partner to work. The potential reasons were pre-determined in the survey and were asked only to those who declare that they would not their spouse/partner to work.

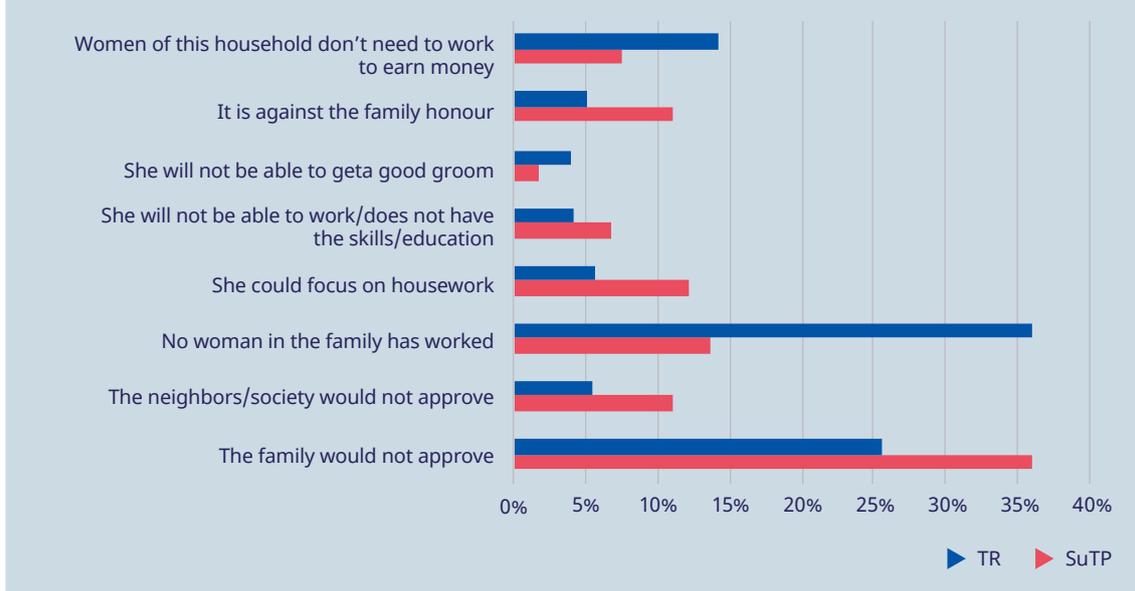
Majority (83.9 per cent) of young men reported that they would let their daughter to work outside of home, while 11.7 per cent would not let them work outside and 4.4 per cent let them work if home based. A third (30.3 per cent) of Syrian men would not let their daughter work outside, which is much higher than the Turkish men (10.4 per cent). There are considerable differences across nationalities for the reasons provided for not allowing daughter to work.



Note: The graph illustrates if young men would allow their daughter to work. This figure entails responses only by men representing 5.3 million people.

Turkish young men not allowing their daughter to work outside of home propose the following reasons: (1) no woman in the family has ever worked (36 per cent), (2) the family would not approve (26 per cent), (3) the household's women do not need to work (14 per cent). Syrian young men not allowing their (future) daughter to work outside of home present the following reasons: (1) the family would not approve (36 per cent), (2) no women in the family has ever worked (14 per cent), (3) she should focus on household chores (12 per cent), and (4) the neighbours/society would not approve (11 per cent).

► **Figure 42. Young men’s proposed reasons of not allowing daughter to work**

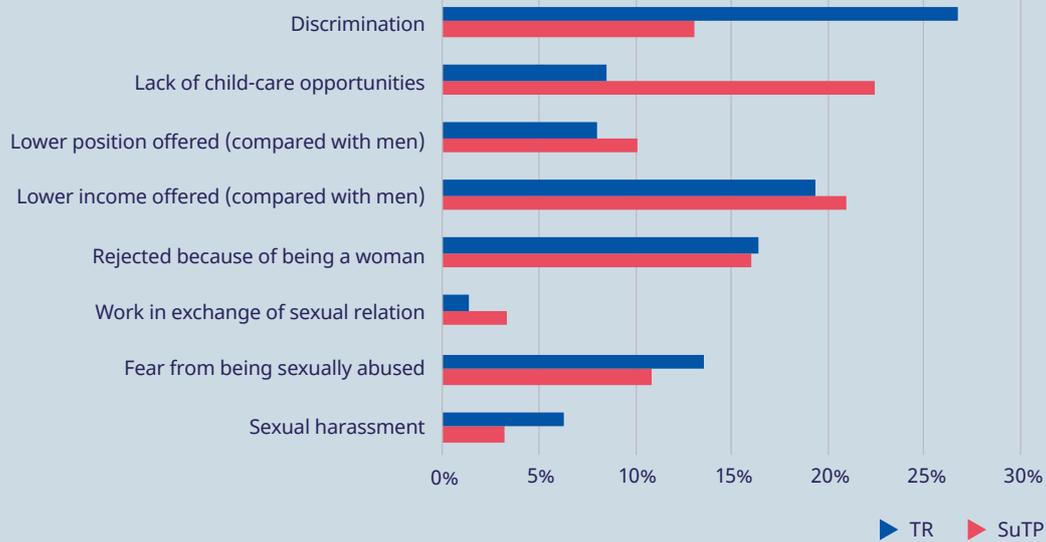


Note: The graph illustrates young men’s proposed reasons for not allowing their daughter to work. The potential reasons were pre-determined in the survey and were asked only to those who declare that they would not their daughter to work.

5.4.1. Women’s challenges in the labour market

For young women who previously worked, currently working or looking for a job (representing 3.9 million people), challenges are manifold during the job search in the labour market. A quarter (26 per cent) indicated that they faced discrimination, 19 per cent were offered lower income compared to men with similar competencies, 16 per cent were rejected because of being a woman, 13 per cent feared from sexual abuse, 9 per cent hindered by the lack of childcare facilities at the workplace. There are considerable differences by nationalities. For young Syrian women, lack of childcare facilities at the workplace, being offered lower income compared to men with similar competencies, and gender-based rejection are the top three challenges encountered while looking for a job. For young Turkish women, discrimination, being offered lower income compared to men with similar competencies, and gender-based rejection are the top three challenges that they encountered while looking for a job. It is noteworthy that fear from sexual abuse (13 per cent), facing sexual harassment (6 per cent) and work in exchange of sexual relation (1 per cent) stand as a challenge for a considerable proportion of both Turkish and Syrian women while looking for a job.

► **Figure 43. Challenges encountered while looking for a job as a woman by nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates challenges that women encountered while seeking a job. The statements were pre-determined in the survey. This multiple response question was asked if the respondent is a woman who is currently working or has worked in the past or is currently looking for a job.

For young women who previously worked or are currently working (representing 3.3 million people), challenges have been manifold at the workplace as well. More than a third (35 per cent) indicated that they were under-paid, 20 per cent were discriminated, 12 per cent feared from sexual abuse, and 10 per cent faced family-related problems. Syrian young women reported under-payment and non-promotion more than Turkish peers. An interesting insight is that the lack of childcare facilities poses a greater challenge for Syrian young woman during the job search period compared to the actual employment period. Turkish young women reported discrimination, fear of sexual abuse, family-related problems, and lack of childcare facilities more than Syrian peers. Exposure to harassment and discrimination hence transcend national identities among young women in Turkey.

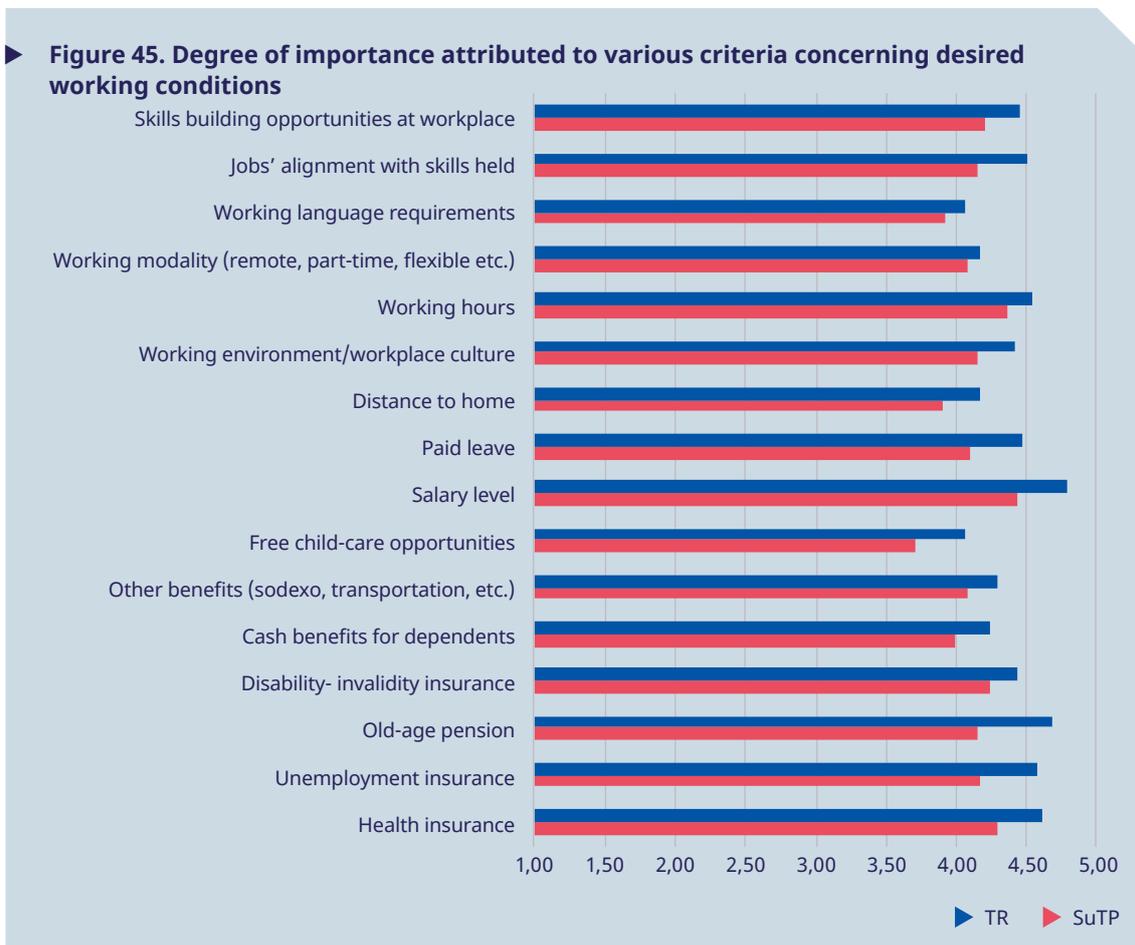
► **Figure 44. Challenges encountered while working as a woman by nationality**



Note: The graph illustrates challenges that women encountered while working. The statements were pre-determined in the survey. This multiple response question was asked if the respondent is a woman who is currently working or has worked in the past.

5.5. Preferred working conditions

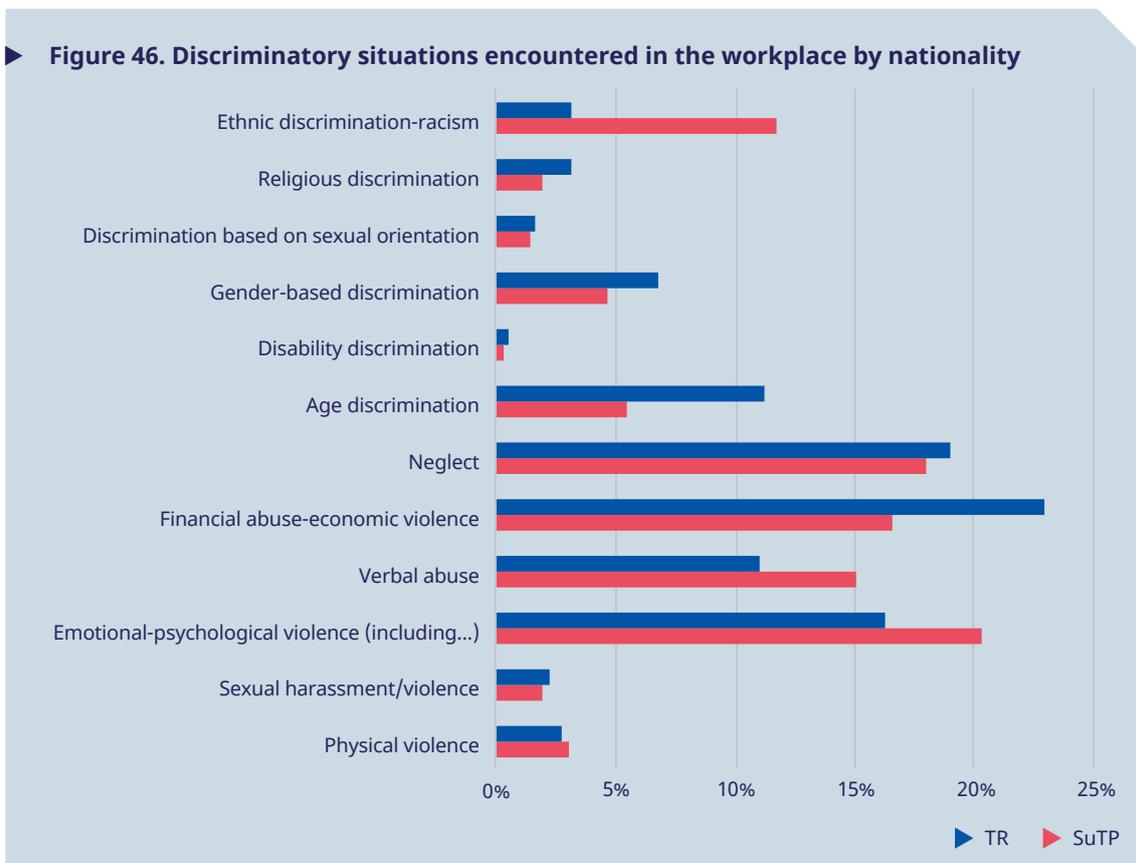
Turkish youth (corresponding to 10.2 million people) find salary level, old-age pension, health insurance, unemployment insurance, and working hours as essential factors (>4.5 in 1 to 5 scale) considering their ideal work conditions. Syrian youth (corresponding to 0.7 million people) value salary level, working hours, and health insurance the most. The least important factors are distance to home, free childcare opportunities, and working language requirements. For all listed factors of working conditions, Syrian youth attribute less importance than Turkish youth. In terms of gender disaggregation, on average, young women considered free childcare opportunities more than men while men considered working environment/workplace culture more than women.



Note: The graph illustrates challenges that women encountered while working. The statements were pre-determined in the survey. This multiple response question was asked if the respondent is a woman who is currently working or has worked in the past.

The ILO Convention C190 (2019), which has not yet been ratified by Turkey, defines “violence and harassment” in the workplace as “a range of unacceptable behaviours and practices, or threats thereof, whether a single occurrence or repeated, that aim at, result in, or are likely to result in physical, psychological, sexual or economic harm, and includes gender-based violence and harassment”. The term gender-based violence and harassment is defined as “violence and harassment directed at persons because of their sex or gender or affecting persons of a particular sex or gender disproportionately, and includes sexual harassment”.

Considering their professional track record, 67 per cent of the youth reported that they have not encountered any of the mistreatments at the workplace. Less than half (46 per cent) of Syrian youth whilst 68 per cent of Turkish youth reported no mistreatments/violence. Among those who encountered a mistreatment, financial abuse-economic violence⁹ (22 per cent), neglect (19 per cent), emotional-psychological violence including mobbing (17 per cent), verbal abuse (11 per cent), age discrimination (11 per cent) and gender-based discrimination (8 per cent) rank highest. Turkish young workers reported financial abuse/economic violence, neglect, age discrimination, and gender-based discrimination considerably more than Syrian peers. Syrian young workers on the other hand reported racism, verbal abuse and psychological-emotional violence (including mobbing) considerably more than their Turkish peers.

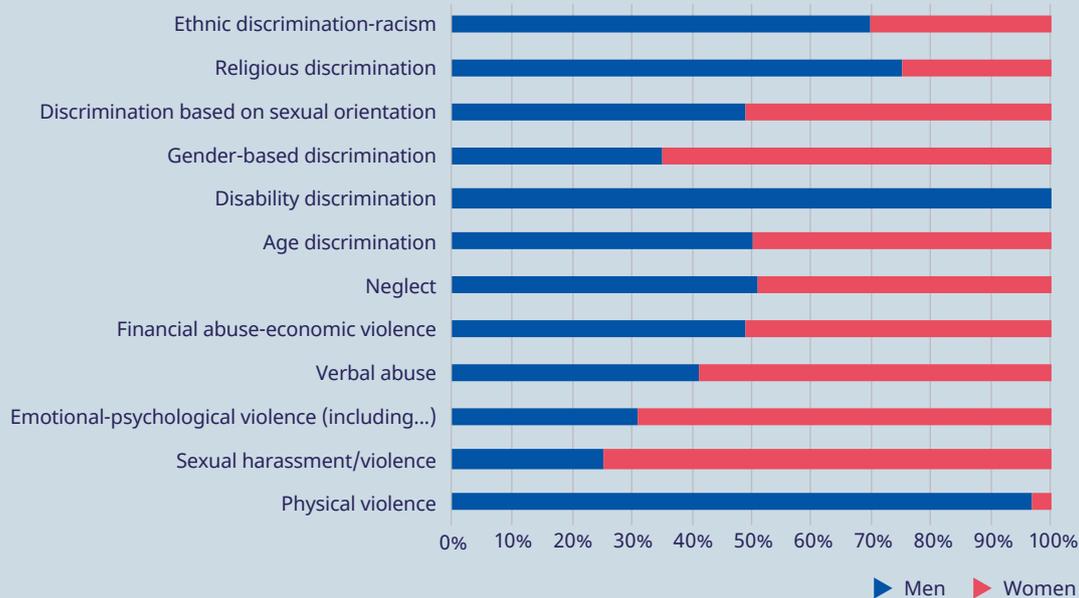


Note: The graph illustrates young people's discriminatory experience in the workplace disaggregated by nationalities. The options were pre-determined in the survey and the question was asked as follows: "Have you ever experienced the below situations at your workplace against yourself?"

Diving deeper into gender disaggregation of discriminatory practices encountered at the workplace, young women tend to face sexual harassment, emotional-psychological violence, gender-based discrimination, verbal abuse more than men. On the other hand, young men encounter physical violence, religious discrimination, and ethnic discrimination disproportionately more than women.

⁹ The term financial abuse/economic violence used here entails economic exploitation of labour, withholding, late-payment or under-payment of wages and other work-related benefits without the consent of the worker.

► **Figure 47. Gender disaggregation of discriminatory practices encountered at the workplace**



Note: The graph illustrates young people's discriminatory experience in the workplace disaggregated by genders. The options were pre-determined in the survey and the question was asked as follows: "Have you ever experienced the below situations at your workplace against yourself?" This graph seeks to reveal any gendered patterns of discrimination especially regarding gender-based discrimination, sexual harassment, and emotional/psychological violence. Disability discrimination disaggregation by gender was not reported due to too few observations.

► **Text box 6. Factors behind the challenges faced in the labour market**

To scrutinize the factors behind the challenges faced in the labour market, logistical regressions were conducted (Annex Table 3). For this analysis, a variable was created to capture any discrimination or harassment-related challenge young people faced in their previous or current job and/or job search. The challenge defined here therefore reflects not only current workplaces but a wider continuum of labour market experience of the youth. The regressions explored whether challenges faced in the labour market (dependent variable) is associated with gender, age, nationality, economic activity (sectoral NACE codes), educational attainment and province of residence in Turkey.

- Compared to a woman, a young man is 12 per cent less likely to face a challenge in the labour market (ranging from 11.7 per cent among Turkish men to 14.7 per cent among Syrian men)
- Being Syrian increases the likelihood of facing a challenge in the labour market by 17.3 per cent compared to being Turkish.
- Being in 25-29 age group increases the likelihood of facing a challenge in the labour market by 9.9 per cent compared to being in 18-24 age group. This is intuitive that the older a person gets, the higher the likelihood is that s/he experiences a challenge in the labour market because s/he was active in the labour market for a longer period.
- In terms of sectors, agriculture increases the probability of facing a challenge by 57 per cent while the job category of "culture, arts, recreation and sports" does so by 89 per cent; however, the number of observations for these jobs remain very limited, 2 and 5 respectively. Hence, further research is needed to check the external validity of this finding.
- Tertiary education holders are 11.8 per cent more likely to face a challenge in the labour market compared to below-secondary degree holders (with no sizeable differences across provinces or nationalities). No significant marginal effects were identified for secondary degree holders.

► 6. Conclusion

This research study provided an overview of the socio-economic profile of young people in Turkey, reflecting their needs and expectations in the labour market considering the impacts of the pandemic. The study further revealed evidence regarding the youth's perception regarding women's employment and their plans to stay in Turkey in the short and long terms.

In Turkey, structural challenges of the labour market and the effects of the pandemic on employment and working hours have created additional negative pressures for young people in and around the labour market domain. Currently, five in ten young individuals are employed, four are economically inactive and the remaining one is an unemployed jobseeker. Young inactive and unemployed individuals consider Turkey's economic conditions, low salaries, the lack of a reference/acquaintance to help find a job, inadequate previous work experience, and discrimination at the workplace as primary challenges they face. Turkey's structural macroeconomic constraints, coupled with the pandemic, have affected labour demand, wage levels, job-finding patterns, opportunities to gain a first job experience, and various forms of mistreatment in the workplace. These effects are aggravated among women, refugees, those with lower skills, with no previous job experience, informal workers, and those with domestic care responsibilities.

Young individuals face multiple and compound barriers in the labour market that can be tackled by holistic, integrated and individualized provision of social protection and labour market (SPL) services. Public expenditures in SPL programmes should be regarded not as a cost but an investment for the whole community. Investing in SPL systems to achieve universal coverage has never been more urgent to avert the impacts of the pandemic and to build back better (UN, 2021). This report is a call for action for all development stakeholders to cooperate in removing the barriers that prevent young people from enjoying their right to decent work.

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► Annexes

Table 1. Summary table of variables used in the regressions

A summary table of the variables used in all logistical regressions are presented below. The sample consists of 1,800 observations and the represented population is 10,934,547. As indicated in the Methodology section, sample weights (Annex Table 5) were applied to individual observations.

	Categorical value 1	Categorical value 2	Categorical value 3	Categorical value 4	Categorical value 5	Categorical value 6	Categorical value 7
Employment	No: 51.3% (5,605,781)	Yes: 48.7% (5,328,766)					
Age	18-24: 57.9% (6,332,669)	25-29: 42.1% (4,601,877)					
Gender	Women: 51.8% (5,668,305)	Men: 48.2% (5,266,241)					
Nationality	Turkish: 53% (10,175,537)	Syrian: 7% (759,010)					
Stay in Turkey	0-6 mo: 0.06% (6286)	7-11 mo: 0.28% (30427)	1-2 year: 0.93% (102,211)	3-5 year: 1.49% (163,332)	6-9 year: 2.95% (322,747)	9+ year: 1.22% (134,004)	Born in TR: 93% (10,175,537)
Marital status	Single: 67% (7,326,896)	Married: 33% (3,607,650)					
Household size	Mean: 4.28 (± 0.14) (10,934,547)						
Education	Primary or lower: 35.8% (3,928,199)	Elementary: 7.4% (808,900)	High school: 24% (2,627,385)	Vocational high school: 5.6% (611,219)	Foundation degree: 10.8% (1,187,121)	Bachelors: 14.4% (1,574,392)	Master's or above: 1.8% (197,336)
Province	Istanbul: 29.2% (3,191,457)	Southeastern Turkey: 17.2% (1,885,577)	Rest: 53.6% (5,857,513)				
NACE code (only top 7 indicated)	Manufacturing: 18.3% (1,996,359)	Education: 3.8% (417,974)	Other Service Activities: 3.9% (427,351)	Accommodation and Food Service Activities: 3.5% (388,438)	Construction: 1.8% (197,343)	Public Administration and Defence: 1.4% (150,675)	Human Health and Social Work: 1.4% (149,496)
Insurance	No insurance: 5.8% (638,220)	Insured: 34% (3,752,945)					
Turkish language competency	A0: 0.5% & A1: 1.28% (57,659) & (140,156)	A2: 1.96% (214,050)	B1: 1% (108,679)	B2: 0.66% (72,038)	C1: 1.16% (127,121)	C2: 0.08% (8,706)	Mother tongue: 93.3% (10,206,133)
Plan to stay in Turkey long term	No: 4.3% (473,645)	Yes: 87.1% (9,532,932)	Missing: 8.5% (927,969)				
Plan to stay in Turkey short term	No: 6.88% (752,453)	Yes: 86% (9,405,992)	Missing: 7.1% (776,101)				
Challenge faced in the labour market	No: 71.8% (5,498,598)	Yes: 28.2% (2,157,238)					

Table 2. Logistic regressions on the determinants of employment

The logistic regression was run on the below model:

$$E = \ln\left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \text{ gender} + \beta_3 \text{ agegroup} + \beta_4 \text{ nationality} + \dots + \varepsilon$$

Where E is the odds of employment; p is the proportion of persons that are employed; gender, agegroup, nationality are the initial independent variables that are complemented with other explanatory variables in the iterations; β_1 is the intercept; $\beta_{2 \text{ to } n}$ are coefficients of the hypothesised determinants of employment; and ε is the random error term. First, logistic regressions were conducted to identify the statistically significant relationships between independent variables and probability of employment. Later, average marginal effects (AME) of significant predictors were calculated. AME represents the average change in the probability of employment when a given independent variable increases by one unit.

A summary table of the variables used in the regressions are presented in Annex Table 1.

A series of logistical regressions were conducted to identify determinants of employment. Categorical variables were treated as factor variables or processed as dummy variables where relevant at the regressions.

- Regression 1.** Regression was conducted with **gender, age, nationality and time spent in Turkey**. Gender was found statistically significant. The odds of being in employment are higher (18%) if gender is men
- Regression 2.** Regression conducted with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, **marital status**. Gender and age were found statistically significant. The odds of being in employment are higher (16%) if gender is men. Being in 25-29 age group has an average marginal effect of 23% on being in employment.
- Regression 3.** Regression conducted with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, **household size**. Gender and household size were found significant. The odds of being in employment are higher if gender is men. The odds of being in employment are higher if household size is smaller.
- An interaction term was later included in the model combining **marital status and age** to check if the odds of being in employment are higher for specific combinations (for example, married and older age group). No significant combinations were detected.
 - An interaction term was later included in the model combining **household size and marital status** to check if the odds of being in employment are higher or lower for specific combinations of the said factor variables (household size is categorized as 1: single-living, 2-5 nucleus family, and 3: larger household). Being married in a larger household (>5 members) significantly and sizably (34%) reduces the probability of being in employment. The negative marginal effect of household size can partly be explained by this interaction variable. No other combinations of marital status and household size have significant marginal effects on being in employment.
 - An interaction term was later included in the model combining **household size and age** to check if the odds of being in employment are higher or lower for specific combinations of the said factor variables. No significant combinations detected.
 - An interaction term was later included in the model combining **gender and household size**. No significant combinations detected.
- Regression 4.** Regression conducted with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size and **education level**. Gender and household size were found significant again. Education was not found significant.

Regression 5. Regression conducted with gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size, education level, and provinces. Gender and household size were found significant again. **Provinces** were not found significant predictors.

Regression 6. Regression conducted with gender, age, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size, education level and **Turkish language** competency level for the Syrian subpopulation. Gender, household size, and marital status were found significant. Turkish language level was not found significant.

Regression 7. Further regressions were conducted and identified no significant effect of person's **desire to stay in Turkey** in the long term and short term on employment. Regressing at subpopulations, long-term and short-term permanence do have a significant marginal effect on employment status for Syrian youth, +13.3% and -25% respectively.

The table below illustrates average marginal effects of independent variables that were found significant in logistical regressions (t values in brackets). Column headings indicates in brackets the number of the iteration conducted.

Regressions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
AMEs	employment	employment	employment	employment	employment	employment	employment
Gender (1: woman, 2: man)	Man: 0.181*** (3.61)	Man: 0.157*** (3.49)	Man: 0.149** (3.33)	Man: 0.151*** (3.39)	Man: 0.150*** (3.44)	Man: 0.391*** (4.67)	Man: 0.312** (3.41)
Age (1: 18-24, 2: 25-29)		25-29: 0.235* (2.09)					
Household size			-0.0356* (-2.49)	-0.0331* (-2.54)	-0.0274*** (-2.64)	-0.0332** (-2.96)	
Marital status (1: single, 2: married)						Married: -0.242* (-2.10)	Married: -0.294* (-2.26)
Permanence long-term (0: no, 1: yes)							Yes: 0.133* (2.62)
Permanence short-term (0: no, 1: yes)							Yes: -0.251* (-2.47)
N	1800	1800	1800	1800	1800	900	457
pop	10,934,547	10,934,547	10,934,547	10,934,547	10,934,547	759,010	350,841

Table 3. Logistic regressions on the determinants of planning to stay in Turkey in the next 5 years

The logistic regressions were run on the below model:

$$S = \ln(o) = \ln(p/(1-p)) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{agegroup} + \beta_4 \text{nationality} + \beta_5 \text{mstatus} + \beta_6 \text{hhsz} + \beta_7 \text{education} + \beta_8 \text{employment} \dots + \varepsilon$$

Where S is the odds of planning to stay in Turkey; p is the proportion of persons that plan to stay in Turkey; gender, agegroup, nationality, marital status, household size, education level and employment status are the initial independent variables which are complemented with other explanatory variables in the iterations; β_1 is the intercept; $\beta_{2 \text{ to } n}$ are coefficients of the hypothesised determinants of planning to stay in Turkey; and ε is the random error term. First, logistic regressions were conducted to identify the statistically significant relationships between independent variables and probability of planning to stay in Turkey. Later, average marginal effects (AME) of predictor variables were calculated. AME represents the average change in probability of planning to stay in Turkey when a given independent variable increases by one unit

A summary table of the variables used in the regressions are presented in Annex Table 1.

A series of logistical regressions were conducted to identify determinants of planning to stay in Turkey (hereafter can be also called as permanence). Categorical variables were treated as factor variables or processed as dummy variables where relevant at the regressions.

Regression 1. Regression conducted with **gender, age, nationality, time spent in Turkey, marital status, household size, education and employment status**. Time spent in Turkey and educational attainment levels were found statistically significant.

- a. The average marginal effects of periods of time spent in Turkey were calculated only for Syrians because Turks **staying in Turkey** since their birth are collinear with their nationality. Among Syrians, compared to those who have been living in Turkey for 0 to 6 months, those staying for 7-11 months are 85 per cent less likely to plan staying in the country while those who have been staying for 1+ years are roughly 30% less likely to plan staying in Turkey. Hence, among Syrian youth, the tendency to leave Turkey in the long term considerably increases with the time they spend in Turkey.
- b. The average marginal effect of **educational attainment** level on the person's long-term permanence in the country was calculated. On average, a young person with a tertiary degree is 4.4% less likely to plan staying in Turkey in the long-term compared to a person with below secondary degree. No significant effect has been detected for secondary degree holders compared to below secondary degree holders. The marginal effects were also calculated by nationalities to see a potential difference for each nationality. For Turkish youth, on average a young person with a tertiary degree is 3.7% more likely to plan leaving Turkey in the long-term compared to a person with below secondary degree while this figure jumps to 22.6% for Syrian young tertiary degree holders.

Regression 2. To circumvent the collinearity between nationality and time spent in Turkey and to identify the marginal effect of nationality on permanence, a regression conducted with **nationality, gender, age, marital status, household size, education, and employment**. Nationality and educational attainment were found significant. A young Syrian is 31% less likely to plan to stay in Turkey. Similar to the first regression results, a young person with tertiary education degree is 4.3% less likely to plan to stay in the country.

- a. Since employment and **insurance** was collinear and hence could not be regressed together as predictors of permanence in the country, a regression was conducted within the subpopulation of employed. Insurance was not found a significant predictor of planning to stay in the country among the employed. Nationality and tertiary degree holding were again found significant as in the second regression.

- Regression 3.** To check the marginal effects of provinces of residence, a regression was conducted with nationality, gender, age, marital status, household size, education, employment, and **provinces**. Nationality, employment, education, and provinces were found significant predictors of long-term permanence in the country.
- A new finding suggested that a young employed person is 2.7% less likely to plan staying in the country compared to a young non-employed person. Disaggregated by provinces, the marginal effect of employment is only valid (significant) in Istanbul where employment reduces the probability of permanence by 2.2%.
 - Compared to Istanbul, a young person in Southeastern Turkey is 5% less likely to plan to stay in the country in the long-term (4.6% among Turkish youth versus 25% among Syrian youth). The model did not identify a significant marginal effect of staying in other provinces of Turkey.
- Regression 4.** To check whether there are significant differences between the predictors of long term and **short term permanence**, a regression was conducted on short-term (1 year ahead) permanence with gender, age, nationality, marital status, household size, educational attainment, employment, and province. The regressions were conducted first with Turkish and Syrian refugees combined, later with nationality sub-groups separately.
- Similar to the long-term, **nationality** was found to be a significant predictor. Being Syrian decreases the likelihood of short term permanence by 23% (ranging from 17% among those living in Istanbul to 25% among those living in Southeastern Turkey).
 - Among Turkish youth, similar to the long-term, being in **employment** was found to be a significant predictor. Being in employment decreases the likelihood of short term permanence by 6% compared to non-employment (ranging from 3.1% in Istanbul to 8.3% in Southeastern Turkey).
 - Among Turkish youth, similar to the long-term, **provinces** were found to be a significant predictor. Compared to living in Istanbul, living in Southeastern Turkey decreases the likelihood of short term permanence by 5.3% while living in the rest of Turkey decreases the likelihood of short term permanence by 3.4%
- Regression 5.** The regression 4 was repeated for Syrian sub-population.
- Among Syrian youth, **gender** was identified as a significant predictor: being men reduces the probability of staying in Turkey in the short term by 2.4%.
 - Among Syrian youth, **educational attainment** was identified as a significant predictor: Having a tertiary degree sizably increases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 20.6%.
 - Among Syrian youth, **household size** was identified as a significant predictor: every additional household member in Turkey increases the likelihood of short-term permanence by 2.4%.

Regressions	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
AMEs	permanence long term	permanence long term	permanence long term	permanence short term	permanence short term
Time spent in Turkey (0: 0-6 months, 1: 7-11 months, 2: 1-2 years, 3: 3-5 years, 4: 6-9 years, 5: 9+ years)	7-11 months: -0.846*** (-9.60) 1-2 years: -0.328*** (-3.72) 3-5 years: -0.337*** (-4.32) 6-9 years: -0.283*** (-5.10) 9+ years: -0.335* (-2.48) [sub population analysis: N: 503; pop: 397,815]				
Education level (1: below secondary, 2: secondary, 3: tertiary)	Secondary: -0.0149 (-1.16) Tertiary: -0.0442* (-2.38)	Secondary: -0.014 (-1.10) Tertiary: -0.0438* (-2.34)	Secondary: -0.014 (-1.18) Tertiary: -0.0462* (-2.59)		Secondary: 0.111 (1.42) Tertiary: 0.206** (2.76) [sub population analysis among Syrian: N: 643; pop: 506,426]
Nationality (1: Turkish, 2: Syrian)		Syrian: -0.313*** (-5.97)	Syrian: -0.329*** (-6.57)	Syrian: -0.234*** (-4.67)	
Employment (0: not employed, 1: employed)			Employed: -0.027* (-2.02)	Employed: -0.0601*** (-3.61) [sub population analysis among Turkish: N: 856; pop: 9,652,020]	
Provinces (1: Istanbul, 2: Southeast, 3: Other)			Southeast: -0.0543** (-2.65) Other: -0.0108 (-1.06)	Southeast: -0.0530* (-2.16) Other: -0.0396* (-2.11) [sub population analysis among Turkish: N: 856; pop: 9,652,020]	
Gender (1: woman, 2: man)					Man: -0.241*** (-4.15) [sub population analysis among Syrian: N: 643; pop: 506,426]
Age (1: 18-24, 2: 25-29)					
Household size					0.0239* (2.58) [sub population analysis among Syrian: N: 643; pop: 506,426]
<i>N</i>	1354	1354	1354	1,499	643
pop	10,006,577	10,006,577	10,006,577	10,158,446	506,426

Table 4. Logistic regressions on the determinants of challenges faced in the labour market

The logistic regressions were run on the below model:

$$C = \ln(o) = \ln(p/(1-p)) = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \text{gender} + \beta_3 \text{agegroup} + \beta_4 \text{nationality} + \beta_5 \text{NACE} + \beta_6 \text{province} + \beta_7 \text{education} \dots + \varepsilon$$

Where C is the odds of facing a challenge in the labour market¹⁰; p is the proportion of persons that faced a challenge in the labour market; gender, agegroup, nationality, NACE sector code and province are the initial independent variables which are complemented with other explanatory variables in the iterations; β_1 is the intercept; $\beta_{2 \text{ to } n}$ are coefficients of the hypothesised determinants of challenges faced in the labour market; and ε is the random error term. First, logistic regressions were conducted to identify the statistically significant relationships between independent variables and the probability of challenge faced in the labour market. Later, average marginal effects (AME) of predictor variables were calculated. AME represents the average change in probability of a challenge faced in the labour market when a given independent variable increases by one unit.

A summary table of the variables used in the regressions are presented in Annex Table 1.

A series of logistical regressions were conducted to identify determinants of challenges faced in the labour market in Turkey. Categorical variables were treated as factor variables or processed as dummy variables where relevant at the regressions.

Regression 1. A regression conducted with **gender, age, nationality, and province**. Gender, age and nationality were found statistically significant. No significant differences were found across provinces.

- a. A young man is 12% less likely to face a challenge in the labour market (ranging from 11.7% among Turkish men to 14.7% among Syrian men)
- b. Being Syrian increases the likelihood of facing a challenge in the labour market by 17.3% compared to being Turkish.
- c. Being in 25-29 age group increases the likelihood of facing a challenge in the labour market by 9.9% compared to being in 18-24 age group.

Regression 2. A regression was conducted with gender, age, nationality and **sectors** (through declared NACE codes). Nationality, agriculture, and culture (arts, entertainment, recreation and sports) sectors were found significant predictors of challenges faced in the labour market. Agriculture increases the probability of facing a challenge by 57% while culture does so by 89%; however, the number of observations for these jobs remain very limited, as 2 and 5 respectively. Hence, the validity of the sectoral findings should be evaluated cautiously.

Regression 3. A regression was conducted with gender, age, nationality, province and **educational attainment**. Gender, nationality, and tertiary degree holding were found significant.

- a. Being men decreases the likelihood of facing a challenge in the labour market by 11.3%, similar to previous findings. Being Syrian increases the probability of facing a challenge in the labour market by 20.5%, slightly stronger than previous findings. Tertiary education holders are 11.8% more likely to face a challenge in the labour market compared to below-secondary degree holders (no sizeable differences were found across provinces or nationalities). No significant marginal effects were identified for secondary degree holders.
- b. A subpopulation analysis among women delivered the average marginal effects of provinces on the probability of facing a challenge. A young woman in Southeastern Turkey is 22% less likely to face a challenge while a young woman in other cities is 18% less likely to face a challenge compared to their peers in Istanbul – which appears as a hotbed for labour market challenges for women.

¹⁰ For this regression a variable is created to reflect any discrimination or harrasment related challenges faced in the previous or current job as well as job search. The challenge here therefore covers not only current job-holders but a wider continuum of labour market experience.

Regressions	(1)	(2)	(3)
AMEs	Challenge in the labour market	Challenge in the labour market	Challenge in the labour market
Education level (0: below secondary, 1: secondary, 2: tertiary)			Tertiary: 0.118* (2.18)
Nationality (1: Turkish, 2: Syrian)	Syrian: 0.173*** (4.34)	Syrian: 0.166*** (4.30)	Syrian: 0.205*** (4.29)
Gender (1: woman, 2: man)	Man: -0.119* (-2.19)		Man: -0.113* (-2.08)
Age (1: 18-24, 2: 25-29)	25-29: 0.0991* (2.23)		
Agriculture sector		Agriculture: 0.574* (2.15)	
Culture, arts, recreation and sports sector		Culture: 0.890*** (3.60)	
Provinces (1: Istanbul, 2: Southeast, 3: Other)			Istanbul: (base level) Southeast: -0.219** (-2.68) Other: -0.182* (-2.58) [sub population analysis: N: 1397; pop: 8,770,247]
<i>N</i>	1136	1109	1136
pop	7,655,838	7,415,831	7,655,838

Table 5. Sample size and weighting by groups

Nationality	Marital status	Age-group	Education	Region	Employment status	Sample size	Population 2018/2019	Weight
Syrian	Single	18-24	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	12	24352	2029
					Employed	37	64401	1741
				Southeast	Unemployed	30	8783	338
					Employed	14	9383	938
				Other	Unemployed	28	13887	434
					Employed	9	26574	2044
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	43	16535	385
					Employed	12	32211	2684
				Southeast	Unemployed	53	13789	287
					Employed	13	2096	210
				Other	Unemployed	31	29144	833
					Employed	15	7756	431
		25-29	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	28	964	33
					Employed	11	19490	2166
				Southeast	Unemployed	8	2639	264
					Employed	34	1997	67
				Other	Unemployed	22	1920	91
					Employed	6	2308	256
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	23	6769	294
					Employed	16	17478	1092
				Southeast	Unemployed	20	2707	193
					Employed	16	3558	445
				Other	Unemployed	4	5532	553
					Employed	10	1854	103
18-29	Istanbul	Unemployed	35	1949	56			
		Employed	19	11715	617			
	Southeast	Unemployed	45	551	15			
		Employed	13	0	0			
	Other	Unemployed	19	11136	398			
		Employed	22	4311	172			

Nationality	Marital status	Age-group	Education	Region	Employment status	Sample size	Population 2018/2019	Weight
Syrian	Married	18-24	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	6	54740	9123
					Employed	5	22445	4489
				Southeast	Unemployed	25	25673	1167
					Employed	3	3979	1990
				Other	Unemployed	11	29106	2079
					Employed	0	9554	9554
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	4	10751	2688
					Employed	1	5889	5889
				Southeast	Unemployed	2	5223	2612
					Employed	1	1051	0
				Other	Unemployed	2	16145	5382
					Employed	3	3246	812
		25-29	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	19	26280	1314
					Employed	2	34223	17112
				Southeast	Unemployed	5	15825	5275
					Employed	24	12034	708
				Other	Unemployed	17	27115	1130
					Employed	4	12847	2141
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	9	11673	1297
					Employed	12	14649	1221
				Southeast	Unemployed	25	7428	323
					Employed	17	3600	240
				Other	Unemployed	17	17131	902
					Employed	11	7206	554
18-29	Tertiary	Istanbul	Unemployed	3	8781	2927		
			Employed	3	11736	3912		
		Southeast	Unemployed	6	5175	863		
			Employed	11	1974	247		
		Other	Unemployed	0	14689	0		
			Employed	4	8793	1256		

Nationality	Marital status	Age-group	Education	Region	Employment status	Sample size	Population 2018/2019	Weight
Turkish	Single	18-24	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	41	172286	4202
					Employed	15	279985	18666
				Southeast	Unemployed	38	173102	5409
					Employed	26	120475	5020
				Other	Unemployed	32	322437	8485
					Employed	11	329211	25324
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	41	421556	10282
					Employed	13	231347	17796
				Southeast	Unemployed	50	303030	7215
					Employed	16	103440	8620
				Other	Unemployed	32	966710	24168
					Employed	12	464799	29050
		25-29	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	35	41892	1197
					Employed	9	116455	12939
				Southeast	Unemployed	24	45388	2269
					Employed	11	40434	4493
				Other	Unemployed	10	86028	6145
					Employed	6	160573	20072
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	33	41991	1272
					Employed	8	108282	13535
				Southeast	Unemployed	32	29368	979
					Employed	17	38165	2936
				Other	Unemployed	14	90771	5673
					Employed	11	197212	13147
18-29	Tertiary	Istanbul	Unemployed	30	178311	5944		
			Employed	21	457973	21808		
		Southeast	Unemployed	40	145511	4280		
			Employed	19	161970	9528		
		Other	Unemployed	23	454546	15674		
			Employed	13	697859	46524		

Nationality	Marital status	Age-group	Education	Region	Employment status	Sample size	Population 2018/2019	Weight
Turkish	Married	18-24	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	3	96738	32246
					Employed	1	32283	32283
				Southeast	Unemployed	3	101363	50682
					Employed	2	23813	11907
				Other	Unemployed	7	195082	24385
					Employed	1	73616	73616
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	5	23289	4658
					Employed	1	14407	14407
				Southeast	Unemployed	3	28222	14111
					Employed	5	12423	3106
				Other	Unemployed	2	94053	31351
					Employed	0	45477	45477
		25-29	Below secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	10	153093	15309
					Employed	6	115988	19331
				Southeast	Unemployed	14	167040	12849
					Employed	19	71116	3951
				Other	Unemployed	17	319894	17772
					Employed	19	239379	11969
			Secondary	Istanbul	Unemployed	13	58558	4504
					Employed	6	65881	10980
				Southeast	Unemployed	17	42146	2810
					Employed	4	46658	23329
				Other	Unemployed	15	173405	10200
					Employed	10	203946	16996
18-29	Tertiary	Istanbul	Unemployed	2	60776	30388		
			Employed	7	123335	17619		
		Southeast	Unemployed	5	35972	8993		
			Employed	6	69527	13905		
		Other	Unemployed	4	181520	36304		
			Employed	10	325430	29585		



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