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SOCIOECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF INTERNAL  
MIGRATION: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS IN SEVEN  
CITIES IN TURKEY

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## **ABSTRACT**

### **SOCIOECONOMIC DETERMINANTS OF INTERNAL MIGRATION: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS IN SEVEN CITIES IN TURKEY**

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M.S., Department of European Studies

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The purpose of this thesis is to explore whether or not there exists a difference between the old and new migrants who moved to Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, İzmir, Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa provinces pre and post 1990, and the disadvantaged residents born in the urban areas of these provinces in terms of education, health and employment.

To attain this aim, a theoretical framework, through which main features of the concept of disadvantageous were discussed. The overview of the literature, is based on these three dimensions of being disadvantaged, which are education, health and employment by using socio-economical characteristics as the interpretive tools. Therefore, the definition of disadvantageous centered on the notion of migration is accepted as a background of the study. In this respect, disadvantaged people are accepted as a group that experiences a higher risk of poverty and social exclusion than the general population.

This study was approached using a reanalysis of published secondary data under the framework of two European Union funded projects. This study was executed using an inductive approach beginning with the reviews and measures of data, detection of patterns and formulating specific hypothesis.

According to the analysis, the thesis has two major conclusions: Firstly, this study argues that newly arriving migrants are not automatically in a disadvantaged position in terms of health, employment and education indicators, but they are very similar to disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area. This is an important claim because in terms of disadvantageous, focusing solely on internal migration is not sufficient; the class inequalities should also be considered as the basis of the disadvantageous. Secondly based on the findings under the framework of the two European Union funded projects, it is clear that the designs of European Union funded projects are not always compliant with the purpose of the project itself considering the design, selected provinces or the target groups.

Keywords: Migration, Disadvantageous, European Union funded projects

## ÖZ

### İÇ GÖÇÜN SOSYO-EKONOMİK ETMENLERİ: TÜRKİYE'DEKİ YEDİ ŞEHİRDE MUKAYESELİ BİR ANALİZ

Dostlar, Derya  
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Bu çalışmanın amacı, İstanbul, Ankara, İzmir, Bursa, Gaziantep, Erzurum ve Şanlıurfa illerine 1990 yılı öncesi ve sonrasında göç etmiş eski ve yeni göçmenler ile bu illerde doğmuş dezavantajlı gruplar arasında eğitim, sağlık ve istihdam açısından bir fark olup olmadığını araştırmaktır.

Bu amaç doğrultusunda, dezavantajlılık kavramının ana hatları kuramsal bir çerçevede ele alınmıştır. Bu yönde gerçekleştirilen kaynak çalışması; eğitim, sağlık ve istihdam olmak üzere dezavantajlılığın üç alanını temel almakta ve bunların açıklanmasında sosyo-ekonomik faktörlerden yararlanmaktadır. Dolayısıyla, göç konusuyla ilişkili olarak dezavantajlılık kavramının tanımlanması çalışmanın zeminini oluşturmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, dezavantajlı grupların yoksulluk ve sosyal dışlanmaya maruz kalma konusunda nüfusun geri kalanından daha fazla risk taşıyan kesim olduğu kabul edilmektedir. Aynı zamanda, bu çalışma, Avrupa Birliği tarafından finanse edilen iki proje için yayımlanmış ikincil verilerin gözden geçirilmesi ile yürütülmüştür.

Çalışmada verilerin karşılaştırılıp gözden geçirilmesi, örüntünün saptanması ve belli bir hipotezin oluşturulması ile tümevarımsal bir anlayış benimsenmiştir.

İnceleme sonunda çalışma iki temel düşünceyi savunmaktadır: Öncelikle, yeni göç eden gruplar, söz konusu illerde doğmuş dezavantajlı gruplarla mukayese edildiğinde sağlık, eğitim ve istihdam alanlarında daha dezavantajlı değillerdir. Bu dezavantajlılık açısından önemli bir savdır, çünkü bu sava göre yalnızca iç göçe odaklanmak yetersiz kalmakta dezavantajlılığın temeli olarak sınıfsal farklılıklar da dikkate alınmalıdır. İkinci olarak edinilen bulgularda; tasarımları, seçilen il ve hedef grupları düşünüldüğünde Avrupa Birliği tarafından finanse edilen projelerin, seçilen iller, hedef grup veya tasarım açısından her zaman amacına uygun olmadığı görülmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Göç, Dezavantajlılık, Avrupa Birliği tarafından fonlanmış projeler

To My Parents...

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
DEDICATION.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
CHAPTER	
1.INTRODUCTION.....	1
2.GENERAL BACKGROUND OF MIGRATION THEORIES.....	13
2.1 Definition of Migration.....	13
2.2 Type of Migration.....	16
2.2.1 Internal Migration.....	16
2.2.2 Emigration.....	18
2.2.3 Other Types of Migration.....	19
2.3 Migration Theories.....	21
2.3.1 Ravenstein’s Laws of Migration.....	22
2.3.2 Lee’s Theory of Migration.....	23
2.3.3 Neo-Classical Theory.....	25
2.3.4 Dual Labour Market Theory.....	29
2.3.5 World Systems Theory.....	30
2.3.6 Immigration Systems Theory.....	32
2.4 Migration in Turkey.....	34
2.4.1 Characteristics of the migrants.....	42
2.4.2 Impact of migration.....	43
2.4.3 Selected studies on migration.....	49
3.WHO ARE THE DISADVANTAGED GROUPS?.....	58
3.1 Characteristics of disadvantaged groups.....	64
3.2 Dimension of to be disadvantaged.....	72
3.2.1 Health dimension.....	72
3.2.2 Education dimension.....	76

3.2.3 Employment dimension.....	81
4.RESEARCH .....	82
4.1 Background of the research.....	82
4.1.1 History and design of financial assistance.....	82
4.1.2 Projects.....	86
4.1.3 Research field.....	90
4.2 Data collection.....	100
4.2.1 Research question.....	100
4.2.2 Research methodology.....	100
4.2.2.1 Methodology of the research.....	100
4.2.2.2 Methodology of the first project.....	105
4.2.2.3 Methodology of the second project.....	110
4.3 Description of the findings.....	115
4.3.1 Findings of the first project.....	116
4.3.2 Findings of the second project.....	132
5.CONCLUSION.....	150
REFERENCES.....	162
APPENDICES.....	174

## LIST OF FIGURES

### FIGURES

Figure 1 : Family size according to cities.....	116
Figure 2: Population according to age groups.....	117
Figure 3: Population according to age and sex.....	117
Figure 4: Population according to the birthplace.....	118
Figure 5: ADKNS 2008 Immigration.....	120
Figure 6: Birthplace according to residence type.....	120
Figure 7: Immigration Time.....	121
Figure 8: Reasons for migration.....	121
Figure 9: Reason to choose the immigration place.....	122
Figure 10: Educational Status.....	124
Figure 11: School Attendance.....	125
Figure 12: Employment Status.....	126
Figure 13: Jobs.....	127
Figure 14: Reason for not working.....	128
Figure 15: Having Social Security.....	130
Figure 16: Health Conditions.....	131
Figure 17: Household size according to cities.....	132
Figure 18: Population according to age group.....	133
Figure 19: Population according to age group and gender.....	134
Figure 20: Population according to chosen sources.....	135

Figure 21: Population according to birth place.....	136
Figure 22: Birth place according to settlement type.....	138
Figure 23: Migration time.....	139
Figure 24: The reason of migration.....	140
Figure 25: The reason for choosing the current place to migrate.....	141
Figure 26: Educational Background.....	142
Figure 27: The reason not to attain to school.....	143
Figure 28: Employment situation.....	144
Figure 29: Comparative employment situation.....	145
Figure 30: Current job.....	146
Figure 31: Reasons for Not Working.....	147
Figure 32: Having Social Security.....	148
Figure 33: Health Situation.....	149

## **CHAPTER 1**

### **INTRODUCTION**

The purpose of this thesis is to explore whether or not there exists a difference between the old and new migrants who moved to Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, İzmir, Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa provinces pre and post 1990, and the disadvantaged residents born in the urban areas of these provinces in terms of education, health and employment. Additionally the study aims at analysing, if any, the differences between the provinces and the projects in terms of the socio-economic profile of target groups. Based on these findings under the framework of two of the European Union funded projects, the compliance of the design of European Union (EU) funded projects is questioned.

Based on the literature, although there is almost predefined stereotype of migrant and disadvantaged residents who are born and raised in urban areas, there is limited information concerning the differences or similarities between them. Additionally, in most of the publication, to be a migrant is the dominant determinant of classification. In particular, this research aims to find out whether it is possible to do such a classification, and whether the socio-economic situation can be the main determinant for all the groups. Socio-economic conditions are crucial because these inequalities are the indication of the unequal structure in modern society. The concentration and polarization of the poorest and the richest has caused the gap between the classes to increase beyond the settled area, and even with regards to basic services.

In this thesis, the following questions are the main focus: With the changing circumstances in recent years, who is most disadvantaged in society? Do we have to prioritise the groups? Can we separate them from each other? All the concepts are interlinked or cover each other, and influence the consequences and the causes. In this scope, the study is concentrated on two projects about the internal migration which are implemented in 2008 and 2009. Under the heading of social

and economic cohesion of European financial aids, the “Technical Assistance for Supporting the Municipalities of Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum for the Solution of Economic and Social Integration Problems” Project and the “Support to the Solution of Economic and Social Migration Problems in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa as Major in Migration Destinations” Project were the first and exclusive implementations in terms of the subject, beneficiaries and objectives which are designed to implement possible activities towards solutions for key economic and social integration problems which exist in Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, İzmir, Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa.

Economic and social cohesion, which is a part of the EU regional policy targeting to reduce disparities between its members and candidates by providing support in the area of job creation, health and education facilities, better standards of living, economic stability, social inclusion and other necessary strategies, aims to combat with unemployment and exclusion, which is a vital step in eliminating the negative pressures coming from the enlargement. With the Maastricht Treaty in 1993, cohesion became one of the main objectives of the EU.

The European Union provides financial assistance to member and candidate countries in order to support both the integration process of the Union, and to ensure that member and candidate countries integrate to the Union in the economic, social and political fields within the context of the *acquis* on regional policy. The financial assistance of the EU to Turkey started with the Ankara Agreement in 1964, and still continues with the new regulations. This assistance provided by the EU to Turkey following the beginning of the negotiations, is used in programmes and projects with particular aims such as providing grants or capacity building activities in different fields like Small and Medium Enterprises (SMEs), agriculture, society and tourism in order to help decrease the regional differences in Turkey in terms of development.

The financial structure of the EU assistance for the period of 2007-2013 has changed and been replaced by the Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance

(IPA), which supports not only the candidates but also potential candidate countries. It is designed to facilitate regional cooperation, economic and social cohesion, institutional development with respect to the fundamental freedoms, rule of law and non-discrimination, and also to prepare countries for the future administration of the Structural and Cohesion funds. It is divided into five main principles: the support for transition and institutional development, the cross border cooperation, regional development, the human resources improvement, and the rural development. ([www.abgs.gov.tr](http://www.abgs.gov.tr))

Internal migration in developing countries has been a popular topic of research in recent years. Researchers are encouraged to do intensive exploratory studies on the characteristics of rural-urban migrants for two main reasons. First of all, it is relatively easy to access the census data on migration and urbanization, and secondly the population movements are highly visible in developing countries because of both their magnitude and their impact on political sensitivities in urban areas. (ISRC, 1977)

In Turkey, especially after the 1990s, there were various researches conducted by academics, NGOs and by government institutions concerning the economic and social consequences of migration and forced migration. In the 2000s, these discussions were joined with the concept of urban poverty. This issue has frequently been discussed with the issue of new poverty and vulnerability. Some of these researches are briefly discussed in forthcoming chapters. However, there is not much empirical data available about the current situation of migration, and there is either no specific measure taken or little practice available to mitigate the social or economic integration problems of internal migrants. In this sense especially, the two projects aforementioned and their results are of considerable importance. Both the data collected during the implementation process, and also the action plans developed based on the results of the researches are really crucial in terms of contributing to the migration studies by accelerating the interventions of local administrations in the area of the socio-economic integration of the migrants. In my research, I will not focus on the issue of poverty, but rather on

certain socio-economical characteristics in order to evaluate the disadvantageousness based on three factors.

The basis of the study is these large-scale projects which I was personally involved in. As a matter of fact, I am not looking as an outsider to the original work, because I am an insider as I took part in the development of the original study. I did not do an evaluation of an existing study; on the contrary, I did an additional study in order to identify the existing gaps. I would like to discuss my approach to migration based on these existing gaps which need to be explored.

During my study, I went back to the original data, I reanalysed the existing dataset by focusing this time on the socio-economical features of both migrants and disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area. The originality of this study is its objective to show that newly arriving migrants are not automatically in a disadvantaged position, but are very similar to the residents settled in the urban area. This is an important claim because in terms of vulnerability, focusing solely on internal migration is not sufficient. It should be part of a broader approach addressing the vulnerability in the urban context in general. I did this analysis by focusing on three important areas of vulnerability, which are health, employment and education.

As of 1950, internal migration, which took the form of a mass movement, accelerated in Turkey. As a result of socio-economic changes in Turkey, poverty changed its form, and shifted from rural areas to the urban areas with another concept.

During the 1980's, neo-liberal politics under the name of structural adjustment policies had a crucial effect on agriculture and peasantry without land detached from rural life. This period is another landmark in migration history in terms of the multiple dimensions of changing social structure in both immigration and emigration places with high dynamism

Forced migration, which stands out especially during the 1990's, had traumatic effects on the migrants themselves; poverty, loneliness, social isolation and deprivation had long term negative impacts on migrants. The concept of "nöbetleşe yoksulluk" by Işık & Pınarcıoğlu emphasizes how poverty is transferred to the new migrants. It is obvious that the internally displaced migrants are the last ones who relieved guard (Işık O. and Pınarcıoğlu M., 2001). The reasons for migration, the socioeconomic conditions of migrating, the changes that appear in migration areas and the effects of migration on local populations have become the main topics of migration studies. Economic motivations and social justice have also been influential factors in a person's decision to move or stay (ISRC, 1977). The impacts of migration in Turkey and the relevant researches will be discussed in detail under the chapter of Migration in Turkey.

As a result of internal migration, lack of employment opportunities, and inadequate housing, economic and social problems and increased the poverty and deprivation among migrants have been created (Kentleşme Şurası, 1999). Due to their lower level of education, the unqualified migrants could not be involved in the labour market. Relatively speaking, while the average material deprivation was low, the disadvantage of migrants was greater in the regions. (Lelkes and Zólyomi, 2011)

Internal migration created, in the big provinces of Turkey, a group of disadvantaged people who are embedded in poverty and who are experiencing higher risks of potential discrimination and inaccessibility to basic services than the rest of the society. This process can also lead to further social exclusion, low levels of education and unemployment. Although the traditional solidarity networks and support systems have changed form, they still exist (Baykal, 2008).

Since the mid-1980s, the concept of being disadvantaged has become central to different social science disciplines. The main feature of disadvantaged groups is that they do not have access to the main economic, political and social

opportunities compared to the rest of society. If there are not enough structural social integration opportunities for all its members, the social system becomes segmented. These people are poor and in a more disadvantaged position than the majority of the society (Mayer, 2003).

Although there have been an increasing number of studies on poverty conducted by both academic and international organizations, they generally focus on the connections which are drawn between poverty and the structure of social inequalities. However, there is limited knowledge concerning the similarities and differences between internal migrants and disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area in terms of their socio-economic profile.

According to Kaygalak, poverty creates prevalent difficulties for disadvantaged groups including migrants and disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area. The largest group within the population at risk of exclusion are those at risk of poverty. Inequality is the most distinguished reason of poverty. Poverty in developing countries is usually a result of the inequality in income distribution and the differences among regions. The economic crisis, natural disasters, migration, wars, globalization and the restrictions caused by structural adaptation programs all increase the severity of poverty and cause the inequality and social-economic polarization between rich and poor people to increase.

Chronic poverty does not only mean deprivation of income, but also less access to material basic resources and services such as potable water, food, education, health, employment(Hulme, Moore and Shepherd, 2001).

The description of chronic poverty by the World Bank in 2000 captured all kinds of deprivations that constitute poverty such as material deprivation, low levels of education and health, exposure to vulnerability and risk, noiselessness and powerlessness. Overall poverty, as defined by the 1995 Copenhagen World Summit on Social Development, involves: lack of income and productive resources to ensure sustainable livelihoods; hunger and malnutrition; ill health;

limited or lack of access to education and other basic services; increased morbidity and mortality from illness; homelessness and inadequate housing; unsafe environments and social discrimination and exclusion. It is also characterised by a lack of participation in decision-making and in civil, social and cultural life (United Nations, 1995).

The concept of poverty is sometimes used as a substitute to the concept of social exclusion. But social exclusion is a more comprehensive and multi-dimensional concept which includes poverty. While poverty is related to distribution, social exclusion covers deprivation of social, cultural, economic and political participation. Social exclusion essentially focuses on the causal processes leading to deprivation; but social exclusion could be either the reason or the result of chronic poverty (Hickey and Toit, 2007).

Adopting a multi-dimensional understanding of poverty may cause further possibilities for relativity. Amartya Sen mentioned that “relative deprivation in terms of incomes can yield absolute deprivation in terms of capabilities”. The chronically poor cannot get out of the vicious circle of poverty unless they are able to convert income into well-being.

Sen’s capabilities approach was criticised by several commentators for lack of a coherent list of important capabilities in order to complete his framework. Nussbaum mentioned that this approach does not consider the distribution of needs for the varying circumstances of people. For instance, chronic poverty is prevalent among migrants.

Migration can either increase or decrease poverty. It could either lead to emancipation from poverty for the children of migrants, or cause even more poverty. This shows the paradox of migration (Kothari, 2002).

Following the weakening of welfare state and the reinforcement of neo-liberal politics, the nature of poverty is also transformed; some of the features of the

concept of being disadvantaged have gone beyond the concept of income poverty, and this conceptual shift complicated the possibility of integration to the rest of society. It has been stated that there is a change in poverty; housing and employment patterns have shown that these changes are some of the main factors sustaining the risk of social exclusion (Taşkan, 2007).

According to The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and EC, socio-economic integration can be measured by migrants' equal and proportional participation and representation in employment, education, health and housing, and according to the United Nations the absolute poverty threshold is equal to two or more severe deprivations of basic human need, which includes education and health.

It is widely agreed that low education is a determinant of poverty. The relationship between poverty and education operates in two directions: On the one hand, people with a higher level of educational attainment have a higher chance of getting better and higher paying jobs. On the other hand, without an adequate education people are often constrained to a cycle of poverty. Sen mentioned that inadequate education could, in and of itself, be considered as a form of poverty in many societies. Furthermore, keeping in mind that a higher level of education is the only way of eliminating poverty especially for children (Smits and Gündüz-Hoşgör, 2006; Dinçer and Uysal-Kolaşın, 2009), it can be stated that among the lowest educated group, the increase in poverty incidence has occurred mostly with the chronically poor (Suryahadi and Sumarto, 2007).

Social justice in education requires that all students should receive education based on their abilities and needs. Sometimes, social justice in education can refer to when the standard and quality of education is the same for all students, but this is not realistic considering the individual differences. The individual differences and needs are at the heart of social justice in education in order to achieve freedom in education (Polat, 2007).

Health is much more connected with poverty. People who are chronically poor have fewer opportunities to live in safe and healthy homes in a good neighbourhood. They cannot afford a variety of healthy foods. The health care and insurance services are sometimes inaccessible because of distance or lack of monetary resources. These and many other economic and social factors can easily and directly or indirectly affect and shape the health condition of a person.

The European Health Report (2002) indicates that poverty and ill-health form a vicious circle, poverty being both a major determinant of poor health and a potential consequence of it. Whether defined by income, socio-economic status, living conditions or educational level, poverty is considered the most important determinant of ill-health. According to the report, living in poverty is associated with lower life expectancy, high infant mortality, poor reproductive health, a higher risk of being exposed to infectious diseases, higher rates of tobacco, alcohol and drug use, a higher prevalence of non-communicable diseases, depression, suicide, anti-social behaviour and violence, and increased exposure to environmental risks.

Unhealthy conditions, which range from inadequate nutrition to a barrier in the access to healthcare services, could constraint the employability of people due to lack of physical, mental and cognitive development. From the Rawlsian justice perspective, the role and services of basic health institutions is more important than the health outcomes while questioning the social inequalities in health. Hence, if there is an inequity in health outcomes, this is the result of unjust social arrangements (Fabienne, 2001).

Factors like chronic poverty, health and education have an influence on employment and on participation to the labour market. The survival of the chronically poor is only possible with limited and less qualified employment opportunities. This cycle causes the regeneration of the same levels of education and health conditions. Even the risks that the work itself embraces can require increased health expenditure to maintain the same level of health. On the other

hand, if people acquire skills through education, then a higher level of educational attainment is associated with higher productivity of labour. Hence, education is expected to be negatively correlated with poverty(Hulme, Karen and Moore, 2001).

As Mitlin mentioned, the urban poor who are unable to sustain themselves except through the market, find their poverty embedded within limited employment opportunities (Mitlin, 2005).

In general, social policy refers to the organization of the relations of production and distribution in society for the establishment and sustainability of social justice(Tan, 2008). Social policy includes eliminating all the existing social, political and economic inequalities and it ensures justice in distribution. It could be described as the general framework of ideas and practices for providing social justice. From a sociological perspective, social justice is the equal distribution of allocation during and after production, and it includes taking necessary precautions in order to avoid the differentiation between social classes (Uysal, 2011). From a legal perspective, it is the equality of everyone in front of the law. Equality is a crucial factor in reinforcing the existence of justice.

Individuals cannot predict where they would hold a place on the threshold of social wellbeing. Therefore, the practices of social policy are crucial for providing social justice and for mitigating the inequalities.

This study is divided into four chapters. By analysing the different definitions and types of migration, the first two sections of the second chapter aim to briefly present the different basic theoretical approaches to migration, which have emerged around the world, so as to understand the context. In the last section of this chapter, some brief information will be given on the Turkish case of migration, and then it will be reviewed in different periods. These periods are 1923-1950, 1950-1980 and post-1980 which are the milestones of migration history in Turkey according to the literature.

The third chapter is devoted to the meaning of the concept of disadvantageousness. In the first part, the discussion is around the definition of disadvantageousness. The second part is assigned to the selected three dimensions of being disadvantaged. The overview of the literature based on these three dimensions, which are education, health and employment, are provided. The reason why these dimensions are selected is that they are the most widely accepted basic indicators of the unequal structure in modern society. The features of the concept of disadvantage are discussed using socio-economical characteristics as the interpretive tools.

The fourth chapter deals mainly with the research itself. In the first part of this chapter, the history and the design of the European Union financial assistance is revealed in order to shed light on the background of the two selected European Union projects. In this part, after looking through the history and structure of the EU financial assistance in the EU countries and Turkey, and their relation with the regional policy, the specifically aforementioned two projects are analysed in detail as the case studies within the scope of the EU funded projects, by which I would also have the chance to discuss and compare the current situation of internal migration and migrants in these seven cities in the following chapter.

The second part of this chapter looks at the background of the two selected European Union funded projects on internal migration. The third part of the same chapter is where the methodology of the research will be explained. The research was carried out in seven provinces of the two selected projects. This part mainly focuses on the content and organization of the field work; namely two field researches conducted under the framework of two European Union funded projects based on health, education and employment indicators. Relevant information about research techniques and the space of field work are provided. The last part is devoted to the analysis of the empirical data. In the first section, the socio-demographic profile of the respondents is given. This part deals with their analysis of the published secondary data collected during the

implementation of these two projects. The migration pattern, education, and health and employment data are analysed by using SPSS.

The results of the research are summarized and evaluated in the last chapter which is the conclusion with reference to the theoretical orientations of the study. In addition to this, potential questions for further studies can be found in the same chapter.

## CHAPTER 2

### GENERAL BACKGROUND OF MIGRATION THEORIES

#### 2.1 Definition of Migration

There are various definitions and approaches to the migration phenomenon which date back to very old times. Migration, in its most general sense, has been defined by Keleş as “moving from one residential area to another, moving from one country to another usually for the purpose of settling” (Keleş, 98).

Generally, the fact that people move in the physical environment is as old as human history. Migration involves the permanent movement of individuals or groups across symbolic or political boundaries, into new residential areas and communities (Marshall, 1998). Migration is a process which involves the repellent factors resulting from different problems in a settlement, it is also a process influenced by the attractive factors of the region to be moved to.

The Turkish Language Association defines the migration phenomenon as the movement or settlement of individuals or communities from one country to another or from one residential area to another due to economic, social and political reasons ([www.tdk.gov.tr](http://www.tdk.gov.tr)).

Correspondingly, İçduygu defines migration as a population movement which is caused by the geographical area changing process and alters the social structure in terms of its social, economic, cultural and political aspects. Moreover, İçduygu (1998) deals with the effects of the migration phenomenon on the social structure. While Kearney (1996) considers the migration phenomenon as the movement of the population over a particular geography, Lee (1996) describes the migration phenomenon as the permanent or semi-permanent movement of the population.

As mentioned in the definitions given, it is usually the demographic dimension of the migration that is firstly emphasized. According to Lee (1996), Faist (2003), Bozkurt (2000) and Barut (2002), who all regard migration as a population flow from one location to another, from a social or political unit to another, migration is one of the main factors affecting the population structure as well as other phenomena related to the population. The movement of individuals, families, groups or communities from where they live to another location due to natural and unnatural factors is identified with the migration concept. Migration is a continuous or discontinuous, individual or mass movement from a settlement, group or particular piece of land with political boundaries to another area. Considering migration as a demographic phenomenon and suggesting definitions on this basis bring about the fact that migration cannot be sufficiently defined. Likewise, migration results in considerable changes in the economic, social, cultural and political structure of communities (Akkayan, 1979), (Bayhan, 1997), (Özer, 2004).

In terms of economics, particularly international economics, migration is the transition of factors of production from one country to another. In a broad sense, social policy deals with the labour migration with its social aspects. As for the social psychology, it deals with migration in terms of the beginning of the migration process, the act of migrating and its effects, particularly within the framework of the psychological elements on the group and community level. On the other hand, sociology is the science that approaches migration from a broader perspective (Gezgin, 1994).

Migration is not a static phenomenon; it is a process that is perceived as a whole, together with its causes and effects. Factors such as place and time, cause and effect, the fact that migration is a process rather than a static phenomenon make the definition, measurement, analysis, explanation and interpretation of migration institutionally and empirically more complicated (İçduygu, Sirkeci, 1998).

From a different perspective, migration is the most important adaptation mechanism of the population following the familial changes (Kıray, 1999).

While in some countries, the mobility between the regions where different languages are spoken is identified as migration; in other countries, criteria such as the origin, the minimum distance between the emigrant settlement and the immigrant settlement are taken into account for the definition of migration (Hoşgör, 1998).

In order that a population movement is accepted as migration by the United Nations, the permanence of the act of settling is important. The United Nations indicates, “If the population movement participants live in their new settlement at least one year, this population movement may be accepted as migration” (Akgür, 1997).

Although at first the migration phenomenon may seem to be a simple change of place, it is actually a quite complex and elaborate research area. Analysing the migration studies only from economic, sociological or demographical perspectives respectively will not be an approach that can produce realistic analyses. Research studies which are conducted on a complex and multi-dimensional issue such as migration are fundamentally interdisciplinary: Sociology, political science, history, economy, geography, demography, psychology and law constitute the relevant fields (Brettell & Hollifield, 2000). At this point, migration not only becomes an object of research for these disciplines, but it also constitutes a significant set of data for the above-mentioned disciplines, because internal migration studies create a domain which facilitates understanding the transformations experienced by the community in terms of production methods and the structure of the settlement. Migration is not just a means of adaptation to transformation, but this adaptation includes social tensions as well. In order to be able to find a way to avoid social problems, migration should be planned out. In addition, migration itself serves as basic data, such that

many other social phenomena can be figured out (Tekeli, 1998) by looking at migration.

Concerning social policy, it is clear that migration has major effects on the community left behind and on the area of immigration, particularly when economic issues are taken into consideration.

## **2.2 TYPE OF MIGRATION**

### **2.2.1 Internal Migration**

Internal migration is the movement of a population from a dwelling unit such as a village, city or town to another dwelling unit in the same country for the purpose of residing (Keleş, 1998), (Tekeli, 1998), (Akkayan, 1979), (Üner, 1972).

Internal migration is defined by the State Planning Organisation as the fact that the population at age five or older in Turkey have different places of residence during the period between the two consecutive general censuses (Kocaman, Bayazit, 1993).

Internal migration movements have changed in terms of the direction of the flow based on the size and level of economic development of the countries, and the date of settlement. These changes came up in the following forms: “from rural to urban”, “from rural to rural”, “from urban to rural” and “from urban to urban”, but the main tendency in internal migration has been “from rural to urban” around the world in the last two centuries (Tümertekin, Özgüç, 2004).

Analysed in terms of the direction of flow, migration movements from rural areas to urban areas have occurred most frequently. This type of migration movement is defined as the migration of the people who are usually involved in agricultural activities to cities the economies of which depend on non-agricultural activities. Correspondingly, the need of labour force in urban areas, high income

opportunities compared to rural areas, relatively better services in terms of education, health and security in comparison with rural areas and a free and comfortable life are the factors of the urban residential areas that attract the rural population (Barut, 2002).

Migration movements from urban areas to other urban areas are defined as migration – mainly due to regional, economic and social imbalances- from small urban dwelling units to larger urban areas where there are more social and economic facilities.

Rural-rural migration is the migration movement from a rural dwelling unit to another rural dwelling unit. This type of migration movement is reported to usually be due to marriage etc. (Akkayan (1979) and Duman (2002)).

Urban-rural migration movement is the migration from an urban residential area to a rural dwelling unit. Because some people living in cities wish to lead a more peaceful life after enduring the hardships of the industrial and busy urban life, this type of migration movement, which is particularly seen in developed countries, occurs when people move from urban areas to rural areas (Ersoy and Sengül, 2002).

Generally, internal migration, which is largely based on the attractiveness and repulsiveness of a city, occurs due to several reasons depending on the special conditions of each country. These reasons are based on economic, social and political factors. Contemporary internal migration movements from rural areas to cities gained considerable acceleration for the first time during the Industrial Revolution. During this period, great migration flows from rural areas to cities took place (Başel, 2009). Considering the migration phenomenon principally and generally within the scope of the problem of migration from rural areas to urban areas, it is clear that the evolution, structural changes and demographic differentiations take place beginning from the rural areas to urban areas. In this context, migration is a process that is further away from the structure of

traditional societies and is closer to the structure of modern societies (Akgür, 1997).

Since people living in agricultural regions depend on the fertility of the land, the act of moving, apart from forced movements, is mostly caused by natural events. However, when talking about a voluntary migration, the existence of modern societies, nation states and free individuals is necessary. In this sense, internal migration turns out to be a feature of modern industrial societies (Tekeli, 1998).

### **2.2.2. Emigration**

External migration is the population movement carried out towards other countries by crossing the borders of a country in both directions in order to stay temporarily or permanently, to work or to settle (Üner, 1972) (Akkayan, 1979) (Keleş, 1998).

According to the International Organisation of Migration, generally speaking, international migrants are those who cross international borders in order to settle in another country, even temporarily.

Repellent factors in the emigrant country play an important role in external migration. Rather than the attractive factors of the immigrant country, the repellent factors of the emigrant country are of greater importance. Socio-economic balance, employment and education constitute the repellent factors of the emigrant country. People migrate when they are not at their desired socio-economic welfare levels or they are unemployed in their country of origin. External migration may be divided into two categories: labour migration and brain drain. Individuals who leave their countries due to economic reasons, underemployment, improper working conditions, etc., and move to other countries to work, constitute the labour migration movement towards foreign countries. On the other hand, labour requirement can be one of the attractive factors of the country one will immigrate to. Labour migration is a physical migration and the

migrants move so as to use their physical power under better conditions (Özdemir, 2008).

Highly qualified people who are in an area of expertise with few members, or who have a bachelor's degree or extensive knowledge in a certain field are included in the scope of the brain drain. The individuals in this group vary from highly qualified senior experts, directors, business administrators, merchants, investors, scientists and businessmen to workers in crucial fields and subcontractor (Gençler, Çolak, 2002).

For external migrations, the rules of international relations prevail. The migration phenomenon, conceptualised as immigration by the immigrant country, is emigration from the perspective of the emigrant country. The fact that international political and legal rules take part in the process of migration facilitates that the immigrant country –rather than the emigrant country- is determinant in this process. Immigrant countries may determine the quality and quantity of the immigration by profiting from these advantages.

External migration differs from internal migration in that there are dissimilarities not only at the physical, but also at the economic and cultural levels between emigrant and immigrant countries. In external migration, the political control of the migration movement is more determinate and the migrants have adaptation problems on multiple levels (Weiner and Munz, 1997).

### **2.2.3 Other Types of Migration**

Petersen (1958) divides migration into five basic categories:

Primitive Migration:

Primitive migration occurs when people migrate as a result of ecological factors. Here, the main driver that brings about the decision to migrate is of a geographic and natural nature. Primitive migration does not occur due to the curiosity of

people; therefore it should not be associated with the term “primitive”. This type of migration takes place when individuals cannot cope with the forces of nature.

#### Forced or Impelled Migration:

While the driving force is ecological pressure in primitive migrations, it is the state or the social structure in impelled migrations. Stating that the individual has a minor say in impelled migrations, Petersen suggests that the will of the individual has no effect in forced migrations. While in impelled migrations the individuals may continue their lives in the country where they immigrated by using their labour force, in forced migrations this is not the case. Nazi Germany may be referenced as an example. Through the policies applied at the beginning, the aim was to force Jews to migrate, and later they were put on trains that carried animals and were moved to concentration camps.

#### Free Migration:

In the types of migration analysed above, the will of the migrant is not a significant element. Since in primitive migrations the basic physical needs cannot be met, and in forced and impelled migrations the administrative and social structure compels the migration, the individual is usually passive. In the case of free migrations, migrants constitute the determinant factor and their motive is search for novelty.

#### Mass migration:

While the motive in free migrations is the search for novelty, in mass migrations the search for development comes to the forefront. As a result of the fact that the leading individual migrates to another place and establishes a kind of bond with his/her country of origin, the number of the people migrating to the same area quickly increases and the migration becomes massive. Before the mass migration takes place, nearly in all cases, the leading groups migrate and settle in the target

area. Since the migrants are in a social order, this type of migration cannot be evaluated with individual motivations.

### **2.3 MIGRATION THEORIES**

As stated before, research studies conducted on migration are interdisciplinary: Sociology, political science, history, economy, geography, demography, psychology and law constitute the relevant fields. Each discipline refers to a different aspect of the migration movements. Consequently, the contribution of these disciplines ensures that the migration phenomenon is more easily understood. As a result of this interdisciplinary approach, today there are many different approaches that explain migration processes.

Through various studies on migration, various perspectives have come up. In these studies, the motives and results of the migration have varied as well. Accordingly, migration theories have been developed. According to Massey, “While theoretic models suggested in order to explain the motives of migration have tried to shed light on the same issues, they have radically different frameworks, acceptance and arguments” (Göktürk, 2006).

When the history of migration is analysed, it is seen that labour demand caused by the dominance of the markets together with capitalism was determinant in migration movements. However, migration is a complex process for which the decisions of the individuals and families are important. “There is no general theory that fully explains migration, a phenomenon difficult to define and measure. There are various theories that contribute to a better understanding of the different sides and dimensions of migration as well as the sectorial processes. These theories deal with variables such as the attitudes of individuals and households as well as economic, social and political effects” (Toksöz, 2006).

As noted by Eurostat and Schoorl (2000), an integrated approach has not been created and adopted on the subject of migration; there are different theoretical approaches based on various disciplines.

### **2.3.1 Ravenstein's law of migration**

The first piece of explanatory information on the migration phenomenon is the article "The Laws of Migration", which was written by Ernst Georg Ravenstein in 1885 (Grigg, 1977).

The first of the classical migration theories at the macro level based on economy was introduced by Ravenstein. Ravenstein suggested that technological and commercial developments caused a migration from areas with many opportunities to areas with fewer opportunities, and that the choice of the destination for migration depended on the distance factor (Ersoy and Sengül, 2002).

Ravenstein suggested that the migration phenomenon depended on various laws and the act of migration was performed based on these laws. These laws are as follows (Grigg, 1977):

1. Migrants move (migrate) at short distances.
2. Migrants proceed step by step to the target destination.
3. Migrants moving longer distances prefer migrating to areas commercially and politically developed.
4. Each flow has a reverse flow. Each migration flow produces a compensatory reverse flow. The process of dispersion is the opposite of this emission (immigration) and it has similar characteristics.
5. The inhabitants of the urban settlements tend to migrate less than the inhabitants of the urban settlements.

6. Women tend to migrate more than men; however, men move more frequently compared to women.
7. The majority of the migrants are adults. Families rarely migrate.
8. Cities get bigger due to this migration (movement) flow.
9. Migrants develop the industrial areas and the transportation of the regions they have immigrated to.
10. Migration from rural areas to urban areas constitutes a major part of the act of migration.
11. The main reason of any migration is economic.

In this model, Ravenstein dwelled upon attractive and repellent factors, which are theoretically important in literature. This model deals with the factors concerning the emigrant area together with the destination of the migration.

The repellent factors that cause individuals to leave an area, and the attractive factors regarding the destination of the migration, are mediating variables that balance the interests of the people. These variables may contain both repellent and attractive factors at the same time. In other words, information on rational decision making processes and the migration phenomenon have come up based on migrants (Jackson, 1986).

### **2.3.2 Lee's Theory of Migration**

The lack of an integrated approach has been a problem within the field and has prompted a couple of scholars to develop a general framework. Lee (1966) has come up with an overall framework based on Ravenstein's studies on migration. Within this framework, Lee included origin, destination, personal problems and intervening obstacles as the factors which affect the decision to migrate. As noted by Kaygalak (1999), Lee developed a general approach primarily with Ravenstein's ideas, and created a chart which consists of the abovementioned factors of the decision to migrate.

Lee attached importance to the difference between the factors of origin and the factors of destination. He divided those factors according to the characteristics of migrants. For migrants in the origin, origin factors are not a source of anxiety because they are familiar with the problematic and advantageous parts of the origin. On the other hand, the place of destination is a great source of anxiety because they do not know the area. Lee divided the factors affecting the migration decision into three. The first group consists of factors which positively affect the migration decision, which make people stable (+); the second group consists of factors which negatively affect the migration decision, which force people to settle in a different place (-); and the third group consists of neutral factors which do not have any effect on the decision of migration (0). According to Lee (1966) and Todaro (1976), some factors, such as the desire to find a better job, earn higher salaries, etc, can be generalized despite some differences in reactions.

Life cycle is an important factor which affects migrants' feelings about their place of origin. If the general life expectancy is long within the area and if the migrants have been satisfied with their lifestyle; they would tend to over-evaluate their place of origin. This may lead to a prejudiced approach towards a new area of settlement, and the migrants may develop negative judgements about the new environment. Aside from the abovementioned factors, there are also intervening obstacles which affect the decision of migration. Those obstacles can be physical, legal, financial or personal. The place of destination may be quite distant from the place of origin; the immigration law may constitute a barrier, the process of migration may be costly, etc. There is also one more group of factors affecting the decision of migration. Life cycle and personal characteristics constitute the last group of factors. Although these factors may change depending on the reactions of the migrant, they can be generalized. Lee's general framework is criticized by Todaro (1976) for being shallow. According to Todaro, Lee's approach only helps analysts examine policies in developing countries, but does not provide a road map for determining the positive and negative factors.

Lee's approach is also criticized for not considering the ability of people in making a decision of migration. People may have a desire to migrate but they may not be able to actualize this decision due to a couple of reasons such as financial problems ([www.geog.ucbs.edu](http://www.geog.ucbs.edu)).

### **2.3.3 Neo-Classical Theory**

#### **2.3.3.1 Dual sector development model (dualist model)**

The study conducted on labour migration by Lewis (1954) is considered to be the first work carried out in this field among development models. As stated by Arango (2000), this study can be referred to as the forerunner of neo-classical theory.

Lewis's study is developed by Fei and Ranis (1961) as a model which is called as the LFR (Lewis-Fei-Ranis) model of development. In 1960s and 1970s, Lewis's model, which is developed by Fei and Ranis, was regarded as a theory forming a general framework for the development process in the area of labour surplus (Todaro (1976) , Todaro and Smith, (2003)).

The "Development in a dual economy" theory established by W.A. Lewis in 1954 formed the development model also called "Unlimited Supplies of Labour". This model suggests that labour migration plays a key role in the process of economic development. In this model, called the dualist model, Lewis attributes the development and industrialisation of developing countries to the transfer of the "Unlimited Supplies of Labour" in agriculture to the industry, and their employment in the industry. This model argues that the transfer of hidden labour in agriculture or excessive labour force to the industry would be enabled through differences between the subsistence wages earned in rural areas and the wages in urban areas. Due to the impact of this "difference in wages" or "difference in income", the villagers will quit agriculture and join the industrial labour army in cities. In case this development does not occur naturally, Lewis argued that this

should be done forcibly by the state. In that sense, it contradicts with the natural developments of the societies (Sezal, 1992) (Lewis, 1954).

The Lewis model has some problems and deficiencies. Firstly, the model accepts that there is a continuous demand for labour from the industrial sector. However, the model ignores the effects of developing technology. New technologies used in factories decreases the need for human labour. Furthermore there is also a risk for all industries to decrease in importance, which will also result in the decrease of the need for labour. Secondly, it should be noted that higher incomes earned may be directly spent rather than saved, as a result, the capital needed for investment may not be found. Lastly, the model needs to include the problems and factors of urban poverty as well as rural poverty.

<http://www.bized.co.uk/virtual/dc/copper/theory/th8.htm>

### **2.3.3.2 Neo-Classical Micro Economic Theory**

The neo-classical migration theory, developed at the micro level by Todaro and Borjas in the 1960s and 1970s, analyses the reasons why people react to interregional differences by migrating. Thus, migration comes out as a result of the rational decisions made by the individuals who wish to raise their standard of living by moving to places that offer high wages (Toksöz, 2006) (Ersoy, 1985). Like the macro economic theory, the micro economic theory also focuses on labour market; it additionally suggests that the individuals do benefit analysis (Güllüinar, 2012).

Todaro states that the decision to migrate arises as a result of the rational and economic assessment of the financial and psychological benefits and costs (Kaygalak, 1999). Following the comparative analysis of the benefits and costs of migration, the decision to migrate has been made by the individual himself. At this point, the difference is the fact that not only the issues regarding wages are assessed, but also the conditions and other cultural relations in the area to be immigrated to are taken into consideration (Schoorl, 2000). The analyst has to consider not only the difference between income in the rural and urban areas; but also the difference in the income expectations. Migrants mostly have high expectations on earnings as well as the real income parameters. There is always a possibility of unemployment. Todaro (1969) underlines a vicious circle related to migration from rural to urban areas. The more job opportunities there are, the more people will be attracted to migrate to the area, which would result in a higher rate of unemployment. This circle is called the “Todaro Paradox”. As the modern sector is growing, there will be more job openings. Thus, more rural workers will migrate to urban areas with the hope of finding a job in the modern sector. However, if the number of open positions does not cover the number of migrants; if there are more migrants than the number of new job openings, there will be a surplus of workers and higher unemployment rates.

The period spent as an unemployed migrant comes after the income differential in terms of importance in an increasing order. According to Abadan-Unat (2006), these decisions should be regarded as an investment in human capital.

### **2.3.3.3 Neo-Classical Macro Economic Theory**

The Neo-Classical Macro Economic Theory explains the development of labour immigration within the process of economic development. According to this theory, supply and demand disparities in the labour market are the driving force behind immigration. It asserts that labour emigrates from low-wage countries to high-wage ones. Just as the disparities among wages could increase the rate of immigration, a decline in these disparities could reduce the rate of immigration. The variable in this model which entirely focuses on labour market is the price of labour force (Schoorl, 2000).

Social scientists such as Ranis, Fei, Todaro who were inspired by the neo-classical theory of the 1960's have applied the theory on immigration (Toksöz, 2006). The neo-classical economic approach focuses on macro and micro theories, the disparities between wages and employment conditions in different countries, and the cost of immigration. Furthermore, this approach deals with the movement of immigration as a personal choice, in line with the maximisation of incomes (Göktürk, 2006).

At macro level, immigration results from the unequal geographical distribution of capital and labour. This situation shows itself in the inequalities between wages and living conditions, and immigration occurs due to the push of supply and the pull of demand. Here, the shift of labour force emerges from the agricultural sector in rural areas with a manpower surplus, to the industrial sector in urban areas. In this model, this shift is considered positive and the surplus of manpower is benefited in the urban industrial sector which rapidly develops due to its capital stock and technological development (Ersoy and Sengül, 2002). The decline in

wage differentials slows down the movement of labour and leads to the end of immigration.

As Ersoy and Sengül have indicated (2002), this approach, which hypothesizes that the manpower coming from rural areas would create a balance between employment and wages, has failed to achieve the prospective validity in less developed countries. Because the manpower surplus which arises from both the natural increase of population and the urban-rural immigrations, and which continues to escalate, was not sufficiently employed by modern industry in less developed countries.

#### **2.3.4 Dual Labour Market Theory**

Developed by Piore and other social scientists throughout the end of the 1970's, the dual labour market theory associates immigration with the structural needs of modern industrial societies, and puts the emphasis on the immigration motives of immigrant-receiving countries (Toksöz, 2006). As a result of the needs of industrialised societies, and the characteristics that form the basis of labour market, manpower immigration is highly and continuously demanded (IOM, 2003). According to this theory, the intriguing factors of countries that receive immigration are more significant than the driving factors of emigrant countries. The main reason behind immigration is the manpower need of modern economies where people are to immigrate. Manpower immigration is necessary for developed countries in terms of the economic structure (Piore, 1979) (Disbudak, 2003).

Depending on the presence of capital-intensive and labour-intensive sectors both within the labour force market and at the level of enterprises in developed countries, there is a dual structure in labour force market. Workers employed in capital-intensive primary sectors are skilled labourers who work with high technology and equipment in occupations which require intensive knowledge, competence and skill. Since employers invest in these employees by training

them, they cannot easily dismiss these people from employment because there is a balance between capital and skilled workforce. As for the secondary sector in which unchangeable employment conditions are experienced, labourers perform tasks that do not require any skill, and they can easily be dismissed during an economic crisis period. The heaviness of the working conditions and the absence of a promotion make it difficult for local employees to accept such occupations (Lordođlu, (2004), Toksöz, (2006)). According to this theory, local workers at the bottom of the hierarchical classification in developed countries prefer to become unemployed instead of working in secondary sector firms looking for unskilled labour. Therefore, vacancies in the primary sector are predominantly filled by local employees while immigrants turn towards the secondary sector (Abadan-Unat, (2006), Vural, (2007)).

According to the new economics of labour migration theory, there are three main financial factors which trigger immigration: the first is that, due to family bonds, individuals usually care about their family interests as well as their own interest, and decide for their mutual benefit to immigrate; the second is assurance for the future, and the third factor is investment which, as part of the immigration plan, is intended to be fulfilled back in the homeland (Bozdađ and Atan, 2009).

### **2.3.5 World Systems Theory**

Another approach that aims to explain the phenomenon of immigration is the “World System” theory elaborated by Wallerstein, Amin, Galtung, Castle and Kosack, and further developed in the 1980’s (Güllüpinar, 2012). Mainly focusing on the distribution of unequal economic and political power in world economy, this theory is different in many aspects from others. The World Systems Theory, within the frame of Marxist thought, argues against theoretical approaches that explain immigration on the level of individuals that move according to driving and intriguing factors, and indicates the importance of defining immigration in its full sense and with its dynamics, capital collection processes, and material and

structural processes of unequal development (Kaygalak, 1999). Developed on the basis of the economy-political approach, this theory is shaped according to the concept of “reserve army of labour force”. According to this approach, labour force should always be reserved for the development of capital accumulation and capitalist economy. Through this reservation, the bargaining power of workers is reduced, and conflict areas emerge in the working class movement. Within this framework, it could be suggested that the masses of people who immigrate and go under the process of being a worker, create a “reserve army of labour force” in the labour force market (İçduygu, 1998).

This theory is an alternative approach that puts emphasis on centre-periphery relations or other relations based on the benefit and exploitation between developed and less developed countries. While immigration is seen as a cheap labour movement for capital accumulation, it helps rich countries get richer, and ensures the continuance of their unequal development and the exploitation of poor countries. According to these approaches, immigration benefits developed countries by helping them use the labour force sources of poor emigrant countries instead of being a mechanism that ensures modernism and development, and it also negatively affects the socio-economic prosperity of developing countries.

The focus point of this theory is the capitalist system. The dynamics of the capitalist system within the world economic system creates an active population in developing countries and thus, developing countries get closer to the world system. They aim to reduce costs by importing cheap labour force from other countries. The primary objective here is to maximize their profits with cheap and skilled labour force. This motive comprises the phenomenon of immigration for labour force (Wallerstein, 1976). According to the theoretical approach of Wallerstein, capitalism and its various reflections are the main points that determine the world economy and thus the pattern of immigration (Wallerstein, 1995).

This approach has been criticised for various reasons. Aside from the disparities and changes in immigration policies, this approach reduces immigration dynamics to a single dimension. However, it has been considered insufficient because it takes the interest of the capital as the main factor in explaining immigration processes. Handling the phenomenon of immigration solely from the perspective of capital makes it difficult to analyse the social dimension of immigration.

### **2.3.6 Immigration Systems Theory**

This theory makes an interdisciplinary approach and suggests that the process of immigration is complicated. Immigration systems theory deals with international relationships, political economy, collective acts and structural factors. Immigration system describes the exchange of immigrants between two or more countries. This approach analyses the flows of immigration between connected locations. In fact, these connections categorize and compare the relationship between one country and another and build family, cultural and social bonds (Castells and Miller, 1998). International immigration occurs especially between imperialist countries of the past and their former colonies.

Trans-national relationships might be built both between different countries and through family, cultural and social bonds. In short, it is necessary to look into the micro and macro structure in order to understand the sense of the immigration movement (Toksöz, 2006). This theory's main goal is to consider the phenomenon of immigration as a result of the interaction between micro and macro structures. Macro structures encompass legal, political and economic regulations and relationships which are built by countries in the world economy and which are related to the control of immigrants.

Besides these connections which are formal in fact, there are informal connections. As for micro structures, they encompass the networks, notions and implementations of immigrants and complicated environments where immigrants

and non-immigrants live together. These two levels are connected to each other through a series of linking mechanisms referred to as mediate structures. Macro structures include the laws, structures and implementations set out in immigrant / immigrant – receiving countries for controlling the settlement of immigrants, the economy policy of the world economy, and trans-national relationships. In immigration systems, immigration movements could result in the alteration of macro and micro structures(Castells and Miller,1998).

Classic theories are insufficient in describing immigrant masses, explaining immigration movements, and foreseeing future immigrations. For example, according to Castles and Miller, the people that emigrate from the least developed countries to rich ones are rarely poor individuals; they are generally middle class people who inhabit regions that undergo a social and economic change.

When considered especially from the perspective of trans-nationalism, the assumption, asserted in most immigration theories, that immigrants will only abide socially, culturally, and economically to the laws of the countries they immigrate to, has completely been refuted today. The trans-nationalism approach which has become highly popular today, argues that immigrants can not only maintain their relationships with the country they immigrate to, but also sustain communication with their homelands or other nation states and communities.

As a conclusion, we can state that there have been various differences in the research area of the phenomenon of immigration due to the globalisation of communication and acceleration and facilitation of international immigration. Recently, issues such as the trans-national bonds of immigrants, immigrant entrepreneurs, ethnical markets, education and identity related problems of immigrants, their social adaptation to the country they immigrate to and their future have begun to be handled more frequently, and immigration has remained on the agenda of the world, even though this is by various means (Güllüpinar, 2012).

## 2.4 Migration in Turkey

Researches about domestic migration in Turkey during the republic period review migration in three historical phases in general (Akşit, (1998), Tekeli, (1998)). The examination of the population growth in urban and rural areas during the republic period reveals these three phases concretely. There is no big difference in the period of 1923-1950, which is the first phase. The jump in the urban population growth reveals that migration expanded from rural to urban especially during the years 1950-80. From 1980 to 2008, the population growth rate in rural areas has decreased, and urban population growth has lost its increased acceleration after the second great jump between the years 1980-85.

Migration movements during the period of 1923-1950 and -except external migrations- compulsory migrations which emerged as a result of drought, landslide and earthquake, were part of the resettlement movement of some groups within the formation period of the nation state with the Settlement Law in 1934. This is because no great-scale domestic migration movement was observed within the national borders until the 1950s which is regarded as the turning point of migration history in Turkey (İçduygu and Sirkeci, 1998). As for urban and rural population rates in this period, it is visible that the population balance of rural and urban areas did not change much during this period of 23 years. While the urban population was 24, 2% in 1927, it became 25% in 1950 (Turkish Scientific and Technical Researches Institution, (TUBITAK)).

Domestic migration in Turkey gradually got a mass feature starting from the second half of 1940. From the 1950s onwards, a series of transitions took place in economic, social, political and cultural areas. These transitions took place after the immigration of people from rural to urban areas. There are several reasons for this immigration: the high rate of natural increase of population and increased average life-span associated with a decrease in death rate, easier transportation between villages and urban areas, an increase in the number of news channels, the modernization of agriculture associated with mechanization, the

monopolization of agricultural areas, land division associated with the sharing of inheritance. This is a period of disengagement from the village and peasantry (Peker, 1999).

The main characteristics of this migration between the years of 1950-1980 is orientation towards urban from rural. As Tekeli stated *"This is a migration which was caused by the disengagement which started in rural areas while the country, which was late for industrialization, was going through the initial phases of the demographical transition period."* (Tekeli, 1998). After the Second World War, like all other world countries, Turkey also started to develop, and at the same time long-term investments which were made during the republic period started to yield results (Erjem, 1997). One reason for the long term domestic migration from rural to urban areas in Turkey is the agricultural policy which was established in the 1950s, and in relation to that the modernization period in agriculture which had started with the realization of the Marshall plan (Tekeli, 1998). Disengagement from jobs based on land in rural areas caused a serious need of labour force for the industrial and service sectors in urban areas. As a consequence, the immigration of rural people to the newly emerged industry centres with the purpose of permanent settlement was added to the immigration of seasonal agricultural workers. A geographical activity started to become visible at the greatest rate in Turkey (İçduygu and Sirkeci, 1998).

The main characteristic of the period of 1950-1955 is the fact that the migration-receiving areas of that time are metropolitan cities today. While Istanbul became a centre of attraction for all cities in the Black Sea and Eastern Anatolia regions, Ankara became the centre for immigrants from Central Anatolia and Eastern Anatolia.

Although allowing relatively less immigrants, cities in the Aegean and Mediterranean regions met migration in this period as well. In Eastern Anatolia, the cities of Kars, Ağrı and Erzurum were immigrated to. The main feature of the period of 1950-1955 is the fact that most of the cities which were migrated from

are in the Black Sea region, and that a relatively low rate of migration occurred from Eastern and South-eastern cities to other cities in the region (Eraydin, 1981).

Furthermore, most of the immigrants in this period are males, because many people who came to big cities left their families behind (Öngör, 1965).

Ankara got ahead of Istanbul proportionally in terms of getting immigrated to in the period of 1955-1960 and İzmir also started to take its place as a centre of attraction. During this period Bursa ranked as one of the preferred cities of migrants. This situation lasted until the year 1980. Istanbul let in immigrants from the South-eastern Anatolia region and the southern region of the Aegean at a limited rate, but allowed for much higher rates of migration from the Black Sea, Marmara, Central and Eastern Anatolia regions. Ankara generally became a centre of attraction for people who immigrated from Central and Eastern Anatolia, İzmir on the other hand let in immigrants from the Aegean and partially from Marmara. On the other hand, Adana was exposed to migration from some parts of the Mediterranean, South-eastern and Central Anatolia. While Istanbul generally received immigrants from neighbouring cities, it continued to be a centre of attraction for farther cities as well. (Öngör, 1965).

Furthermore, as a result of the policies implemented during this period, foreign capital inflow accelerated, agricultural production expanded, trading credits widened, and the number of small and medium enterprises in cities increased (Peker, 1999).

The period when the structures of urban areas and the transitions of these structures marked the domestic migration is between the years 1960 and 1980. Urban areas were unable to absorb the rural population which flowed rapidly in a Turkey that could not make progress towards being an industrial society. The industry which would employ the labour force flowing from rural areas could not make progress at an equal rate; on the other hand urban areas could not provide the dwelling formation which would shelter the intruding population.

Consequently, a mass of migrants which were living in shanties and trying to earn their living from secondary economic sectors became the weighted part of the urban population. This mass of migrants provided the sustainability of migration waves together with migration net.

In the period between the years 1965-1970 as the migration to Ankara continued, the migration to Istanbul became even greater. In the period of 1975-1980, Istanbul became the city which let in the greatest number of immigrants. During this period, an increase in the number of immigrants to İzmir was also observed; however, Kocaeli became the second city to let in the largest number of immigrants after Istanbul. This progress is important as it manifests the relation between industrialization and how it attracts populations (Eraydin, 1981).

Developments during the 1970s profoundly impacted national economies together with the globalization period, and brought about important changes in the spatial structures of countries. While the traditional industrial regions of all countries were going through recession and tension, in some regions considered rural or underdeveloped, a financial activity was observed. "New/local industry groups" to a great extent, based on some factors such as equity capital, structure of local entrepreneurship, technologies and relations of flexible production capacity could be a good model for the extension of industry to rural areas (Özdemir, 2004).

In the 1960s and 1970s, the type of migration headed towards big cities such as Ankara, İstanbul, and İzmir was rural to urban migration, but towards the end of the 1970s urban to urban migration type started to gain importance. While rural to urban migration characterized the migration movements within the first five years of the 1970s, rural to rural migration started to gain importance in the last five years of this period. At the beginning of the period, while the rate of rural-urban was 74%-26% respectively, in 1975 this rate became 59%-41%. This rate is the highest level of urbanization reached in the history of the republic. In 1980 these rates became 55% for rural and 45% for urban (İçduygu and Sirkeci, 1998).

The second period is the period of interurban migration which gained importance in 1975 and has been important up to today. The rate of urban to urban migration in Turkey reached twice the rate of the rural to urban migration. In other words, the urbanization period of Turkey was completed in terms of the spatial distribution of the population. That is to say that the main migration category which emerged from the urbanization period is the migration from urban to urban. The main mechanism resulting in migration at this point changed.

*"As of now, it is not right to talk about a migration which resulted from a structural transition but to mention one that resulted from the inequality of spatial distribution of economic opportunities"(Tekeli, 1998).*

There were also some other migration periods which were not revealed by the natural sociological dynamics and thus stayed out of this historical evaluation, but which nonetheless affected the current migration dynamics radically.

In the 1980s, the transition towards "neo liberalization", which was being implemented in agricultural policies until then, had great effects in rural areas. This transition also provided a basis for the separation of livelihood enterprise and landless peasantry, which had a significant place in the agriculture of Turkey, from the rural areas. In this regard, the low quality of life in rural areas, which is one of the main reasons of migration in the country, became more explicit together with the significant decrease of income due to some developments in the agriculture sector especially after 1980 -except for effects such as population growth, division of areas etc.- (Günaydın, 2001). The population that migrated from rural to urban areas was calculated as 860.445 between the years 1980-1985 and 969.871 between the years 1985-1990 (Ersoy and Sengül, 2002). While the population growth rate was 0 62.61% between the years 1980-1985, in rural areas there was no population growth but the opposite: the rate decreased by 0 10.58%. This situation continued between the years 1985-1990. While the population growth rate in rural areas was minus 5.56, the population growth rate in urban areas was calculated as 43.10% (Tümtaş, 2007).

When the domestic migration history of Turkey is examined, it is clear that the period from 1980 onwards is a significant jump period. The most explicit feature of this period is the acceleration of the separation of rural populations and the exposure of cities to intensive migration flows in parallel with socio-economic policies implemented during this period. Migration with the military coup d'état and for other political purposes was added to this intensive migration wave. At this point, and especially since the middle of the 1980s until now, a migration wave from the South-eastern region heading towards the metropolitan areas of the country and abroad has been in question (İçduygu, 1998).

During the 1980s and 1990s, Turkey met concepts such as free market economy and privatization. Meanwhile, the perception of modernization together with the period called "globalization" brought Turkey's encounters with both international and local problematic areas to agenda. The migration pattern which is explained by "transmitter" factors became evident especially in this period. On the other hand, during this period, domestic migration became much more intensive with the contribution of political factors in Turkey. The division of compulsory and voluntarily migration became a part of this intensity. The GAP (South-eastern Anatolia Project) Region on the other hand has become one of the regions where migration gained speed most in the last years. Especially the terror problem which threatens the security of lives and property in rural areas caused compulsory migration movements in the region. Within the framework of this migration, the population migrated at a significant rate to neighbouring cities which seemed safer such as Diyarbakır, Van, and then to the West and Central Anatolia regions, namely to Istanbul, Izmir, Adana, Mersin, Bursa. This situation increased the already existing urban problems to an extraordinary dimension (İçduygu and Sirkeci, 1998).

From the 1920s to the 1990s, we mostly see economic factors (cost of living, unemployment, poverty) standing out as the reasons of migration, and people who migrate voluntarily head towards urban regions from rural ones because they aspire to live better lives in the cities, and want to benefit from health and

education services adequately as well as enjoy the social activities in the cities (Göktürk, 2001).

After 1990, various researches revealed that there was a significant change in this situation and migration gained an involuntary dimension and forced migration quality. Depending on the type of migration, a significant change in the reason and quality of the migration appeared, and "security" took the place of economic reasons in migration.

During the 1990s economic problems and political and social tensions dominated the agenda of the country. The basis of these problems and tensions were the events occurring in the Eastern and South-eastern regions since the beginning of the 1980s. Due to the environment of clash in the region during those years, the biggest mass migration movement took place in the history of the republic, and many people migrated from the region. This migration movement shows a difference from others in terms of reason and quality. The basis of the difference is "obligation". People, who did not plan migration to urban regions with its economic and social dimensions, did not have preparation, and expectation for such a migration was stacked up urban areas and they encountered to individual deadlocks (Göktürk, 2001).

According to the data of TGYONA (Turkey Migrant and Displaced Population Survey) conducted at Hacettepe University, the number of migrants who migrated for the reason of security in this period could be between 953.680 and 1.201.200. Some non-governmental organizations submit higher numbers than submitted by OHAL and HÜNEE. According to these non-governmental organizations, from approximately 400 dwelling units, over three million people (TESEV, 2004) migrated compulsorily during this period.

There is no research that enables an evaluation of the distribution of this migration heading towards cities in the western region of Turkey. However, there are several studies conducted about each city individually.

In Turkey, population growth rates in regions became more evident and big cities lost their qualities of being the centre of attraction. The direction of migration slid to local centres which have development potential. Today, the rate of urban-urban migrations shows a significant increase.

The rate of urban-urban migration reached 70% in the 2000s. From the 1990s onwards, there have been different regions of attraction in terms of the development dynamics of Turkey. When it comes to cities, according to the 2000-2009 migration statistics of TÜİK (Turkish Statistics Institution), Istanbul, Ankara, and Izmir are the top three cities in Turkey that both send and receive the highest number of migrants.

When we look at the sizes of the populations which migrated to other cities, and that of the populations in the cities which took migrants in 2000 and 2008, Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir are at the top ten in both periods. When the net migrant population size of the cities is compared, the order of the cities changes, but the net migrant populations in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara, Bursa and Antalya have been in the top 5 in both periods.

When we look at the migration flows of the cities which take in migrants, the fact that Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, Antalya and Bursa are the leading cities has been mentioned above. Istanbul took the highest number of migrants from Tokat, then from Ankara and then from Ordu. Izmir took most of its migrants from Manisa, Istanbul and Ankara respectively. Antalya took migrants mostly from Istanbul, Konya and Ankara respectively. Bursa took most of its migrants from Istanbul, Erzurum and Muş respectively in the years 2007-2008.

When we look at the cities from which the highest number of people migrated, the highest number of people migrated from Istanbul to Tekirdağ, Tokat and Kocaeli, from Izmir to Istanbul, Manisa and Aydın, from Bursa to Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir respectively. Lastly the migration flow from Antalya went to

Istanbul, Ankara and Burdur primarily. All these demographical activities provide information about the domestic migration map of Turkey in accordance with the data from TÜİK.

#### **2.4.1 Characteristics of the migrants**

The report "Internal Migrations in Turkey and Socio-Economic Characteristics of the Migrants" prepared by Tuncer Kocaman for DPT (State Planning Organization) includes a detailed analysis of the migrations which took place from 1995 to 2000. There is no detailed study about migrations after the year 2000 (Kocaman, 2008 (33-51)).

When we look at the characteristics of the migrants between the years 1995 and 2000 in terms of age groups, it is visible that the percentage that migrate at an early age decreases in time, and the percentage that migrate at working age is at the highest level and then decreases at advanced ages. Again, when we look at the marital status of the people migrating from city to city at the same period, we see that single people and divorcés migrate from city to city more often. As for the gender of the migrants, men who have never been married and married women seem to migrate more from city to city.

The educational level of the people who migrated between the years 1995 and 2000 is higher than the educational level of the overall population. When we evaluate this in terms of sex, we see that the educational level of the men who migrated is higher than that of the women. When the educational situations of the migrants are evaluated in terms of accommodation units, the migrants who went from city to city have the highest levels of education, and are followed by the migrants who went from a city to a village, village to city and village to village. When a comparison is made in terms of the schools finished, the percentage share according to the school types in the period of 1980-1985, 1985-1990 and 1995-2000, is highly above the percentage shares calculated for Turkey.

Even though the men who migrated found more job opportunities compared to the women who migrated, more men become unemployed. However the rate of the unemployed men and women who migrated is below Turkey's average. While 57%, that is, 87 of the ones who migrated at the age of 12 or higher between the years 1995-2000 are a part of the labor force (employment unemployed), 42%, that is, 13 are not.

The rate of the women migrants who did not join in labor force is very high compared to men. The majority of the men who are not in the labor force are students and retirees. Naturally, the vast majority of the women who are not in the labor force are housewives and students.

The large majority of the migrants who migrated at the age of 12 or older in the period between 1995 and 2000 carry out similar economic activities through services. 61%, 06 of the migrants carry out economic activities through services, 1%, 79 through industry and 24%, 15 through agriculture, forestry, fishery and hunting in the related fields. The percentage of male migrants carrying out economic activities is much higher than that of women.

The vast majority of the migrants at the age of 12 or older between 1995 and 2000 work as paid, salaried or casual workers. 80%, 93 of male migrants, 50%, and 01 of female migrants work as paid, salaried or casual workers. While only 5%, 57 of the men carry out activities as unpaid family workers, 44%, 95 of the women carry out activities as unpaid family workers.

#### **2.4.2 Impact of migration**

The transformation in cities began in the 1950s. The fact that sources were firstly used for industrialization caused the sources reserved for urban infrastructure and co-consumption to remain fairly limited. Since the cities allowed immigrants intensively during this period, there was a huge demand for urban infrastructure

and services. The indifference of the government to these demands caused the immigrants to create their own solutions (Şengül, 2002). Building shacks, forming an informal sector and similar formations were among these solutions.

The movement of migration which gained speed especially after the 1950s not only increased the prices of houses in cities, but also led to squatting. The main problem of cities in which there were many immigrants was the squatting due to the lack of houses. During the process of squatting that began in these years, the socio-economic, political and administrative structures of the country were affected (Keleş, 2004).

The main feature of these early shacks was that the immigrants from towns to cities built those houses on treasury lands with their own labor force. The reason why these shacks were built during this period was that the immigrants had settlement and accommodation problems (Kartal, (1992), Keleş, (2004), Isık and Pınarcıoğlu (2003)).

Immigrants not only solved their accommodation problem, but also created “an investment area” by building shacks. They considerably invested the money they had saved in the city, and the sources that they transferred from the town in shacks, so that they could both find shelter for themselves and provide social security by saving money (Kartal, 1992).

Sema Erder (1996) stated her observation in her study “Ümraniye: İstanbul’a bir Kentkondu” that shantytowns have become new ways of income in big cities such as Istanbul. As it is especially seen in the example of Istanbul, the fact that those displaced people live in different areas of Istanbul in line with their own territories, towns, villages and that they provide living spaces for themselves, might be worth considering. In a plane where ethnic and religious people have started to create their own economies and sectors individually, it is interesting to see that especially these community leaders and their surrounding groups provide vertical mobility in terms of society.

Similarly, while Oğuz Işık and M. Melih Pınarcıoğlu (2001) explain the historical and semantic transformation of the “shanty” concept referring to the example of Istanbul-Sultanbeyli in their study “Nöbetleşe Yoksulluk: Sultanbeyli Örneği”, they state that shanties have become new areas of income so they have led to some new wealthy groups. In other words, while shantytowns provide a social mobilization for some previously settled groups; this mobilization is provided by using the sources of poor people who have newly settled. This means that poverty is transferred from one group to another. Poverty rotation is a poverty strategy of finding and developing the gaps of the system thanks to the ability to form communities with the transformation capacity of the poor and informal groups. The townsman ship is a strategy that uses Islam, Shiism or other ethnic origins to form solidarity between communities, and that enables the members to earn money by using each other in these communities (Işık and Pınarcıoğlu, 2001)(Kaya , Işık, 2008).

Shanty remissions have an important role in this transformation. In addition, the shantytowns became centers of attraction for new villagers coming to the city and there was a concentration in the same places among people who generally had a relationship or townsman ship. Shanties are areas where immigrants, marginal workers and people who are in financial difficulties and who do not have a regular income are living, where children are uncared for, where education is insufficient and where large families live together in small spaces. These people lose their characteristics as villagers; but do not adapt to urban culture either (Kentsel yoksulluk, göç ve sosyal politikalar: kentselleşme şurası, 2009). On the other hand, despite the elapsed time, the reason why urban immigrants still cannot adapt to urban life and remain “urban villagers" is due to employment without security and sufficient wage in informal sectors and the limited capacity of benefiting from urban services and educational institutions.

These dangerous environments with harsh conditions have caused immigrants to apply for traditional solidarity mechanisms, to act together with their relatives

and other immigrants, and to be organized in community relations. Regarding urbanites or “notable urbanites” as different and mostly “advantageous” (young second-generation immigrant) and “superior” (middle-aged first-generation immigrant) prevents the immigrant from feeling a sense of belonging to a new environment. The most explicit reason of this is the solidarity among immigrants and the townsmanship (Erman, 1998).

While Birsen Gökçe (2004) defines shanties as “rur-urban”, she also defines them as a buffer mechanism used by immigrants in integrating with urban life by referring to the concept “buffer mechanisms” used by Mübeccel B. Kıray (1967). While the shanties help rural people adapt to urban life thanks to relationships such as affinity and townsmanship, they also cause individuals to form a separate sub-culture in the aforementioned relations. According to Kıray (2000:20), “the buffer mechanisms are new organizations, relations, values and functions which do not belong to either social structure. Thanks to these buffer mechanisms, various aspects of social structure are connected to one mechanism and the aspects which are not a part of functional integrity are lost. Therefore, there is a possibility of relative balance in the transformation of society.”

Townsmanship plays a role as a buffer mechanism in the new life of the immigrant. In the new environment where urban immigrants are disadvantageous socially and economically, the need to establish a relationship which will give them support and assurance has brought up an organization on the basis of townsmanship. Güneş-Ayata (1991) defines townsmanship as “a mechanism for identity”. This indicates the need for an identity and the identity gap in the immigrant’s life. Güneş-Ayata found in their research on people from Erzurum who live in Ankara, that there are people among the excluded group who came from the West of Turkey, who are non-sectarian and who live in Ankara. The highlighted point here is that the settled population in the center of Ankara (“urban elites”, “urban notables”, “modern urbanites”) determines the limits of the townsmanship group. Namely, the first rule of being “we” is to have immigrated from a rural to an urban region (Erman, 1998). Townsmanship is the

identity of individuals which enables them to distinguish themselves from both urbanites and villagers. On the other hand, according to Tekeli, even if housing is supplied to immigrants from rural areas legitimately, these people will still live in shanties. This is because shanties are similar to the socio-cultural lifestyle and the physical environment of villages (Mutlu, 2007).

The adaptation problem during the shift to urban life results from the distinction between urbanization and urbanizing. While urbanization represents the concentration of the population in cities, the concept of urbanizing is a process in which social change as a result of urbanization creates changes in behaviours and relations, value judgments, and the moral and material life styles of people. Therefore, primary relations such as affinity, townsmanship, and neighbour relations are long-lasting (Kartal, 1983), (Özer, 2004). Due to the fact that the urbanization problem in countries where migration-based urbanization is common is regarded as a spatial order and a construction of urban facilities and infrastructure, this problem is ignored in terms of humanity, education and business opportunities (Başel, 2007).

Migrants intended to establish a relationship with town-dwellers in order to benefit from their experiences and be civilized in the 1970s. On the other hand, the 1990s became a period when the desire for living in better conditions was stronger. Furthermore, there were people who went back to their villages because they could not adapt to urban life (Tekeli, 1977), (Ozturk, Altuntepe 2007). Many studies concerning the consequences of internal displacement in Turkey after 2000 indicate that internal migrants have come to the fore as “new urban poors” (Kaygalak, (2001), Altuntaş, (2009), Saraçoğlu, (2009)). Migrants in poor neighbourhoods, where major dimensions of urban poverty such as social discrimination, social exclusion and chronic poverty intensify geographically, are even deprived of facilities that old migrants had, such as dwelling, working and earning an income. New urban poverty conditions have caused a decrease in employment opportunities, and thus prevented migrants from holding on to urban life. Since the rates of unemployment are already high, the labour supply created

by migrants has lowered the wages in the labour market, and made the living conditions worse for internal migrants (Kaygalak, 2001).

Women, children, the uneducated, the old, the disabled, and people who are employed in the agricultural sector or in unsecured and irregular jobs constitute a large portion of those who suffer the most from poverty and social exclusion. Among these groups of people, women make up the most disadvantaged group. Many researchers conducted at various times have pointed out gender differences as an important issue in terms of the consequences of migration and the migrants' interactions with the place to which they moved. In her study on families who migrated to Ankara from central and eastern Anatolia, Sibel Kalaycıoğlu expressed that migrant women are forced to draw back from the labour market since their husbands or relatives do not “allow” them to work at any outdoor job.

The flow of migration in the 1990s, however, failed at creating informal mechanisms like citizenship due to its speed, violence, and changed capital accumulation during these years. As their participation in urban life occurred oddly enough, the status of internal migrants has changed from “producer” to “consumer” in a short time, and serious problems like poverty, low labour force, and the fact that children are obliged to drop out and work in order to contribute to the family budget have broken out, which influences both their present and future lives adversely. In these families, the number of children per house is high, the space in the houses is narrow and of a poor quality; they are deprived of the benefits of social life and properties (house, field) that they had, but after migration pose a problem, they do not bring money while using green cards. Providing assistance for those who are looking for ways of going back, the campaign “Homecoming” remains incapable (İlkkaracan, 1999).

The results of another study on street children conducted on Sakarya Street, Ankara, are also remarkable with regards to the problems of internal migrants. Almost all the children who were interviewed were from uneducated and low-income families that migrated to the urban region, and they had difficulty

adapting themselves to the urban life. According to this study, the migrant mass was faced with adaptation challenges besides housing, nourishment and psychological problems. These families who live in the slums are employed in low-wage and unqualified jobs, and are obliged to make their children work because of the cost of living. Problems they face in the adaptation process like cultural degeneration, low-income, marital conflict and domestic violence have caused family dissolution and have eventually forced children to live on the streets. Family structure has undergone many changes because of the rural culture and life style, and urban facilities (Bayraktar, 2007) (Işık, 2007).

Local differences in urban areas have led some sections to be excluded. Local differences in low-income neighbourhoods are determined according to ethnic and denominational identities, and conflict among residents has increased. According to the assessments of the study conducted by Erman in 2008, old residents who had migrated from the central Anatolian region to Ankara-Hıdırlıktepe regard Kurdish people who came there afterwards as a problem while the reactions of both groups towards Gypsies dwelling in the upper part of the neighbourhood are negative. Some slum areas are known by their “Kurdish” and/or “Alevi” identities, which politicize neighbourhoods, and create inequalities in terms of access to municipal services in particular. People’s tendency to see each other as “potential enemies” due to ethnic identities has been increasing (Erman, 2008).

### **2.4.3 Selected studies on migration**

There have been remarkable researches conducted in the past 20 years on internal migration. Although the data concerning internal migration is limited in Turkey, these researches shed light on migration issues in Turkey.

1) In their study “Poverty and Social Exclusion Experienced in Shanty Areas in Large Cities of Turkey” (2006), Keyder and Adaman mention that it is not possible to specify the borders of shanty areas precisely Yet, these areas hold

common features; it is not possible to mention urban planning of these areas, because the buildings are built in one day. The buildings are of a bad quality. Illegal use of electricity is common. Due to the narrow streets, the garbage trucks have difficulty reaching the necessary areas, or the fire trucks and ambulances may experience troubles in case of an emergency. The background is inadequate. Groundwater is polluted because the canalization system is inadequate. The playgrounds, parks, and the public buildings are under the city average in terms of quantity and quality.

The exclusion based on poverty, production and sharing processes are directly related to social exclusion within the country. On the other hand, within the scope of cultural and political aspects, unrecognised or unclaimed rights cause social exclusions as well. Researchers have shown that people who are exposed to social exclusion belong to different social groups (the disabled, the old, people in need of care, street children, etc), and that social exclusion may be experienced in different areas of life (education, health, labour market, political rights, etc).

Within the scope of this study, the social exclusion in Turkey has been observed, emphasizing especially the shanty areas and the ghettos of six large cities (Adana, Ankara, Diyarbakır, Gaziantep, Istanbul and Izmir). The study has shown that poverty leads to troubles when trying to access basic services such as health, education, and housing. Almost two thirds of the participants in the research did not hold a health or employment insurance or the right to pension. We have also seen that these participants have trouble accessing education (the majority said that sending their children to school costs a lot), and they experience insufficiencies in the health department as well (for example, one fifth of the houses are not equipped with the water circulation system, and one fifth of them have their toilets outside). The literacy rate in shanty areas seems to be quite low; more than one fourth of the participants are illiterate, and only less than one fifth of them graduated from high school. Thus, it is not surprising that one fourth of the participants feel socially excluded due to their level of education

Poverty also increases the problems experienced by disabled people. The participants complained about the fact that public health and education services are of bad quality and insufficient. The complaints in this sense were as follows: the supply of education and health services is low in shanty areas compared to the rest of the city (for example, the health units are insufficient in terms of equipment and the personnel, the classrooms are crowded), pre – school education and healthcare services for old people or children are insufficient. After school activities provided for children are insufficient in terms of quantity, and people are charged illegal and additional amounts of money in educational and health services. The research also clarifies that in some cases, girls are not sent to school or they do not continue school after a specific grade due to cultural reasons, the education services for the disabled people are insufficient and of bad quality. The research states some concerns about the fact that people in need of protection, living in shanty areas experience immense problems. These problems are as follows: young people lack an appropriate environment that would enable quality education facilities (after school activities are limited, classrooms are crowded, and there is a lack of appropriate environment for studying at home). Furthermore, some of the children are forced to work part – time or full –time, or to look after a child or an old person in need of care at home instead of going to school (for example, in large families some of the children work to support the family financially, some take the responsibility to look after a person in need of care, and only some of the children can benefit from education services, which are already of a low quality (Adaman and Keyder, 2006).

2) “Internal Migration in Today’s Turkey: The report “is it an integration or return?” covers the field researches conducted in Mersin, Diyarbakır and Istanbul. This study deals with forced migration and the experiences of the people exposed to forced migration, comparing their lives before and after migration and observing their desires to return to their hometown. For this purpose, interviews have been conducted in Istanbul with people who are exposed to forced migration and with the representatives of some non – governmental organizations conducting works regarding forced migration. Moreover, negotiations with the

authorities from the municipalities (Kadıköy, Ümraniye, Kartal, Bakırköy, Beyoğlu and Bağcılar), and with the representatives of the provincial administration and Istanbul Chamber of Commerce were conducted in September and October, 2007. In the winter of 2007 and 2008, five common group discussions were conducted in different districts (Küçük Çekmece, Bağcılar, Ümraniye, Kayışdağı and Tarlabası) with the participation of the people who were exposed to forced migration.

The basis of forced migration:

1- Forced migration is conducted due to security reasons. While a lot of people have emphasized in interviews that they do not have any contact with terrorism, some said that the problems they experienced with their relatives or neighbours due to different local factors led them to be forced to migrate.

2- While the majority of people who are exposed to forced migration is formed by Kurdish people living in rural areas, meadows or mountain villages in the Eastern or North- eastern part of Turkey, some of the people living in towns are exposed to forced migration as well.

The route of forced migration:

1- The immigrants decided on their routes immediately under a forced condition, regarding their traditions, social capital and economic potentials.

2- The closest provinces or towns being the priority, a flow of population to neighbouring cities have been conducted.

3- On the other hand, the majority of people who were exposed to forced migration moved to the city centre of provinces such as Diyarbakır and Van where there are villages.

4- The financial status of the immigrants, their social network, relatives, and places they have been to before for any reason (for example, as a seasonal worker) played a crucial role while identifying the route of migration.

The conditions in destination:

1- As in the case with the people who are exposed to forced migration, the residential areas, being the destination of the immigrants, were not prepared to host a flow of population either.

2- The intensive migration, which is conducted in a short period, caused the expansion of shanty areas and unplanned urbanization due to the inadequacy of residential buildings in large cities such as Istanbul and Diyarbakır.

3- Social Assistance in Turkey: Within the scope of the study conducted by Buğra and Keyder, a wide range of negotiations have been conducted with the representatives of the related institutions and with the official authorities. This report covers the study conducted in seven large cities (Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, Samsun, Diyarbakır, Batman and Mardin) and includes the interviews with the authorities from Community Centres, Social Services and Child Protection Agency (SHÇEK) and local official authorities. There have also been focus group discussions with the participation of the people from the Community Centres. This study briefly deals with the struggle against the financial difficulties experienced by the people, and aims at increasing the current status of support programmes by observing the obstacles faced in performing these measures.

It is obvious that permanent financial disabilities cause many obstacles in different areas of life, such as education, health, nutrition, safety, etc. In this sense, the children of the families with financial disabilities are likely to benefit from education services less than the children of the families who can afford the costs of education. On the other hand, regarding the fact that education is essentially free, it is possible to think that the reason why children of poor

families cannot benefit from educational facilities is that their families force them to work. However, when these families were interviewed, they expressed that it is because of the cost of extra expenditures such as the uniform of the schools, school books, stationery equipment, and the illegal extra charges asked by the school.

It is also possible to mention that people who are forced to migration slowly lose their contacts and ties with their motherlands due to financial obstacles.

Currently, the social networks, family ties or community centres, and the NGOs seem to be insufficient in combating the various obstacles mentioned above. In this regard, the assistance of the state gains more importance for the social protection of the people who are exposed to forced migration. Yet, it is not possible to say that this assistance alone can prevent the risk of social exclusion.

In this sense, the municipalities and the Solidarity Fund should support the fight against social exclusion. At this point, it is important to benefit from the activities of the Fund through the Green Card policies, until the more beneficial universal health insurance policy can be provided. It is also important to deal with the incompetence of the bureaucratic procedures to ensure the effectiveness of the policies, and to provide all of the focus groups with the aforementioned services.

4) GAP Regional Development Administration and METU conducted a research on the flow of population and the seasonal and permanent workers in 1992 – 1993 with the participation of 2800 volunteers. The study was based on fieldworks and interviews with the participants. Within this study, migration is examined from the aspects of regional urbanization characterized by the inequalities between the urban and rural areas, and from the aspects of migration to the other cities out of the scope of GAP with the aim of seasonal or permanent working, which is caused by the unequal development of the regions.

Almost 40% of the families do not own their own field for agriculture and nearly

the same percentage of families own a little field and they conduct cereal production. Thus, these families need temporary or permanent migration to increase their financial status. Low income, the conditions of agricultural production, owning insufficient fields, the insufficient employment rate of the cities in the region, population pressure and political unrest seem to be the main reasons of the flow of population in / out of the region. Even though the success and sustainability of the renewal in agriculture is ensured, it should be assumed that the future of the people in the region will be shaped in the cities, and thus the planning should be based on this fact.

According to statistics, Gaziantep seems to be the most migration – receiving city. Adiyaman, Şanlıurfa, Diyarbakır and Mardin subsequently follow Gaziantep. When the cities outside the GAP region are regarded as well, the people migrating to the region of Adana – Mersin are mostly from Şanlıurfa, Mardin and Diyarbakır, and a low percentage is from Gaziantep and Adiyaman.

The rural areas have a young population. Thus, this population is a dynamic contribution to the work force and economy. On the other hand, the educational level of the people migrating to the cities is low, and they are regarded as unskilled workers in many of the cities. The main demographic feature of these people, who generally migrate together with their families, is that they have large families.

The number of cities and the population in the region are on the rise. But, none of these cities stand as an industrial, commercial or a tourism centre. The development of these cities depends on the marginal activities. Except some residential areas, the region lacks an industrial culture. The majority of the people are unskilled, and the rest are experienced only because they worked as apprentices. Thus, the main problem the work force faces is unemployment.

The people migrating to Istanbul and Izmir form the majority of the people migrating to the cities out of the region. This flow generally includes the adult

son, or recently married household heads, supporting the increase of the income of the family, and decreasing the population pressure. The people in this group seem to be more educated and skilled when compared to others. The majority of the people in this group are employed in the construction sector, and they are part of a temporary migration. The probability of the shift of this temporary migration into a permanent one is around 50%.

It is impossible to stop or limit the migration to the cities. Thus the accumulation in cities causes social and economic troubles. The flow of population experienced in the region in recent years shows that this situation may get even worse.

5) Another study conducted by Kaygalak in Mersin / Demirtaş district covers the effects of urbanization especially on the immigrants and the other workers in cities. The study is based on a questionnaire which includes 25 semi – structured and 253 structured questions.

With its heterogeneous demographic structure, Demirtaş district represents an important feature of Mersin. While being a home for the native inhabitants, this district has been a host for the immigrants from Eastern, South-eastern, and Central Anatolia, and the Mediterranean Region for almost 35 years. Especially after 1990, this region became a priority for the immigrants from the Eastern and South-eastern regions.

Social and locational differentiation, forming the important aspects of urban poverty, causes a lack of housing, employment and a high income opportunity for the new immigrants in the city because the old immigrants already benefit from the available opportunities. Thus the new immigrants face the risk of permanent poverty.

The flexibility of the production processes which is another reason of urban poverty, and the expansion of the production through sub – contracting, which leads to an increase in informal employment, both affect mostly the immigrant

workers.

The localization of immigrants both depends on the strong interaction between migration and urban poverty, and also strengthens this interaction. The informal solidarity in finding a cheap field for housing, or in finding a job; the racial, ethnic and religious discrimination experienced in some cases, led the immigrants to dwell in suburban areas of the city. Thus the aforementioned interaction is strengthened, and the localization of the immigrants increases.

As a result, the findings of these researches show that today the people working with a salary in cities go through an impoverishment process, locational differentiation becomes stronger, and migration and “forced migration”, which is peculiar in Turkey, cause the expansion of impoverished populations in cities and the localization of poverty.

## CHAPTER 3

### WHO ARE THE DISADVANTAGED GROUPS?

According to its definition in the Turkish Language Society, the concept of “disadvantage” means “not being advantageous”. The word “advantage”, whose origin is French, refers to superiority and acquisition (TDK, (Online), <http://www.tdk.gov.tr/>, 22.10.2012). In this regard, the concept of disadvantage can mean being deprived of superiority and acquisition.

Similarly, "disadvantage" can also refer to a condition or a situation which causes problems that make someone or something less successful than other people or things. (Cambridge dictionary)Therefore, the concept of disadvantageous becomes clear with a comparison among individuals. These problems that individuals face are putting them in a disadvantageous situation compared to other people. Another concept relevant to disadvantage can be called “social disadvantage”.

Social disadvantage refers to the difficulties that prevent people from participating completely in society and that decrease their chances of living. These difficulties may include the following disadvantages: economical poverty, bad health conditions, disability, and lack of education, lack of ability and unfair treatment or discrimination (Scutella, Wilkins, Horn, 2009). This particular definition of disadvantageousness implies that the competence of some individuals is limited on its own.

International Law of Human Rights defines the disadvantaged groups as the ones who cannot use guaranteed rights without restraints. According to local and regional changes, socio- economic and cultural features make a difference in categorizing the disadvantaged groups. Disadvantaged groups include women,

children, people in need of social, economic, and cultural support, disabled people, and other minorities. Financial problems are generally what all disadvantaged groups have in common (Mayer, 2003).

Racial differences, financial deprivations and sex are among the causes of disadvantaged groups, but not having access to resources and being discriminated against are more important than those stated above. There could be multiple obstacles and some are easier to handle when compared to others. Every single group has its own ways of expressing its disadvantages and its own unique ways of handling problems. As Mayer states, handling obstacles and being adequate could be achieved in many different ways, and creating new ways of getting adequate resources is among those ways.

Financial problems and social isolation are some of the high risks that disadvantaged groups could go through as European Union states. Having difficulty in taking quality education service or finding jobs or not being paid equally or being socially isolated are some of the additional problems of being disadvantaged like being a member of ethnic minorities, migrants, being disabled or homeless, using substances, being a senior citizen or a child (Social protection and Social inclusion Glossary. DG Employment, Social Affairs and Inclusion).

The United Nations Development Programme has mentioned the obstacles that cause disadvantageousness, such as economic obstacles, inadequate social service, legal and institutional discrimination, inadequate support for alternative tools, limited communication, lack of awareness or indifference to special needs, lack of trust for government agencies and lack of physical accessibility. As a conclusion, we could say that the concept of disadvantageousness is in a close relationship with the obstacles in reaching the tools which provide the adequateness of people on their own (UNDP, 2005).

The concepts stated above are recognized by the law and international law of human rights try to make them more common and more widely accepted, but

there is no consensus on the concept of disadvantaged groups or the assortment of people according to their current situation.

The existence of vulnerable and disadvantaged people goes back a long time in history. In ancient times, some people were treated different than others, and this has just continued till today. The condition of disadvantageousness usually occurs as a result of some action. In this respect, discrimination is a significant concept which causes disadvantage and depends on social prejudices.

Social status, politics, and financial and cultural elements are used as ways of tormenting, bullying and discriminating against people. People who engage in those types of behaviour try to set up new barriers in front of people. If they have barriers in front of them, people will have difficulty reaching resources, and this would end up excluding them from society while guaranteeing the rights of the discriminating group. In other words, the disadvantaged groups turn into people who serve the rich and powerful. (Report on Human Rights of Vulnerable and Disadvantaged Groups, 2012).

Göregenli states that prejudices include an evaluative attitude and negative dogmatic beliefs based on groups of people as opposed to individuals, , and discrimination comes to existence when these prejudices affect behavior (Göregenli, 2007).

This happens when we keep a distance between an out-group from an in-group by separating them socially or physically, and by making this relatively permanent. The more the hierarchic organization, unfairness, building of power, and discourse structure on power is important in a society, the more the prejudice and the discrimination towards disadvantageous groups will rise. Discrimination stemming from individual or social attitudes can come in two different ways to disadvantaged individuals or groups as direct and indirect.

There are two types of discrimination: direct discrimination and indirect discrimination. Direct discrimination is when people behave more negatively and are thus more open to social risks. People who are exposed to direct discrimination can use their legal, guaranteed rights which are approved by both the international law of human rights and countries' constitutions. As for indirect discrimination, when any act results in something against a group of people, whether this be on purpose or by accident, if there is no valid excuse to act like that, this is called indirect discrimination (Kolatz, 2007).

Torment is the common result of both types of discrimination. The design to isolate people is shaping an environment where people are bullied and treated badly and unfriendly. People's vulnerability is deprived by financial agents but these agents are not directly related to gender, disability, social, cultural, customary, caste and other types of discrimination. This proves that financial agents are not that powerful indiscriminating people, when considered only agents. Every society has its own traditions and basic practices like health or consumption, so such resource availability criteria could be used for the measurement of vulnerability and abnormalities. The results of the said study could give more specific data on vulnerable and disadvantaged groups (Report on Human Rights of Vulnerable and Disadvantaged Groups, 2012).

As we have mentioned, the fact that disadvantaged individuals find themselves in less appropriate situations or conditions compared to other people, and the fact that they are referred to as "disadvantaged" stems from the presence of obstacles in their ways. Issues like prejudices which stem from individual and societal attitudes, discrimination, exclusion, applied state policies and unequal conditions via the state, poverty and difficulties in reaching resources, etc. all establish social obstacles (Yıldırım, 2011).

There are barriers that prevent people from accessing resources, and this is one of the leading causes of the existence of disadvantaged people, as Mayer has mentioned in his studies. In order to explain the term barrier, resource absence,

resource inapproachability, public opinion on those groups, government and corporate actions and groups' current situation are all involved.

The concept of equality of opportunity supports the idea that everyone has different privileges or disadvantages given to them at birth, and as long as people are not all provided with the same opportunities regardless of their inherent differences, the equality of everyone in society cannot be achieved. In that sense, equality of opportunity actually supports the idea of "equality from birth". Discrimination causes inequality of opportunity and individuals face unequal conditions. If discrimination continues we cannot talk about equality of opportunity (Çağlar, 2009).

Another important concept is poverty. Poverty causes disadvantageousness and limits the living activities of individuals remarkably. Poverty has several definitions, and these can vary depending on the regions. Essentially, poverty is the condition when people have little or no means to afford their basic needs and do not even have the minimum necessary life standards to live (Şenkal, 2005).

Poverty affects different masses that do not have production resources to live, do not have the access to education and fundamental services, are in hunger and malnutrition, are living in insecure environments, and are exposed to discrimination and exclusions.. Poverty affects powerless, defenseless, vulnerable and delicate population structures more severely, such as children, women, elderly, handicapped and immigrants. As we have already established, poverty also makes resources inaccessible, and are the reasons these groups do not have sufficient education and employment opportunities (Duyan, 2010).

One of the basic approaches to the concept of disadvantage is social exclusion. The concept was officially used for the unprotected parts of the population in France in 1970. The concept which is used in many European countries today shows the extent to which they failed to be a part of social and political life, and the dimensions which marginalize human beings. Therefore inadequacy of access

to resources or services makes the participation of individuals or groups in society more complicated (Scutella, Wilkins, Horn, 2009).

According to Sapancalı, social exclusion covers the causes and effects of poverty, discrimination and other disadvantages. It draws attention to the question of who lives in poverty and why. Along with this, it also pays attention to economic, social and political processes which push people into poverty. It focuses on different forms which cause the direct impoverishment of people. Social exclusion draws attention to multidimensional deprivation and helps to understand poverty. In that sense, it is clear that social exclusion is related to concepts mentioned before such as disadvantageousness. Likewise while defining the disadvantaged groups, excluded groups are also used.

Differentiation in disadvantaged people is increasing. Constant poverty, long-term stagnation, education deprivation, difficulty accessing the labor market, and homelessness could be listed among those new groups. These concepts have close relations with social, economic and political issues when compared to disadvantaged people because of race, gender, age, handicap, and ethnicity. Both lists cause social isolation, but the first listed criteria have strong bonds with classic poverty aspects. According to Taşkan (2007), there is great difficulty in classification, taking action, aspects and measurements of disadvantaged groups because of changing approaches and reactions from society to society.

Levitas (2007) defines social exclusion as the insufficiency of resources, rights, goods and services, or the inability of individuals to participate in social relations and activities. Saundres (2007) defines social exclusion as rupture from social activities due to the inability to be in a social relation with other parts of society, the inaccessibility of necessary services or exclusion from services, the limited access to economic resources and low economic capacity.

According to these definitions, social exclusion refers to the state of being excluded from resources and/or services, and this situation is caused by

inaccessibility, unattainability, inability, hardships and the lack of communication. In the nature of disadvantageousness, it is seen that individuals or groups are exposed to obstacles that cause them to be less successful in life compared to other individuals or groups.

Şahin states that social exclusion comes to existence through the inaccessibility of all individuals and groups to society, or their failure to achieve their full potentials. He wishes to determine whether the difference between social exclusion and poverty is just in the name, or whether it has brought new aspects to disadvantages and social policy. While social exclusion is a new term which includes the poverty for some, some think that it is the cause or result of poverty (Şahin, 2010).

### **3.1 Characteristics of disadvantaged groups**

The word “disadvantaged “generally refers to the presence of an inadequate condition or situation, and individuals rarely (socio-economic status, level of education, etc.) or never (mental inadequacy, race or ethnicity, etc.) change this condition or situation. These negative conditions may depend on the structure of society as well. The Social Development Commission under the roof of The United Nations Economic and Social Council draws attention to these matters. According to the commission, the concept of being disadvantaged refers to all groups who face structural obstacles in accessing resources, acquisitions and opportunities. These obstacles stem from the present power relations in society, and are related to the value given by society to every group (United Nations Commission for Social Development, 1997).

The World Health Organization defines disadvantaged people as people who experience social exclusion, stress, anxiety and low self-confidence more often than others, who have little control over their home and working lives, and who

face obstacles while trying to access services and resources (Wilkinson, Marmot, 2003).

Generally, in all definitions it has been stressed that social obstacles that individuals experience cause disadvantageousness, and these obstacles stem from society. Furthermore, it has been stated that these obstacles can prevent people from living on their own by affecting their daily lives.

Amartya Sen's work gives the rationale of the approaches mentioned above like the capabilities (e.g. income, education, health, human rights, civil rights, etc.) which allow people to do what they desire and to live however they want. A similar concept also takes place in UNDP's Human Development Reports and Doyal and Gough's (1991) work which is boldly prepared to define the minimum needs of people. In another work, Sen (1999) defines an extended approach with five types of freedom. These five types of freedom are political freedom, economic facilities, social opportunities, transparency guarantees, and protective security.

However, when we checked the literature, we could not find a generally accepted term for the different disadvantaged states of disadvantaged groups. Generally, in literature, individuals are classified as disadvantaged groups, excluded groups, vulnerable groups, marginalized groups, risk groups, people with special needs, underclass, etc. While these concepts do not mean exactly the same thing, they are usually used interchangeably. Definitions can differ, but the types of people which can be found in disadvantaged groups are usually the same.

Additionally, Seyyar defines disadvantaged groups as the "oppressed groups". He mentions that these groups include the handicapped, foreigners, minorities, elderly, women and children, and he states that these groups have less opportunities of accessing education, health, employment, social and economic potentials, and professional career (Seyyar, 2005). Andia states that these groups are composed of Indians, immigrants, the elderly, the handicapped, women,

obese people, and prisoners after mentioning that disadvantaged groups can vary depending on the country in terms of their historical, economic, institutional, social and cultural aspects (Andia, 2011).

There are many people in every nation who suffer from not being able to use their rights fully because of different social and cultural obstacles. Apart from individual, social and customary efforts, politics and policies are also part of the authoritative system which can provide those people with their rights. The obstacles created by society, and the groups which are most likely to be exposed to these obstacles each have specific characteristics. The UN defined a list of people who are considered disadvantaged although not all communities reach a consensus on this subject. It is possible to identify these groups which are exposed to discrimination and which we can separate according to their characteristics and status.

### **Women and Girls**

Women and girls are accepted as disadvantaged people across the world, but the severity of this disadvantage depends on the country. In developed countries, the situation is better when compared to developing countries, because in developing countries social, cultural and economic situations affect women and girls a lot.

### **Children**

The situation of children is very similar to that of women and girls. In developing countries, children have to struggle with malnutrition, poverty, and other difficulties those women and girls face as well.

### **Refugees**

Refugees are people who are outside their country of origin or habitual residence after having suffered persecution on account of their race, religion, nationality,

political opinion, or on account of being a member of a persecuted social group. They cannot benefit from their rights in their own country nor in other countries. The United Nations Convention on Refugees 1951, (article a) defines a refugee as:

*“Any person who, owing to well-founded fear of being persecuted for reasons of race, religion, nationality, membership of a particular social group or political opinion, is outside the country of his nationality and is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to avail himself of the protection of that country; or who, not having a nationality and being outside the country of his former habitual residence, is unable or, owing to such fear, is unwilling to return to it.”*

### **Internally Displaced Persons:**

An internally displaced person is described as someone who is forced to flee his / her home but who remains within country borders because of unfavorable situations. They are not treated as refugees, and there is no proper definition for internally displaced persons. Although we have no specific description of those people, the United Nations defines them saying ‘internally displaced persons are persons or groups of persons who have been forced or obliged to flee or to leave their homes or places of habitual residence, in particular as a result of or in order to avoid the effects of armed conflict, situations of generalized violence, violations of human rights or natural or human-made disasters, and who have not crossed an internationally recognized State border.’

### **Statelessness**

Because of the excessive intolerance to minority groups by the rest of society which is unable to embrace all citizens, or because of conflicts between states or newly formed states, statelessness is an important problem. Statelessness could be defined as the lack of a nationality or the absence of a recognized connection between an individual and a state. Stateless people face the problem of not having any rights anywhere because they lack a nationality.

## **National Minorities**

While defining national minorities, religious, ethnic, linguistic and other similar factors could be used for the minorities of a state.

According to the declaration of the United Nations which dates from the 18<sup>th</sup> of December 1992, protecting the rights of minorities is the duty of the state without any exception. The United Nations makes several declarations on this very important issue.

## **Migrant Workers**

The definition of a migrant worker varies from country to country. . Nowadays, many people migrate to other countries to get a job due to their country's economic and social problems. This term is used for both national and international migrants. However, when they migrate, they suffer from the lack of their rights and protection. Most of the time women, children and other disadvantaged people are used as migrant workers to get advantage from their situation and get involved in banned activities.

On a larger scale, migrants who go to other countries to find jobs, or for any other reason, are not citizens of those countries, and as a result, they and their families face many difficulties. The United Nations took another set of actions for these people under the name 'International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their families' in the year 1990. The subject convention became valid in 2003.

The convention describes a migrant worker as "a person who is engaged or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national."

Besides this UN convention, in 1949, the International Labour Organization declared the Migration for Employment Convention, and in 1975, the Migrant workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention. There are two types of recognized migrant workers, and the UN states that migrant workers make up 3% of the world population.

### **National Migrant Workers**

National migrant workers are the ones who go to other cities in order to meet their needs, and the possible causes of this migration are poverty, famine, natural disasters, city problems, and the lack of employment or facilities. Those people are under the protection of their own state and have their rights, however they could still face some problems with some of their rights, so in order to prevent any negative happenings, the Migrant workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention and member countries take some legal steps.

### **Disabled People**

Disability could refer to many different things depending on the context. However, the UN Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Persons, published in 1975, describes a disabled person as “any person unable to ensure by himself or herself, wholly or partly the necessities of a normal individual and or social life as a result of a deficiency either congenital or not in his/her physical or mental abilities”. In the light of this UN description, every individual could be described as disabled in terms of physical, sensory, cognitive or psychological impairments. The United Nations takes action in 2006 with a convention. There is a separate unit in the UN for this issue. The Millennium Goals of the UN also include one for disabled people’s protection. Governments and Union makes regulations to protect disabled people’s rights, and create disabled idea free minds in public.

## **Elderly Persons**

The term “elderly person” refers to anyone who is 60 years of age or older. The rights of elderly people are generally disrupted by family members and society members, so there is a need for the protection of elderly people. Many actions and conventions are adopted by the UN, and October 1 is celebrated as International aged people’s day to raise awareness. In Madrid, in 2002, there was a world congress organized by the UN, and a plan was made to adopt a convention on this very issue. According to the UN database, there are 737 million elderly people living in the world.

Estimates show that by the year 2050, the number of elderly persons will reach 2 billion, and this number is expected to exceed the number of children under the age of 14. Therefore, there should be legal protection for these elderly people who worked for humanity in their youth and adulthood.

The Indian government passed a national policy in 1998 related to elderly persons. To ensure their rights, the Indian Government accepted Maintenance and Welfare of Parents and Senior Citizens Act 2007. There is also a National Council to discuss and improve elderly people’s rights.

## **HIV Positive Persons / AIDS Patients**

People who have AIDS or who are HIV positive are discriminated against by society, and cannot enjoy their basic rights for these reasons all across the world. UNAIDS, which is the official unit for the UN’s AIDS studies, reports that there are nearly 34 million people who have HIV / AIDS around the world. There are improvement studies on those people’s conditions which are led by the UN and nation states. They take precautions against ill conducts by citizens, family members, and even hospital personnel.

### **Roma / Gypsies / Sinti**

The term "Gypsy" refers to people who have Roma roots, and in some parts of the world they are also known as "Sinti". Many people belong to this group, and they often move both within their country of birth and to other countries. Western and Latin American countries are the most popular places for people of this tribe. In order to protect the rights of these people, the UN shows great efforts through different actions.

### **Sexual Minorities: Lesbian / Gay / Transgender**

There is widespread opposition against these people because of their sexual orientations, and their most basic rights as human beings are not protected by even the UN. The reason of this the counter views among its members. The UK and some other countries have put these people's rights into their legislation in order to protect them. There are different groups of sexual minorities, and they all have great difficulties in benefiting from their basic rights including the right to life and liberty (Report on Human Rights of Vulnerable and Disadvantaged Groups, 2012).

Disadvantaged groups have been qualified in the laws of many countries, legislations, development plans, international conventions, and texts as well. In these texts, the types of people referred to as disadvantaged groups differ depending on the country. The most mentioned groups are the handicapped, women, children, elderly, youth, old prisoners and unemployed people which are historically, economically and culturally described differently. General classifications stress the common characteristics of these groups which all stem from disadvantageousness. When analyzed in detail, there are inequalities in the state of being disadvantaged as well. A comparison carried out between individuals evaluation on equality not completely but partly can be possible. If we determine the situation of an individual to be worse than another individual's

situation, this can ease the understanding of disadvantageousness. Thus, we can see how individuals take place in disadvantaged groups. While these disadvantaged groups have the same rights as the rest of society, they do not have the same opportunities. The reasons behind these unequal opportunities are the lack and/or inaccessibility of/to resources, and prejudicial and discriminatory conditions and situations which result from societal issues (Yıldırım, 2011).

### **3.2 Dimensions of being disadvantaged**

#### **3.2.1 Health dimension**

There is evidence to show the link between ethnic and socio-economic differences and health. Some diseases are more prevalent in certain communities. As an example, we can mention the vulnerability of some black and minority ethnic communities (BAME) to social isolation, or the higher levels of mental illness in South Asian women. Different approaches can explain the reasons to these based on for example genetic-biological factors, individual behaviour-cultural values, material-structural factors, migration and racism, and unequal treatment by the health service (Senior and Viveash (1999), Sashidharan, (2003), Smaje, (1995), Gilchrist and Kyprianou). Haan (1998) conceptualizes health as human capital in order to display the multidimensionality.

There is a strong correlation between health outcomes and wealth, income inequality, community environment and housing conditions, educational achievement, and race/ethnicity. People with higher incomes or personal wealth, more years of education, and who live in a healthy and safe environment have, on average, longer life expectancies and better overall health outcomes. Conversely, those with fewer years of education, lower incomes, less accumulated wealth, living in poorer neighbourhoods, or substandard housing conditions have worse health outcomes. It is not only the lack of resources that contributes to health

issues but also the income inequality in a community that predicts poorer health outcomes (Socio economic Determinants of Health).

Health outcomes are invariably worse among the poor—often markedly so. The chance of a new-born baby in Bolivia dying before his or her fifth birthday is more than three times higher if the parents are in the poorest fifth of the population than if they are in the richest fifth (120‰ compared with 37‰). Reducing inequalities such as these is widely perceived as intrinsically important as a development goal. But as the World Bank's 2006 World Development Report, *Equity and Development*, argued, inequalities in health reflect and reinforce inequalities in other domains, and these inequalities together act as a brake on economic growth and development.

Equity has long been considered an important goal in the health sector. Yet, inequalities between the poor and the better-off persist. The poor tend to suffer higher rates of mortality and morbidity than do the better-off. They often use health services less, despite having higher levels of need. And, notwithstanding their lower levels of utilization, the poor often spend more on health care as a share of income than the better-off. Indeed, some non - poor households may be made poor precisely because of health shocks that necessitate out-of-pocket spending on health. Most commentators accept that these inequalities mainly reflect differences in constraints between the poor and the better-off—lower incomes, higher time costs, less access to health insurance, living conditions that are more likely to encourage the spread of disease, and so on—rather than differences in preferences (Alleyne, 2000; Braveman 2001; Evans 2001; Le Grand 1987; Wagstaff 2001; Whitehead 1992). Such inequalities tend therefore to be seen not simply as inequalities but as *inequities* (Wagstaff and Van Doorslaer, 2000).

A look at Turkey reveals that fundamental changes took place after the 1980s. With the adoption of neo-liberal policies under the name of structural adjustment policies, the unequal distribution of income has increased, real wages

have decreased, the proportion of social services within the public spending budget has been cut, the unemployment rate has increased, and the quantity of labour force demanded has decreased. Moreover, the proportion of employment in the informal sector has increased accompanied by the decrease in registration to one of the social security institutions. As a result of these changes, poverty has been discussed a great deal recently.

In the Turkish case, the application of neo-liberal policies, structural adjustment programs, and privatization have led to the emergence of new poverty, and increased the gap between the rich and the poor. Income inequalities have increased; employment opportunities in the formal sector have decreased; unemployment has increased especially in the urban areas and for the young; the informal sector has expanded, “especially new migrants after 1985 were able to find a job in the informal sector” (Kalaycıoğlu and Rittersberger Tılıç, 2003: 202); public spending has decreased; real wages have decreased and become more flexible, the traditional welfare regime has begun to lose its capacity. Also, with demographic changes, there is an increase in the working age population. All the results after this period have constituted grounds for new poverty in Turkey.

The changes in Turkey after the 1980s also influenced cities. Pınarcıoğlu and Isık (2001) define urbanization before 1980 as “soft integrating urbanization”, and define urbanization after the 1980s as “tight exclusionary urbanization”. After the 1980s, forms of new poverty came into existence. New migrants were only able to find insecure and low paying jobs. In fact, unlike the 1950s and 1960s, for the last few years, it has become harder to find jobs even in the informal sector (Senyapılı, 2000).

Approximately one of three workers in urban areas and three in four in rural areas are not registered with the social security institutions (WB, 2006). This means that the social security system of Turkey excludes people such as informal workers, who do not have any social security because social security including

health benefits, unemployment wages and pension varies according to the employment status of people. For example, street vendors, homemakers, daily casual workers, daily home cleaners, pieceworkers or unregistered working people in both formal and informal sectors are excluded from the social security scheme. These workers who provide cheap labour to the capitalist system are invisible to official institutions. Since informal workers do not have a regular income, their vulnerability to risks including diseases and job accidents is greater (Lordoglu and Özar, 1998).

With the 2000s, there is a transformation in the term poverty defined by Pınarcıoğlu and Isık (2003), that is, a transformation from poverty which has rules, can be overcome, and handed over to a type of poverty with no rules, and difficult to overcome. The economic crisis in 2001 had a negative impact on the informal sector. Furthermore, Pınarcıoğlu and Isık (2003) express those new forms of poverty, such as people with chronic diseases, the disabled, elderly, etc., will emerge. In other words, if people living in slums have not secured formal jobs nor managed to survive with jobs in the informal sector with lower wages, worse working conditions and a lack of insurance, how can they handle a serious illness? This requires an examination of the welfare regime and health care access.

There are two mechanisms by which the state provides welfare benefits: the social security system, and social assistance and social services. The social security system, where eligibility depends on employment status and total contributions paid into the irrelevant social security type, is composed of three different organizations; namely, the Government Employees Retirement Fund (RF), the Social Security Institution (SSI) and The Social Security Agency for Artisans, and the Self-Employed (SE). Membership to any of these schemes enables access to medical care and pensions (Ayata, and Ayata, 2003).

### 3.2.2 Educational dimension

Poverty is not simply the absence of financial resources. According to Amartya Sen, poverty is the lack of capability to function effectively in society. Inadequate education can thus be considered a form of poverty. *Absolute poverty* – the absence of adequate resources – hampers learning in developing countries through poor nutrition, health, home circumstances (lack of books, lighting or places to do homework) and parental education. It discourages enrolment and survival to higher grades, and also reduces learning in schools. The *relative poverty* perspective emphasizes exclusion from the mainstream in rich countries, which can reduce the motivation of the relatively poor and their ability to gain full benefits from education.

Education can reduce poverty in a number of ways. Firstly, more educated people are more likely to get jobs, are more productive, and earn more. Secondly, though international literature finds no simple causal relationship between educational attainment and the economic growth of a country, recent research shows that *quality-adjusted education* is important for economic growth. More and better education improves a poor country's economic growth and thereby generates economic opportunities and incomes. Thirdly, education (particularly of girls) brings social benefits that improve the situation of the poor, such as lower fertility, improved health care of children, and greater participation of women in the labour market. The home background of pupils is the single most important factor influencing educational outcomes. Poverty strongly correlates with a range of other home background variables, including parental educational attainment, thus it is difficult to separate the effects of limited financial resources from other home background factors (Van der Berg, 2007).

Education provides equal opportunities to a certain extent, and increases social mobility by leading to social differentiation. Thus, it is possible to provide a chance for the low income group to improve their financial status so as to combat inequalities and social exclusion. In this sense, it is possible to relate education

with social inclusion. A well educated person is more likely to be involved in the labour market and eliminate the risk of unemployment.

After looking at our basic outline of education, we can see that the high number of dropouts from compulsory primary education is due to two reasons: firstly, households cannot give up on the additional income brought in through child labouring; secondly, although state schools are free of charge as a principle, the fact of the matter is that households are asked for an illegal enrolment fee and they are not able to afford these kinds of fees and other expenditures for school. On the other hand, schooling rates are low in rural areas. When the rates of illiterate, uncertified people and the people who graduated from primary schools are considered, we can see that the majority of the people in rural areas (78 %) had either no education or inadequate education (Adaman and Keyder, 2006).

People from disadvantageous groups do not have equal life chances. It is well known that some groups have been systematically discriminated against by other groups, and social inequalities have been inherited throughout generations.

As a solution to the problem of intergenerational inequalities, the idea of “universal compulsory education” claims that guarantying equal access to education would eliminate inherent inequalities since inadequate access to education hinders reaching to higher strata. Thus, inequality in education is an obstacle which paralyzes social upward mobility (Dinçer and Uysal-Kolaşın, 2009). To be more precise, human capital is the determining factor of obtaining equal life chances.

A significant number of family background factors are critical in determining students’ achievements. These factors are family income, parents’ occupational status, parental education, number of siblings, and settlement patterns (rural/urban areas and regional background).

According to the status attainment theory, parents are less able to provide a good position for their children through occupational transmission and direct capital transfer since education becomes a significant tool to achieve upward mobility especially in modern societies (Smits and Gündüz-Hoşgör, 2006).

For instance, families involved in agriculture are more reluctant to spend money on schooling since direct capital transfer and occupational transmission are still important for them (Smits and Gündüz-Hoşgör, (2006), Gündüz-Hoşgör, (2007)). As Ulufer (1998) puts it, “children of working class families will probably stay in the same class, while middle class families’ children have more opportunity to make upward social mobility in the future”.

Especially migrant students whose families migrated from rural areas to urban areas generally live in squatter settlements in either inner-city areas or urban periphery. In these areas, migrant children attend schools which are low-qualified, resource-poor and overcrowded since urban schools have to allocate scarce resources among migrants and native poor. Furthermore, these children face cultural problems due to the diverse population in urban settlements (Akar, 2009).

### **3.2.3 Employment dimension**

Economic exclusion stands for the appearance of short or long term unemployment, and / or obstacles faced in access to credit facilities based on being excluded from the labour market. It is possible to combat economic exclusion by social welfare charities and a social policy enabling the opportunity of pension not to be deprived of labour income and unemployment insurance. When a harsh economic exclusion is faced, it is likely that personal income and the state transfer would not be able to fulfil the basic needs. Furthermore, in case the financial aids and transfers through the welfare charities and the relatives are not sustainable, economic exclusion would be experienced on an acute level. This leads to malnutrition, low health and living conditions (maybe even being

homeless), obstacles in access to education facilities, and the lack of care for the elderly. It can be said that economic exclusion may lead to “exclusion from life” on an extreme level, because the worst obstacle that can be faced in life is starvation, and starvation may cause permanent poverty by harming the physical and mental wellness of people ((Duffy (1995), SEU (1997), Walker and Walker (1997), Bryne (1999), Barnes (2002) and Sapançalı (2003)).

The main reason of poverty can be said to be unemployment. It is visible that unemployment rates have been increasing in recent years, and they are not likely to decrease unless structural changes come up in the future. It is obvious that the growth of the country does not bring a great deal of employment. Furthermore, the fact that informal economy – which is estimated to be 30% of non – agricultural employment according to the optimistic estimations- is on expansion, shows that some of the working people lead their lives without a job security or social insurance. Due to the fact that a great number of people are unemployed or informally employed – that is to say working without a social security or health insurance – it can be concluded that there is a high risk of social exclusion throughout the country (Adaman and Keyder, 2006).

It is clear that the growth in the last few years has not brought the expected employment opportunities, and so as result, unemployment is on the rise. There is no prevention plan for this rise of unemployment in the short and mid-term strategies. The rate of unemployment is very high especially in the young population. There is a threat that as the agriculture field gets smaller, labour abundance will create high numbers in the ranks of the unemployed in cities (Izmen, Filiztekin and Yılmaz, 2005). Unemployment and consequently the lack of safety nets will result in an inevitable social exclusion. Besides this, there is a rising threat of gender oriented discrimination in labour society.

Shanty houses and the suburb areas of the cities are generally crowded with the “employed poor”. These people have jobs, however their basic needs are hardly met with the money they earn, and sometimes they actually have irregular jobs.

They are in need of regular aid. Hence having a job is not enough for one's financial welfare. There are some other reasons for this situation besides wage floor's inadequacy. Those reasons could be stated as undeclared employment (which means irregular jobs, generally), irregular payment (either irregular payment or necessity to change job often), and the deprivation of social security rights. As a result, people living in shanty houses are somewhat isolated from social life because of poverty.

Disabled people, ill people, migrants, ethnic minorities and people who left school before graduation are accepted as the ones who are most disadvantageous in the labour market. Those people have great difficulties in entering the labour market. Long term unemployment is one of the reasons of social isolation. Negative changes in the social and economic fields of a person are the leading causes of that person's social isolation (Sapancağı, 2003).

In Turkey, poverty is generally seen in rural areas, where agricultural labour force is low, and in places which are in a big transformation process. While there is a decrease in the agricultural field and industrial employment, there is an increase in the service industry. These changes and facts should be taken into consideration while reviewing the situation. It is obvious that migrant people, aside from the fact that they are unqualified, also have difficulties adapting to urban life. In addition to that, ethnicity could be another factor that can make adapting more difficult. It is important to note that there is no country in the world with a regular increase in employment numbers. In the last two – three decades, every sector has tried to make more production with less labour work except the “personal service” sector (ILO, 2006). This fact has resulted in underdeveloped financial activities and employment rates. The aforementioned fact is both a consequence and a constant reason of the vicious cycle.

It can be said that social exclusion is high in Turkey because a considerable part of the population is either unemployed or employed without being registered; that

is, these people do not have social security or social insurance (Adaman and Keyder, 2006).

The papers make specific reference to the problems faced by those living in peripheral areas, and to the difficulties of securing employment. Even reasonable physical distances, that in some urban areas are easily travelled, become difficult obstacles in a context where there is little affordable transport – the costs are simply too high relative to the incomes (C.U., 2006).

Where there is limited or no economic growth, work opportunities are limited. Where there is enclave economic growth, work opportunities are inaccessible. And where there is broad-based growth, the employment generated may be exploitative, with unhealthy working conditions. Whilst allowing day-to-day existence, poor work opportunities and unsustainable livelihoods do not permit savings or significant asset accumulation, and often increase health shocks.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESEARCH**

#### **4.1 Background of the projects**

##### **4.1.1 History and Design of Financial Assistance**

The successful integration and enlargement process of the EU, the legal and institutional bases of which date back to the 1950s with six founding member states, led the other non – member European states to apply for a membership.

After the establishment of the European Economic Community in 1958, Turkey had applied to the Community for partnership in 1959. When the necessary conditions were fulfilled, the Ankara Agreement was signed in 1963, and the partnership status between Turkey and the European Community officially started in 1964. This date is also the beginning of the financial partnership between Turkey and the European Union. In 1987, Turkey's application for full membership had been found eligible, however the application was not accepted (Çakır, 2010).

The progress that the Community has made since the establishment in terms of expansion and progression has increased the importance and the diversity of the financial aids. Considerable resources have been/are being transferred to member and non-member states as grants or loans through financial aids, which is an important tool serving the objectives of the community(Karabacak, 70).The financial relations between Turkey and the EU will be studied chronologically under 3 periods:

### **Pre Customs Union Period (1964–1996)**

The financial contributions to Turkey were organized through financial protocols before the Customs Union. From 1964 to 1986, four different financial protocols have been signed to encourage the social and economic development of Turkey.

### **Post Customs Union Period (1996-2000)**

After the Partnership Council which dates from the 6<sup>th</sup> of March 1995, a new era has begun in financial contributions following the validations of the Customs Union with Turkey on the 1<sup>st</sup> of January 1996 (EUGS).

According to the declaration announced in the aforementioned meeting, the aims of the financial contributions to Turkey were determined as such (Eriş 2000):

- Increasing the competitiveness of the Turkish industry sector in order to adapt the sector to the highly competitive environment as a result of the Customs Union.
- Improving Turkey's infrastructure links with the EU.
- Reducing the development disparities between the economies of Turkey and the EU.

With regard to these objectives and the statements in the Declaration, the contributions foreseen in the declaration have been considered insufficient in terms of quality and quantity (EUGS).

### **Candidacy Period (1999-2006)**

After receiving financial assistance from the EU within the context of the MEDA Program, Turkey started to benefit from Instrument for Pre Accession (IPA) after the candidacy status in the Helsinki Summit on 10-11 December 1999 (Keereman, Filip and Szekely, Istvan, 2001).

During this process, financial assistance from the EU will be directed to Turkey in line with the Pre Accession Strategy as was the case for other candidate

countries. In this context, the Accession Partnership Document for Turkey was adopted by the EU Council on the 8<sup>th</sup> of March 2001.

Candidacy Process' assistance can be analysed in 3 different phases. In the period between 1996 and 2001, the MEDA Framework Agreement was taken out by 2002 and implemented within the Pre Accession Assistance. In this context, the implementation moved on with 2002 and 2006 programmes with a decentralized system, which was in the context of aligning with the EU perspective. Between 2007 and 2013, the IPA implementation started as the financial assistance tool (EUGS).

#### 1. Pre-accession financial contributions (2002-2006)

Pre-accession financial contributions are for the candidate country to prepare for the negotiations and to help adopt the Acquis Communautaire. The European Union-Turkey Financial Cooperation has reached a new level with the acceptance of Turkey's candidate country status in the Helsinki Summit 1999, from the assistances under MEDA I for the Mediterranean countries until 2002.

The resources that Turkey was granted from the EU are;

- MEDA II Program, 2000-2006 period, annually app. 127 million Euros.
- Europe Strategy Program for Economic and Social Development, 2001-2003 period, 135 million Euros.
- Europe Strategy Program for Strengthening Customs Unions, annually 5 million Euros.
- 

The financial assistance for these projects has generally been used for the following goals:

- Adaptation to the Acquis Communautaire (including adaptation of the political and economic criteria and assistance to the NGOs)

- Developing the required administrative capacity for the adaptation to the Acquis Communautaire and the required investment need
- Economic and social adaptation projects (regional development, cross-border collaboration, and small and medium scale corporate projects)

In addition to the Accession Partnership Document (2001, 2003, 2005) which identifies the priorities, there are two other more important documents; the National Program taking into consideration the SME (2001 and 2003), and the progress report that the EU publishes annually (Sariso and Stivachtis, 2011).

## 2. Pre-accession Assistance– IPA (2007-2013)

Since 2007, the EU has formed a single legal framework for all the candidate countries in order to increase the effectiveness of the financial assistance. The restructuring that is covering the 2007–2013 financial periods has taken the name of Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance (IPA) and the EU Council has approved the 1085/2006 IPA regulation on the 17<sup>th</sup> of July 2006. As a result, the PHARE, ISPA, SAPARD, CARDS, which have been implemented in Turkey, have been brought under the Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance.

The EU for the 2007–2013 periods has brought all the financial assistance to all candidate countries under one structure with a total budget of 11.5 billion Euros. The funds under Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance should be used under five headings. These are;

- Institutional Capacity Building,
- Regional and Cross-border Cooperation,
- Regional Development,
- Human Resources,
- Rural Development.

The key aims of the Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance are listed below:

- To form a single roof for the pre-accession assistance,

- Support to the adaptation and implementation of the EU *acquis communautaire*,
- The prepare the country for the implementation of the EU structural funds,
- To move the country towards EU politics and socio-economic level.

Between 2007 and 2009, a total of 1,602 billion Euros have been allocated to Turkey. The Instrument for Pre-Accession Assistance that the EU has brought to life in order to assist the candidate countries, will be a very important tool for Turkey in the upcoming years (Keereman and Istvan, 2010), (Çakır, 2010), (Sarisoý, Guerin and Stivachtis, 2011) (The European Commission's management of pre-accession assistance to Turkey, Special Report).

#### **4.1.2 Projects**

In this study, two projects about internal migration which were implemented in 2008 and 2009 will be analysed. Under the heading of social and economic cohesion of European financial aids, these two projects were the first and exclusive implementations in terms of the subject, beneficiaries and objectives. The background information and the information about the research field are quotations from the project documents. The main objective of this chapter is to both show how the EU funded projects are rationally formulated, and also to introduce the selected provinces.

##### **4.1.2.1 “Technical Assistance for Supporting the Municipalities of Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum for the Solution of Economic and Social Integration Problems” Project (EKOSEP)**

The “Technical Assistance for Supporting the Municipalities of Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum for the Solution of Economic and Social Integration Problems” project has been designed to implement solutions to key economic and social integration problems which exist in the provinces of Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum. While the reasons of economic and social integration problems are numerous, one of the main reasons can be

stated as migration from villages and/or other provinces to city centres. In fact this project is described as a direct intervention aiming to resolve the problems of urban areas which emerge from permanent rural-urban migrant flows.

The Project is financed by the European Union and co-financed by Diyarbakır, Gaziantep, Erzurum Metropolitan Municipalities and Şanlıurfa Municipality. The aim of the project is to adapt a multi sectorial approach at local level, aiming to mitigate the adverse effects of migration for the first time in Turkey.

The particular focus of EKOSEP was on social policy and capacity building elements, which were related to regional development, and aimed at contributing to the solution of the problems which were caused from constant migration flows from rural to urban areas, through a multi-sectorial approach.

The project activities, which were to increase the critical capacity of local administrations in ensuring the participation of migrants in urban life, considered the new roles and responsibilities foreseen for the local administrations. The project was expected to improve the inter-provincial collaboration for reducing the negative impacts of the internal migration on urban life, as well as supporting all governorates and municipalities for an effective and influential service provision. EKOSEP was aiming to design a reproductive and sustainable model that developed a new approach and strategies to cope with the results of internal migration.

### **Background and justification**

The Preliminary National Development Plan (pNDP) was prepared and submitted to the European Commission in 2003. In the framework of pNDP, an analysis covering the 26 NUTS II regions has been performed in the determination of regional development strategy at national level; however, the 12 NUTS II regions

were identified as priority regions according to the “Survey on the Ranking of Provinces and Regions by Socio- Economic Development Levels”, which was prepared in 2003 through further discussions with the EU.

For these priority NUTS 2 regions, EU supported Regional Development Programs have been designed. Although the purposes of these programmes are to reduce regional disparities and to build capacity, there is no direct intervention aiming at the problems of urban areas which continue to attract migrant groups, particularly from rural areas in those regions. Some of the urban areas in the 12 NUTS II regions are at the important places like Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Erzurum and Gaziantep, as far as the settlement hierarchy network is concerned, because they provide services to their peripheries and neighbouring cities. So these are the areas in which the population services and the production facilities are concentrated and specialized. In that context, these urban areas face social and environmental infrastructure problems related to being attractive areas for migrants.

#### **4.1.2.2 The “Support to the Solution of Economic and Social Migration Problems in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa as Major in Migration Destinations” Project (IGEP)**

The “Support to the Solution of Economic and social migration problems in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa as major in migration destinations” project has been designed to reduce urban disparities through enhanced economic, social and cultural opportunities for all citizens. While the reasons of urban disparities and economic and social integration problems are multiple, one of the main reasons is the migration of people from the countryside, from other cities and within cities, and in some cases, from other countries. Therefore, the IGEP project was supposed to provide support for Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa Metropolitan Municipalities in order to increase their institutional capacity to mitigate socio-economic integration and environmental related problems derived from

migration, and to rehabilitate and reintegrate children living in the target districts of the four mentioned cities.

Through its activities, the project targeted the capacity building necessary to enable the Metropolitan Municipalities to perform their duties - administratively and technically - in the long term planning of facilities, and gave support to the migrating communities in the four cities covered by the project. At the same time, interventions were implemented in the social area, particularly for children working and/or living on the streets as they were the most affected. The project objective was to reduce urban disparities through enhanced economic, social and cultural opportunities for all citizens.

### **Background and justification**

Relatively poorer socio-economic conditions such as lower educational level, insufficient economic activity causing higher unemployment rates, and insufficient services trigger migration from various parts of Turkey to Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Bursa. Many of the problems in these four cities stem from their steady population growth and unfair income distribution(Project document).

In selecting the cities to implement this project to mitigate the adverse effects of rapid migration, the Migration Statistics for the year 2000 were considered. The statistical data revealed that Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir and Bursa had net migration for the period 1995 to 2000. The net migration for Istanbul was 2.297 per cent, 1.707 per cent for Ankara, 2.127 per cent for Izmir and 3.469 per cent for Bursa. These are the four most populous cities in Turkey. Their total population constitutes around 1/4 of Turkey's total population.

With this project, capacity building and needs assessment are expected to help in future interventions in the area of the socio-economic integration of migrants.

Each city has some unique aspects regarding migration, and certain parts of the cities are more affected by migration. Taking into consideration the limited funds available for the project, each municipality was expected to implement its activities mainly on one pilot project focusing on the solution of the problem of street children.

The statistics mentioned below, which are extracted from the Survey on the Ranking of Provinces and Regions by Socio-Economic Development Levels (DPT, May 2003) and Census of Population, Social and Economic Characteristics of Population (SIS, 2000), indicate the current situation in the selected pilot provinces. The socio-economic ranking of the provinces is based on variables related to employment, education, health, infrastructure and sectors such as industry, agriculture, construction and finance.

(<http://www.dpt.gov.tr/bgyu/ipg/guneydogu>).

#### **4.1.3 Research fields**

##### **4.1.3.1 Şanlıurfa**

The population of Şanlıurfa was 1,443,422 in the year 2000, of which 40% lives in the city centre, and the rest live in urban areas. Şanlıurfa is ranked 68th among all the provinces of Turkey. The urbanization level of the Şanlıurfa province is 59%. Since 1990, the population of Şanlıurfa has increased by an average annual rate of 36.56 % as compared to the national average of 18.29 %. Şanlıurfa has experienced out-migration in the city centre, while the total provincial population has increased.

In the 1990s and 2000s, the population growth rate of Şanlıurfa was twice as much as the overall growth rate in Turkey. The urban population rate was always lower than the rate for Turkey, the increase between the years has slowed down

from the 90s to the 2000s. The household size in Turkey has reduced steadily to 4.5 in 2000. There has been no improvement in this field in Şanlıurfa, and the average size of households in the province stays at 6.9.

Fertility rates in Şanlıurfa, while slow, are in an increasing trend. The rate was 4.83 in 2000 while the average for Turkey is 2.5; the age dependency ratio is steadily decreasing for the province, but it is much higher than the average for the country; the infant mortality rate has improved significantly over the past 2 decades. Hence, this parameter for the province is below the average for the entire country. Moreover, out of every 1000 children in Şanlıurfa, 37 die before reaching age one. This ratio for Turkey is 43 per 1000.

As for the basic health related figures, both the number of persons per bed in inpatient institutions and the number of persons per medical doctor are multiple times higher in Şanlıurfa compared to the numbers for the overall country.

From an educational point of view, the literacy rate in the province has increased significantly in the 80s and 90s. However, it has not reached the average rate in Turkey. In Şanlıurfa, 68% of the population is literate, and that is 82% male, and 52% female, while the average in Turkey is 87.30% overall. Literate people make up 77% of the population in the city centre of Şanlıurfa. As for high school education, while the schooling ratio of the national average is 36.92%, it is 17.80% in Şanlıurfa. Moreover, in technical and vocational education, the province falls short of the national average schooling ratio of 21%. The number of primary school students per teacher stands as around 45-50, while this number for Turkey has been around 30.

Looking at the employment related indicators, both in Turkey and in Şanlıurfa, the unemployment rate has increased in the past decades. The rate for Şanlıurfa has doubled from the 90s to the 2000s. It was officially around 14.5 and higher than the rate for Turkey which was 8.9% in the year 2000. Labour force participation rates for Şanlıurfa which have always been slightly higher than the

average for Turkey until the year 2000, have slightly decreased to less than the average rate for Turkey. Female participation to the labour force is less than the male participation. The number of industrial employees in the total employed population has been increasing in Turkey, and the rate in 2000 was 13.3%. This number in Şanlıurfa is well below the average for Turkey, at around 3.5% in the year 2000. Agricultural production makes up 73% of the total employment in the city.

#### **4.1.3.2 Gaziantep**

In Gaziantep, the population was 1,285,249 in the year 2000. A very high percentage of the population, that is, 85%, lives in the city centre. In other words, 4 in every 5 people residing in the city live in the urban area. The urbanization ratio of Gaziantep is 79%. Since 1990, the population of Gaziantep has increased by an average annual rate of 24.06‰ when compared to the national average of 18.29‰. Gaziantep is ranked as 20th among 81 provinces of Turkey. While the population growth rate of Gaziantep has been slightly higher than the average rate for Turkey, in the 90s, it was significantly higher than the overall growth rate of Turkey. At more than 70%, the city population rate was much higher than the rate for Turkey in the 90s and 2000s. Gaziantep experienced in-migration as well as total provincial population increase.

The household size has gone down steadily to 4.5 in 2000 for Turkey. Similar to this trend, the rate dropped steadily in the past decades in Gaziantep as well, and in the year 2000, it declined to 5.2 but still remained higher than the average in Turkey.

The fertility rate in Gaziantep dropped significantly from the 80s to the 90s. However, a slight increase is seen from the 90s to the 2000s. The rate was 3.83% in 2000 while it was 2.53% for Turkey. Moreover, out of every 1000 children in Gaziantep 44 of them die before reaching age one which is very close to the average in Turkey (43 per thousand). The trend of the age dependency ratio is

similar to the one seen in Şanlıurfa, although it has been steadily decreasing in the provinces, these numbers are higher than the amount for the overall country. The infant mortality rate has improved significantly over the last decades. Hence, this indicator for the province is very close to the number for the overall country. As far as basic health related figures go, while the number of persons per bed in inpatient institutions is somewhat higher than the average for Turkey, the number of persons per physician is almost twice the number in Gaziantep compared to the number for the overall country.

From an educational point of view, similar to Şanlıurfa, the literacy rate in the province increased significantly in the 80s and 90s. The literacy rate in Gaziantep was close to the rate for Turkey based on the 2000 data. In Gaziantep, literate people make up 84% of the population, while this ratio is 87.30 % in Turkey. There is also a significant difference depending on genders: while 93% of this 84% is male, 75% are females. In the metropolitan area of Gaziantep, 86% of the population is literate. As for high school education, the schooling ratio is 35.47% in Gaziantep, which is below the national average of 36.92%. The number of primary school students per teacher stands at around 45-50, while this number for Turkey's average is around 30.

As for employment, the rate for Gaziantep was close to the rate for the overall country in the past decades: It was around 11.4, which is slightly higher than the average for Turkey, which was 8.9% in the year 2000. Labour force participation rates for Gaziantep decreased to much less than the rate for Turkey. Industrial employees made up 13.3% of the employed population in Turkey in the year 2000. This rate is much higher in Gaziantep than the rate for Turkey, and it stood around 21.3% in the year 2000. The percentage of those officially registered as unemployed in the year 2000 was 11.4% in the Gaziantep province, while this figure was 8.9% in Turkey. Furthermore, the agriculture and service sectors have 40% each, and the industry sector amounts to 20% of the total employment in Gaziantep.

#### **4.1.3.3 Erzurum**

In the case of Erzurum, the population was 937,389 in the year 2000. 64% of the city population lives in the city centre which means 2 in every 3 people residing in the city live in the urban area. The urbanization ratio of the Erzurum Province is 60%. Erzurum is ranked 60th among the 81 provinces of Turkey.

Since 1990, the population of Erzurum has increased by an average annual rate of 10‰ as compared to the national average of 18.29‰. The population growth rate of Erzurum has been significantly lower than that of Turkey. The urban population rate has increased significantly over the past decades, and has approached the rate for Turkey in the year 2000. Erzurum experienced out-migration, while total provincial population increased according to the provincial migration data of State Institute of Statistics (SIS). The household size has been decreasing slowly since the 80s. However, this number of 5.7 is still above the number of 4.5 in 2000 for Turkey.

Fertility rates in Erzurum dropped significantly from the 80s to the 2000s. The rate was 3.51 in the year 2000 in Erzurum, while it was 2.53 for Turkey. Moreover, out of every 1000 children in Erzurum 65 died before reaching age one, while the ratio was 43 per thousand in Turkey. The trend of the age dependency ratio is similar to the ones seen in Şanlıurfa and Gaziantep, steadily decreasing for the provinces. Still, this number for Erzurum is slightly higher than the amount for the overall country. Though improved significantly, the infant mortality rate is well above the average for Turkey. As far as basic health related figures go, the number of persons per bed in in-patient institutions is lower than the number for Turkey, while the number of persons per medical doctor is slightly higher compared to the number for the overall country.

From an educational point of view, similar to Şanlıurfa and Gaziantep, the literacy rate in the province increased significantly in the 80s and 90s. The literacy rate in Erzurum was close to the rate for Turkey based on the 2000 data.

In Erzurum, literate people make up 84% of the population while it was 87% in Turkey, and there is a difference between genders. While this proportion is 92% for the male population, it is 75% for the female population. As for high school education, the schooling ratio of Erzurum is at 25.92%, which is below the national average of 36.92%. The number of primary school students per teacher is similar to the overall number for Turkey at around 30.

Looking at the employment related indicators, the rate for Erzurum was very close to the rate for the overall country in 2000. Labour force participation rates were higher than the averages for Turkey, but decreased steadily in the past decades. The rate for Erzurum decreased to less than the rate for Turkey. The number of industrial employees in the total employed population has been increasing in Turkey, and the rate in 2000 was 13.3%. This is much lower in Erzurum than in the rest of Turkey, at around 3.7 in the year 2000. The figure for those officially registered as unemployed in 2000 was 9.1% in the Erzurum province while it was 8.9 % in Turkey. As for employment figures, agricultural production is an important sector in the Erzurum province and has 63% of the total employment in the city.

#### **4.1.3.4 Istanbul**

Istanbul is the largest city in Turkey, and is one of the most densely populated cities of Europe with a population of 12 573 836 people according to the 2007 Census data. It is unofficially estimated that the population is even higher with the flow of people from rural areas and other countries. In the last 80 years, the population of Istanbul has grown 15.5 times its original size, and in 2007 it made up 17.8% of the entire population of Turkey according to TÜİK. Since 1990, the population of Istanbul has increased by an average annual rate of 33.09 % as compared to the national average of 18.29 %.

The on-going social transformation and urbanization in Turkey resulted in internal migrations which accelerate squatter settlements in Istanbul. There are

257.904 “gecekondu” in Istanbul, and 1.262.754 inhabitants live in them(DİS). Because of the unplanned and rapid urbanization, the infrastructure and related services are inadequate. The unequal income distribution and steady population growth are causing many of the problems of Istanbul. As the squatter settlements are expanding, an increasing number of migrant families are unable to adapt to urban life and they cannot become integrated with the city. These migrant families are facing several socio-economic problems to which public institutions are not able to respond.

The dynamics and results of the social transformation in Turkey are most distinctively visible in Istanbul. As a result of lower education levels and insufficient economic activities, the unemployment rate of migrants is higher. Also, the migrant population is usually unskilled and uneducated so they cannot become integrated with the economic life in Istanbul. The women have both economic problems and problems of social integration. The street children are increasing in number and becoming potential criminals or objects of crime.

Although all the districts in Istanbul suffer from inner migration and their effects, in certain districts of Istanbul like Sultanbeyli, Eminönü, Zeytinburnu problems stemming from migration are much more serious compared to the other districts. Local administrations cannot provide effective services with the limited resources and bureaucracy against the increasing population growth and its effects. Thus, three districts have been chosen for this project because they are very good exemplary illustrations of the in-migrant problem in the city and they host most of the in-migrant population.

#### **4.1.3.5 Ankara**

Ankara is the capital of Turkey and the second largest city after Istanbul with a provincial population of 4466756 according to the 2007 census data. The population is mostly located in the urban area where there are 4140890 people. The rural population of Ankara is 325866, which is relatively low when

compared to other big cities. The annual growth rate of the population between 1990-2000 was 21,37 % in Ankara, close to that of the national average. Indeed, the population of Ankara has increased steadily since the 1980s without any major fluctuation. The population of Ankara has increased by 2 million people in the last 10 years. Even though there is an increasing pattern in the population, the population growth rate has almost been unchanged since between 1990 and 2000 with an amount of 21% which is very close to the average in Turkey.

The urban population rate has increased by almost 10% between 1980 and 1990 which is higher than the average of Turkey in 2000. However, in 2000 the urban population rate of Ankara has increased by only 1%. Immigration started for Ankara after the 1950s and 46% of the population is not born in Ankara. Most of them came from Central Anatolian provinces like Çorum, Yozgat, Çankırı and Kırşehir.

The squatter settlements area started to build up and expand after the 1950s with the acceleration of internal migration. Due to the rapid and unplanned urbanization, local infrastructure in the squatter settlements is inadequate. The transformation of squatter settlements to modernized residential areas causes the migrant families to be unable to adapt to the urban life and integrate to Ankara.

There are more than 200.000 squatter settlements in Ankara, and the number of people living in “gecekondu” is estimated to be approximately more than 1 million. The squatter settlement population is usually made up of low income households; the migrant populations have serious socio-economic problems. Here as well, they are unskilled and unable to reach the means to integrate to the economic life. The number of street children is rising; the women have problems both in social and economic life. The local administration cannot respond to the needs of the migrants.

The steady population growth which reflects the migration in the residential areas, and the unequal income distribution is the reason for many problems in

Ankara. Problems of some districts of Ankara like Mamak and Altındağ stemming from inner migration are much more acute compared to the others.

#### **4.1.3.6 Izmir**

Izmir is the third largest city of Turkey with a provincial population of 3339353 according to the 2007 census data. The population of Izmir has become 7 times its original size. Izmir's share in the population of the country was approximately 5% in 2000. Between 1990 and 2000, the annual population growth rate of Izmir was 22,4 ‰. Generally, it is seen that the annual population growth rate of Izmir has been above that of the country in this period. In 1985-2000, the share of the population living in the urban areas in Izmir showed a slow increase. The urban population increased from 77, 7% in the year 1985 to 84, 9% in the year 2007.

As Izmir is at the centre of external and internal trade, mild climate, and its trade relations with the West, it has always been a favourite place for living. Izmir has a high migration rate.

The “gecekondu”s in Izmir started to form in the 1950s and developed very slowly until the 1960s. The old gecekondu areas between 1960 and 1975 spilled over to their surroundings to form yet new areas. The development of shanty towns between 1975 and 1985 enormously spread out. The infrastructure of Izmir was planned to serve 300.000 people, but there is a population of nearly 3 million in this city.

People who migrate to the city are unskilled workers who could not benefit from formal education. Therefore, they could not find a steady job in the places they migrated to, and do daily work which does not guarantee income, in other words, they work for the marginal sector.

The literacy rate of Izmir is 91.86%. This average is lower among women. The proportion of the literate women population to the total women population is

87.41%. In the last 20 years, the rate of unemployment has more than tripled. Especially among women, unemployment is rather high. Overall, the rate of households not having access to water is 4%; not having sewer systems is 13%, and warming with wood is %44.

#### **4.1.3.7 Bursa**

Bursa is the fourth largest province of Turkey with a provincial population of 2439876 people according to the 2007 census data. Bursa is also one of the most industrialized cities in the country. The share of the population living in Bursa has increased rapidly especially after 1960 and has reached 81, 1 % in 2007 which is faster than the national average. Until 1975 the rural population was more than the urban population; however the urban population had significantly outgrown the rural population by the 2000s. The rate of the growth of Bursa's population has a fluctuated pattern. There was a slight increase in the 1980s, however the population growth rate decreased by 10% between 1990 and 2000, then in 2000 was 28,62%, a rate considerably higher than the country average.

Bursa is the most preferred city by people immigrating from the Balkans and especially from Bulgaria since the beginning of the 1950s. The number of migrants to Bursa was estimated to be approximately 154 000 in 1951, 115 000 in 1968, and more than 200 000 who were forced to move to Turkey in 1989. According to the population census of 1987, the figures of the different populations in Bursa are as follows: 19 % natives, 34 % people from abroad, 13 % people from the east-southeast region, 18 % Caucasians and 9 % immigrants from the Black Sea region.

As result of rapid industrialization and urbanization in Bursa starting from the 1960s, the areas of squatter settlements have received low quality infrastructure, transportation and social services and increased regional inequalities. The fast growth of the industry in Bursa since the 1960s has produced a big potential for employment which makes it an attraction centre for migration. But the migration

in Bursa caused unplanned urban development, illegal constructions and the city could not meet the demand for housing, infrastructure and social services.

While the average size of households is 4.5 for Turkey, it is 3.9012 in Bursa. According to the employment figures of the year 2000, the proportion of total employment in agricultural production is 33, 56%, the industrial production is 28, 17%, and the services sector constitutes 11, 82% of the total employment. The officially registered as unemployed rate is 8.9% for the year 2000 in Turkey, while it is 11.6 % in Bursa.

In Bursa literate people make up 91,73% of the population. While the male proportion is 96,19%, it is 87,28 % for females. As for high school education, the schooling ratio of Bursa is 37.58%, which is slightly above the national average of 36.92%. However, in terms of technical and vocational education, the provincial schooling ratio (34,56%) exceeds the national average (21%).

The total fertility rate is 1,98 in the city and out of every 1000 children in Bursa, 39 die before reaching the age one while the death rate is 43‰ in Turkey.

## **4.2 Data Collection**

### **4.2.1 Research question**

The aim of this research is to explore whether or not the old and new migrants who moved to the Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, Izmir, Gaziantep, and Erzurum and Şanlıurfa provinces before and after 1990 are more disadvantaged than the disadvantaged residents settled in the urban areas of these provinces in terms of education, health and employment.

### **4.2.2 Research Methodology**

#### **4.2.2.1 Methodology of the research**

Before exploring the detailed analysis of the findings of the field research, I will first describe the methodology of the original work, and will also clarify some of the concepts and approaches that are frequently used within the scope of the research. This study was approached using a reanalysis of published secondary data under the framework of two EU funded projects. This study was executed using an inductive approach beginning with the reviews and measures of data, detection of patterns and formulating specific hypothesis. My primary research interest involves internal migrants so my methodological approach involves the review of recent literature and analysing the current data concerning migration and the evaluation of the results in relation with the literature.

The main reason for the selection of this dataset is my participation in these two EU funded projects as expert in the development of methodology and implementation of the field work. But during this study which includes both quantitative and qualitative tools, while conducting the research, I found out that it is really difficult to differentiate the migrant groups from the residents in terms of needs and access to basic services especially in their habitation area. Therefore I preferred to explore this ambiguity for myself through my own research.

The main objective of the studies was to conduct two base line surveys for the needs analysis of the migrant populations living in Erzurum, Gaziantep, Şanlıurfa, Ankara, Istanbul, Izmir, and Bursa. The studies were expected to enable the collection of a comparable data set not only to see the needs and problems of migrants, but also to analyse the convergences and divergences of the needs and problems of the native populations of these cities, which on the one hand results in shaping the hardening and/or facilitating factors of the socio-economic and cultural integration of migrant populations; and on the other hand helps to interpret the effectiveness and quality of the services/facilities provided by governmental institutions and municipalities from a broader perspective.

The questionnaires, developed for these surveys, sought to collect data on migration that addressed a wide range of topics related to migration, such as: demographics, education, health, socioeconomic status, access to services, migration history. The questionnaire which covered more than 100 questions is elaborated in the following part. This rich dataset provided me with a variety of information necessary to see whether there is any similarity or discrepancy between the residents and migrants living in the selected provinces. Considering the impact of forced migration, I also used the dataset to look over the recent and old migrants' profiles. Furthermore, I also compared the dataset of both of the projects that I worked on, in order to enrich my analysis on migrants while including different types of provinces.

These two datasets were extremely important to assess different provinces both from the western and eastern parts of Turkey so that I could analyse the same questions for the same target groups from different provinces.

The raw data obtained about households within the scope of field researches within the EKOSEP and IGEP projects have been reanalysed in the areas that had been selected according to residents, new and old immigrants. Several descriptive analyses have been conducted for residents and migrants, such as frequencies, cross tables and correlation. The correlations between the data on health, education and employment, and the new data obtained about residents and new - old immigrant groups have been analysed through cross tables. The analysis included the household characteristics of individual migrants interviewed during the survey. All of these are done by the collection and analysis of quantitative secondary data from primary research.

The quantitative analysis of both of the dataset was implemented using SPSS (Statistical Program for the Social Sciences). I did several different versions of recoding and cross tabulations and custom tables, I looked over the frequencies and I selected the more appropriate and meaningful variables which are relevant to answer my research question based on their level of significance.

The selected variables for the analysis are those that ask the respondents' age, gender, migration background, health, and education and employment situations. It was significant to understand the migration history because it gives potential answers as to why they will decide to migrate from their provinces into other provinces.

The proportion of missing cases in the migration status information is 11.2 % for the overall sampled population. This proportion is 5, 7% for health, 9, 6% for education and 16, 8% for employment. In this respect, it can be argued that the high proportion of completed information for the selected variables in the analysis provides us with high levels of reliability.

Within the scope of the research, the concept "internal migrant" refers to the people who were not born in the city centre and/or have not been living in the centres of Erzurum, Gaziantep, and Şanlıurfa, Ankara, Istanbul, Izmir and Bursa. This group is divided in two, the ones who immigrated to the city in 1990 or before (old immigrant), and the ones who immigrated after 1990 (new immigrant). As for the concept "resident", it refers to the people who were born in the centres of the aforementioned cities and who have been living there ever since. As it is generally accepted in sociologic and demographic studies, the concept "household" has been defined as the unit where one or more people live and share a common income.

First of all, the categories within the variables have been recorded so that the data are easier and meaningful to analyse. First, I took the frequencies, and then according to their intensity I recoded the variables. For instance, the variables of age were recorded using age categories for schooling or working in Turkey depending on the subject of analysis. This recoding was carried out in order to make the analysis much more understandable and to keep the variables consistent throughout the analysis. Immigration and emigration provinces and migration reasons were also regrouped in order to highlight the most frequent ones.

Residents, old and new migrants, which are the independent variables, were recorded into different variable in SPSS so that the responses could be compared between the groups in the analysis. This was done for health, education and employment variables.

The custom tables enabled me to see the relations between variables. My main focus was to understand whether there are any patterns between the migrants' status and the selected dependent variables.

I have preferred to look at variables within the dataset that question the migration status, current and past employment, and education and health status. These variables provide information on the differences between the target groups. I simply relied on the frequencies and percentage distributions. I checked the level of significance using ANOVA tables, and the significance value of all were less than 0.01, therefore they were significant by 99%.

All the questions provide me with data necessary to understand the relations. Furthermore, the variables of health, employment and education allow for cross tabulations of social and economic situations by: migrants/health situation, migrants/educational situation, and migrants/employment situation. With this cross tabulation which will be discussed in the findings, I further assessed which target group had the best and worst indicators which means more disadvantaged compared to other groups.

#### **4.2.2.2 Methodology of The First Project**

In the primary phase of data collection, in the field research phase of two projects, question forms are almost identical; however there are some differences in methodology. For this reason, the methods of both researches are explained separately below.

Within the scope of "Economic and Social Integration Project in Migration-Receiving Cities", a field research has been conducted in order to collect data towards detecting socio-economic profiles, the needs of disadvantaged migrant groups, and the urban poor living in Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa and creating solutions to their economic and social integration problems.

#### **Sample Strategy Practiced in Quantitative Field Research**

In the field research towards collecting quantitative data, all households, regardless of migration status, were included in the system among which the sampling would be chosen. There are some reasons for adopting such a sampling method: First of all, there is no data set enabling to choose a representative sampling which classifies households living in city centres according to their migration status. Undoubtedly, in the choice of sampling, it could be possible to carry out a research projection inclusive of teleological or conformity sampling, which does not consist of representation claim among households that came only through migration. However, the data collected from such a sampling strategy would not be generalizable for migrant households, or for the whole city.

The sampling method preferred in the quantitative field research enabled findings to be generalizable on both planes. Another advantage of the sampling method which includes the whole city is to give opportunity to detect the migration rates within urban areas. The sampling method followed reveals the statistical data related to the demographical and socio-economic features of not only migrants but also settled households, and enables to make comparisons between these

households. Thus it is possible to understand which groups living in urban areas are disadvantaged and what kind of differences can be observed in the access to services. In addition, the research was not limited with a determined migrant mass. Hence it is possible to see differences within migrant households in general and to detect the most disadvantaged mass in this group.

Within this scope, the target population of this study is made up of central districts within the boundaries of the metropolitan municipalities in Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa and all of the households living in these districts. Sampling was chosen by random in accordance with two stage mass sampling method. The size of the sampling was determined to be 1500 considering the 5% error margin and the 15% unanswered rate. Being divided in 20 size of stable mass, the number of targeted household reached 75 mass number in which the field research would be conducted. In the first stage 75 mass and in the second stage 20 households to be interviewed in each mass are chosen by random in the framework of sampling created, based on address-based population registration system. The choice of masses and households was carried out entirely by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK) in accordance with the mentioned sampling strategy and the field research team was given a list consisting of addresses of households to be interviewed in each mass. In the application of the field research, the study was conducted by adhering to mass and household lists sent by the Turkish Statistical Institute (TÜİK).

### **Questionnaires**

In the quantitative field research, two differently constructed interview forms were used by means of face to face meeting: the first form is the Household Question Form which consists of questions related to consumption models, features of the house and ownership status, which can be described as demographic, educational, and health and employment related information about each member of the household and prosperity indicators of the household. The second form used in the field research is the Individual Interview Form which

consists of demographic features, migration history, the employment patterns of the interviewer and access to various services in urban areas, and the interviewer's assessments towards these services and similar information. Interviewers were chosen among people living in the household, who are at the age group of 15-69.

People who live in the household temporarily or who have been in the household one night before (de facto) were not regarded as members of the household. The Household Interview Form was conducted only for people who were at home during the interview, who were living in the household, and who were at the age group of 15-69. In addition to these criteria, interviewers for the individual interview were determined in accordance with the Kish method (choice table based on household serial number and number of persons in the household). The main objective of using the Kish method is to choose people to be individually interviewed in accordance with a representative sampling method by random. This way, members of the household to be interviewed were chosen in the manner of reflecting the interior difference within genders and the age distribution of the target population.

Lastly, on the condition that household members could not be reached for any reason or they refused to fill individual interview forms, no reserve was used instead of these households and persons.

General titles related to both of the constructed interview forms which were conducted within the field research are as follows:

- Socio-economic and demographic profiles of household members and people (age, gender, Education, employment, marital status, ownership of social security, health indicators, household features and prosperity indicators, etc.),
- Socio-economic and demographic profiles of migrants on the basis of households and individuals (according to age, gender, education, employment, marital status, ownership of social security, number of unemployed persons in a household, number of people settled in a household, level of income, etc.),

- Migration to the current region (from rural to urban, city to city, district to city),
- Reasons of migration (for economic reasons, reasons related to family members, security reasons, reasons related to marriage, etc.),
- Assessment of the socio-economic conditions of migrants before and after migration,
- Satisfaction level related to life in urban areas in general - eagerness to keep living in urban areas,
- Getting involved in society - participating in social activities (sports, cultural activities, etc.),
- Problems encountered by migrants and local people in getting services such as:
  - Social services (need for special care for an old, disabled person in the house, any aid for children or financial aid supplied from nongovernmental organizations or service suppliers, need for having aid for children or financial aid);
  - Education (rate of literacy, need of vocational education, school types and places for children, reasons of children not going to school, vehicles that children use in order to go to school, etc.),
  - Health (ownership of social security, rate of participating in urban health facilities, frequency of visiting a medical institution, reasons for not visiting a medical institution, etc.),
  - Housing (quality of house, warming system, having toilet and kitchen inside the house or not, etc.),
  - Infrastructure (electricity quality, access to drinking water, entity of canalization system);

Transportation (transportation vehicles (bus, train), road quality, etc.);

- Sufficiency of income in meeting basic needs such as housing, clothing, heating and food,
- Satisfaction level considering basic services,

- Expectations from service suppliers,
- Attitudes towards migration and migrants.

After the completion of question forms, the pilot study was conducted by taking the field. In the pilot study, neighbourhoods that had not been part of the sampling in the field research were chosen. Considering the problems detected in the interview forms during the pilot study, necessary regulations were taken and interview forms took their final form.

### **Interview Results and Response Rates**

The data entry has been performed through the CsPro (Census and Survey Processing System) programme. The data arrangement, data cleaning and recoding operations have been executed during and after the data entry process. After all these proceedings were completed, all the data were transferred to the SPSS environment and their analyses were done.

As mentioned above in the section related to the sampling method, the target of the field research was to apply 1500 Household and 1500 Personal Interview Forms on 75 clusters. With the aim of maximizing the response rates, each of the households were visited 3 times on different dates and at different time frames, during the implementation period. Other groups have not been substituted for the households or persons who were not reached or could not have been persuaded to participate.

At the end of the field study, 1259 household and 1198 personal interviews in total were completed. When the total number of households included in the sampling process was considered, the response ratio was found to be approximately 84%. When this ratio is calculated solely within the households that have been contacted, it is seen that the response rate is considerably high. Accordingly, it can be said that 169 out of 1500 target households could not have been reached. In other words, the research personnel could not reach these people

during the research process due to the reasons identified in the Table. However, 1331 households were reached, but 72 of them refused to participate in the interview. So, it can be concluded that the response rate among the households who have been reached is 95%. When we consider the response rate among the clusters included in the sampling process, the highest non-response rates have been observed in clusters/neighbourhoods inhabited densely by middle and high income groups. Though the average response rate is approximately 84% among all of the households, the ratio remains under the average among these abovementioned clusters.

#### **4.2.2.3 Methodology of the Second Project**

Within the scope of the “Project for Supporting the Solution of Economic and Social Integration Problems in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa”, a field study has been conducted with the aim of determining the socio-economic profiles of disadvantaged immigrant groups or settled destitute people, and of identifying their needs and finding solutions for their socio-economic integration problems.

#### **The Sampling Strategy Applied In the Quantitative Field Research**

The field research that was initiated in 4 provinces parallel with each other was finalized between the dates 18 July – 27 August 2009. Interviews were conducted in 2288 households in 140 neighbourhoods in total, within the sampling of 4 pilot provinces.

The distribution of the sampling calculated according to the provinces is as follows:

City		Size of sample	Error margin
Neighbourhood			
Ankara	40	672	3,8%
Bursa	19	304	5,6%
Istanbul	53	864	3,3%
Izmir	28	448	4,6%

The target was to visit 2288 households, to conduct a detailed interview in each household, and a personal one with one of the household members that would be chosen randomly. A sampling method which is primarily based on the selection of representative neighbourhoods and which includes stratification has been developed. In this framework, the sampling method is composed of the following stages:

- Target neighbourhoods have been identified within the provinces
- The neighbourhoods that will be included within the field research have been selected
- The neighbourhoods selected for the field research have been stratified and the number of interviews that should be conducted in the neighbourhoods of every segment has been specified.

Before the implementation of this method with the limited data for 2008, an analysis has been conducted using the comprehensive data obtained through TUIK (Turkish Statistical Institute) 2000 General Census. In other words, the implementation of this method for the year 2008 has been made possible thanks to the analyses conducted with TUIK 2000 data.

Within the scope of TUIK 2000 data, the variables that could reflect the socio-economic differentiation between neighbourhoods have been analysed, which means the disadvantageousness levels of the neighbourhoods have been established.

First of all, a format arrangement has been done and the data entered diagonally in rows and columns in the original files of TUIK have been transferred solely in columns. As the neighbourhoods varied in size, the numeric values of the TUIK have been converted so as to show the proportion to their populations. Very small neighbourhoods/villages have been left out of the analysis.

The scores have been identified for a “disadvantageousness index” that could be used as a measurement of socio-economic integration. In the composition of this index, 7 variables in 3 groups have been used. These variables are as follows:

#### 1. Education

- Ratio of illiterate women
- Ratio of university graduates
- Ratio of women who are high school graduates at the least

#### 2. Profession

- Ratio of entrepreneurs
- Ratio of the unemployed

#### 3. Health

- Ratio of the disabled
- Ratio of children in 0-4 age group and the women between 15-49 (fertility rate)

The total socio-economic developmental scores of all neighbourhoods have been calculated after the standardization of the variables in three groups. While some of these variables have been reflected as being inversely proportional in the score, some of them have been reflected as being directly proportional.

The next stage was the introduction of target neighbourhoods. The score – range graphics that are obtained considering the range of neighbourhoods

according to total scores for the year 2000, indicate the break points of the differentiation between urban areas. Within the framework of standardized scores, average neighbourhoods of the provinces are the ones with a score near “zero”. Accordingly, while all of the neighbourhoods that have received (-) value, have remained below the provincial average, the ones that have received (+) value, have constituted the advantaged neighbourhoods.

However, the score – range curves have shown that disadvantageousness in 4 metropolitan cities have been broken in the final 20% share of provincial populations. A similar breaking has been recorded in the first 20% share of the provinces’ most advantageous segments. In other words, the poorest and the richest neighbourhoods of these provinces have obviously differed from other neighbourhoods. No distinctive breaking has been observed in the neighbourhoods between these two groups. Based on these graphics, it has been found that it would be meaningful if the field research was conducted in the neighbourhoods that remain between the population segment of 20% which is the most advantageous (target neighbourhoods) according to these ranges.

Since the only information in March – May 2009 when analyses were made with the data of the year 2000, was the number of the neighbourhoods’ populations, we have decided to take the scores of the year 2000 as a baseline and constitute a range that shows the population growth between 2000-2008 for the selection of the neighbourhoods that would be included in the scope of field research. However, tough challenges have been encountered in the calculation of the maps of population growth in the neighbourhoods because none of the TUIK 2000 and ADNKS (Address-Based Population Registration System) 2008 neighbourhood codes in the pilot provinces except Bursa has overlapped. (Due to name changes, the changes in neighbourhood borders, disintegrations or integrations between neighbourhoods).

As the data related to education in TUIK 2008 ADNKS (Address-Based Population Registration System) were published during the last stage of the

research, the correlations between the total score based on 7 variables and the educational data based on 3 variables have been analysed. Educational scores have been made up of standardized simple totals of the original data.

It has been decided that “education” can be used as a “proxy variable” that could reflect total socio-economic development in the updating of the neighbourhood ranges in 2008 because a high correlation has been found between the total scores for the year 2000 and education variables. As a result, a correlation has been built between the data obtained from 2008 ADNKS and 2000 TUIK, and thus the neighbourhoods could be sorted based on the education scores for the year 2008.

Another study that has been conducted in parallel to the calculation of the scores is the mapping of socio-economic data. The maps that have been prepared with the participation of the related units of municipalities indicate that disadvantaged socio-economic groups basically show two different spatial clusters: the ones outside of urban areas and the other groups that cluster in central (historical) locations. While the first segment is predominantly immigration-led, the second is a socio-economic cluster that could not be directly associated with immigration. Since both groups consist of disadvantaged people or those who could not become integrated with the rest of the population, they have been included among the target groups of the research.

The lists that show the most disadvantaged 20% segment of the population for the year 2008 have been analysed so as to exclude the neighbourhoods which have village characteristics but were included in the borders of metropolitan cities and some neighbourhoods have been eliminated from the list. Also, the data on birth places for the year 2000 that have been obtained at the last minute by TUIK have been utilized as a criterion that roughly shows the level of immigration. In this manner, target neighbourhood lists have taken their final forms.

In order to select representative neighbourhoods among target neighbourhoods, the “stratified random sampling” method has been used. As the abovementioned

score – range curves that break swiftly indicate, the reason behind the stratification is that there are significant score changes among target neighbourhoods. Target groups have been handled in 3 segments (high, middle and low) according to the shape of the score – range curve and the number of interviews that would be conducted with every segment has been calculated in proportion to their populations.

The number of sampling units that would be selected within each segment has been calculated and the probability sampling method size has been used in proportion to the number of populations. 32 interviews have been conducted in each of the neighbourhoods whose population is bigger than the size calculated for the systematic random selection.

The streets where a survey would be conducted for selecting housings in the identified neighbourhoods have been chosen with the implicit stratification method. The households to be interviewed have been identified according to the rule of walking.

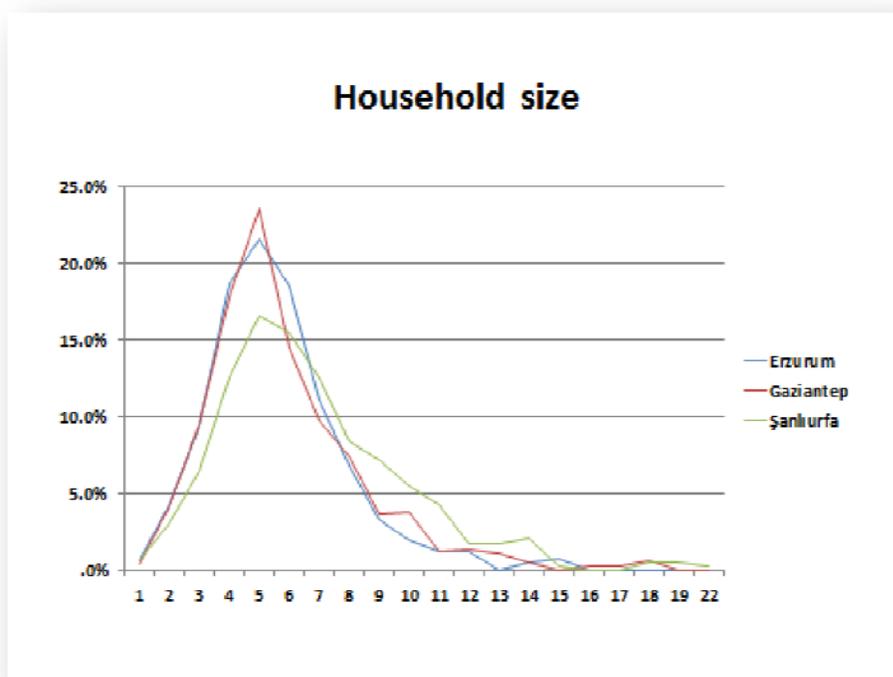
In this study, household and personal questionnaires that were prepared for the EKOSEP field research have been used and the implementation has been conducted likewise. However, data entrance has been performed through the SPSS programme.

#### **4.3 Description of the Findings**

In this chapter, the findings collected from field researches which were conducted within the scope of the Economic and Social Integration Project (EKOSEP) and Internal Migration Integration Project (IGEP) have been analysed in two separate parts. In both parts, indicators of education, employment and health have been analysed according to cities and target groups after the examination of the demographic features of the target group living in urban areas within the scope of

the Economic and Social Integration Project (EKOSEP) and the Internal Migration Integration Project (IGEP) respectively. In the conclusion section, the results of both researches will be evaluated comparatively.

#### 4.3.1 Findings of the First Project

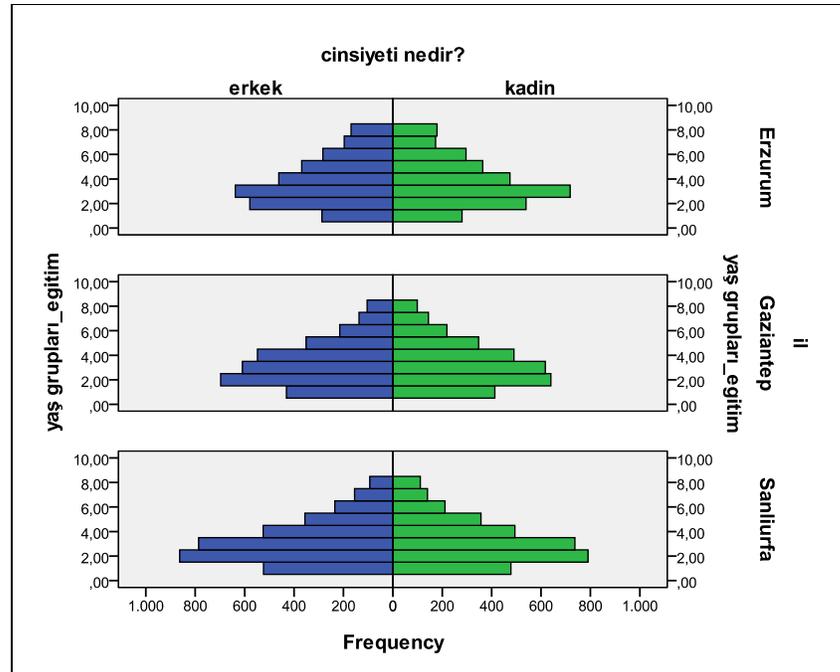


**Figure 2 : Family size according to cities**

Family size averages of the three cities are respectively 5.59 in Erzurum, 5.84 in Gaziantep and 6.77 in Şanlıurfa. If we consider that the general average of Turkey according to the TUIK data of 2005 is 4.5, all these three averages are far above Turkey's general average. While in Erzurum and Gaziantep, the rate of nuclear families consisting of 4 or less people is a little more than 30%, in Şanlıurfa the rate of nuclear families is relatively low, but in average the rate of crowded families consisting of 7 or more people is about 45% and much higher than other cities.

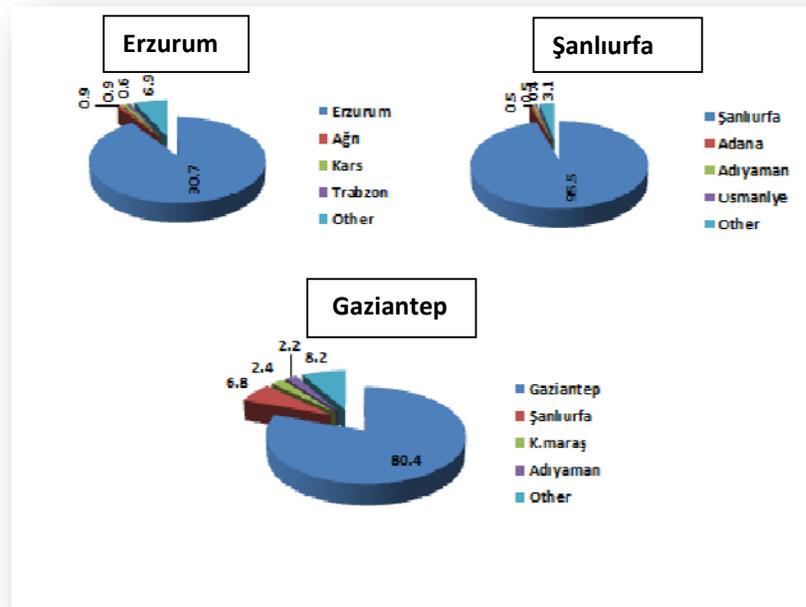
	Erzurum		Gaziantep		Sanliurfa	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
0-5	567	9,4%	845	13,9%	1005	14,7%
6-10	586	9,8%	753	12,4%	930	13,6%
11-15	666	11,1%	718	11,8%	887	12,9%
16-20	723	12,0%	651	10,7%	849	12,4%
21-25	619	10,3%	576	9,5%	656	9,6%
26-30	515	8,6%	549	9,0%	593	8,6%
31-35	400	6,7%	469	7,7%	407	5,9%
36-40	373	6,2%	384	6,3%	359	5,2%
41-45	357	5,9%	271	4,5%	319	4,7%
46-50	296	4,9%	252	4,2%	231	3,4%
51-55	264	4,4%	174	2,9%	192	2,8%
56-60	209	3,5%	163	2,7%	159	2,3%
61-65	131	2,2%	103	1,7%	101	1,5%
66-70	128	2,1%	83	1,4%	75	1,1%
70>	173	2,9%	79	1,3%	96	1,4%

Figure 2: Population according to age groups



**Figure 3: Population according to age and sex**

The distribution of age groups based on sex in the cities is given in the graph above. All the three cities have a demographic structure that includes high fertility and low life expectancy. In all the three cities, the fact that most of the population consists of young people and children, and the fact that the density of the population is low in higher age levels is the most significant indicator of this. 30% of the city population in Erzurum consists of children aged 15 and below, 38% of the population in Gaziantep consists of children, and 41.1% of the city population in Urfa consist of children aged 15 and below. In all the cities, as the numbers of women and men in different age groups have almost equal proportions, no significant difference in life expectancies based on sex are observed.



**Figure 4: Population according to the birthplace**

Population distribution of houses in target quarters in cities according to the birthplaces of persons is given in the table above. In Erzurum, nearly 90.7% of the population consists of people who were born in Erzurum, and 9.3% of the population consists of people from other cities. However, only 70% of those who were born in Erzurum were born in the city centre, the rest of them were born in the country, counties and villages and then moved to the centre later on. Erzurum-born people are followed respectively by Ağrı, Kars and Trabzon-born people.

In Gaziantep, 80.4% of the population in residences is Gaziantep-born. However, only 68.4% of those who are Gaziantep-born were born in the city centre, 12% of the population was born in the country, counties and villages and then moved to the centre later on. Gaziantep-born people are followed respectively by Şanlıurfa, Kahramanmaraş and Adıyaman-born people.

In Şanlıurfa, 95.5% of the city population consists of Şanlıurfa-born people and nearly 4.5% of the population consists of people born outside the city. These people are followed respectively by Adana, Adıyaman and Osmaniye-born people. Only 76% of Şanlıurfa-born people were born in the city centre. 8.6% of the rest were born in the districts and 10.9% of them were born in the villages of Şanlıurfa. Thus, when the birthplaces of house members and types of settlement are considered together, the rates of immigrants in the city is 24% and they are mainly constituted of country and country origins.

When the results of these three cities are examined together, it is clear that they allow migrations mainly on the regional level and from close environments. The immigration rate into these three cities is not high according to the birthplaces. However, Gaziantep allows more immigration compared to the other two cities. The ADNKS results of 2008 confirm this situation (figure 5).

	ADNKS 2008 Population	immigration	emigration	Net migration	NET Migration speed
Erzurum	774.967	18.999	43.585	-24.586	-31,23
Gaziantep	1.612.223	37.184	36.229	955	0,59
Şanlıurfa	1.574.224	25.510	37.282	-11.772	-7,45

Figure 5: ADNKS 2008 Immigration

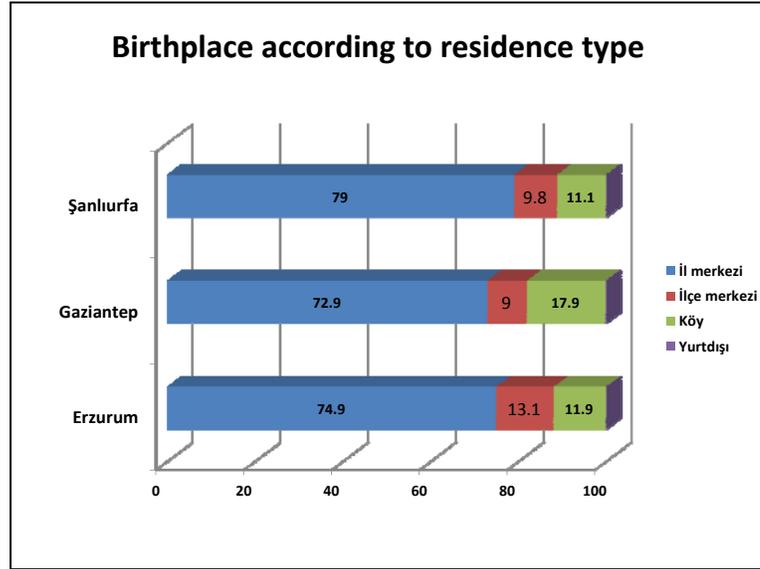


Figure 6: Birthplace according to residence type

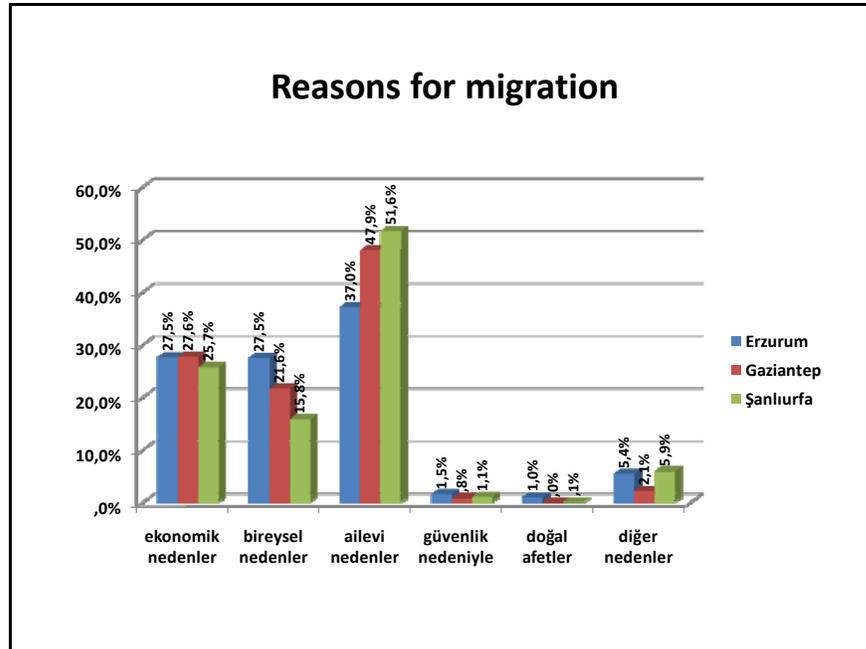
When the distribution of the types of residences is examined based on the birthplaces of people living in the residences in the scope of the sample, we can see that there is no significant difference in the rate of city centre-born people among the cities; in all three cities the rate of city centre-born people is higher than 70%. The city with the highest rate of district-born people is Erzurum, and the lowest is Gaziantep. However, Gaziantep is the city with the highest rate of

village-born people, which is 17.9%; in Erzurum and Şanlıurfa, the rate of village-born people is nearly the same.

	Erzurum		Gaziantep		Şanlıurfa	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>2000 and later</b>	638	39,1%	585	30,3%	749	43,5%
<b>Between 1990-2000</b>	389	23,9%	634	32,8%	493	28,7%
<b>Between 1970-1980</b>	258	15,8%	337	17,4%	268	15,6%
<b>Between 1960-1970</b>	187	11,5%	227	11,7%	123	7,2%
<b>Between 1950-1960</b>	86	5,3%	105	5,4%	63	3,7%
<b>1960 and before</b>	72	4,4%	44	2,3%	24	1,4%

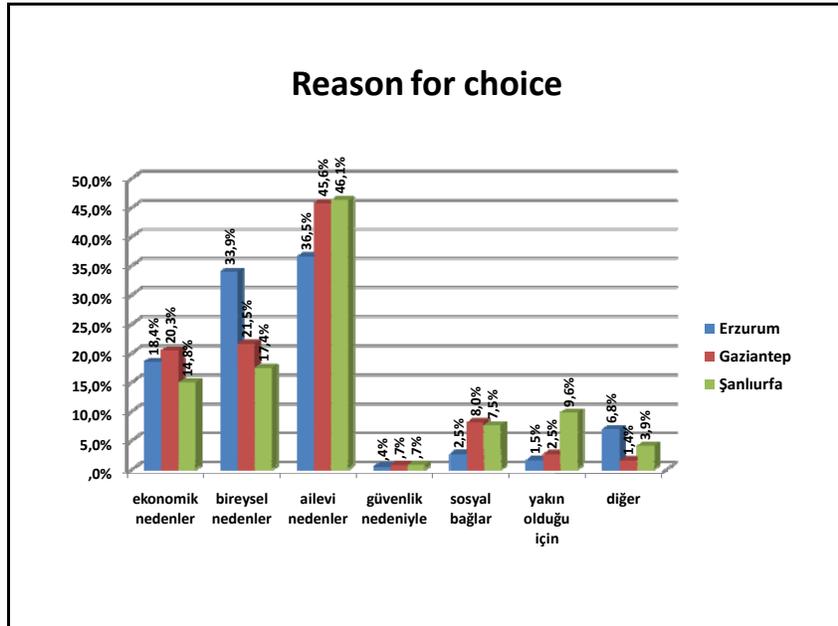
**Figure 7: Immigration Time**

When the distribution of the dates of immigration in groups is considered, it can be said that the densest immigration to Erzurum and Şanlıurfa occurred after 2000; in Gaziantep, however, the immigration is relatively higher in the years 1990-2000, the constant rise continued during this ten years period, and only a slight decrease in Gaziantep has been observed. In all cities, nearly 80% and more of the immigrant population arrived after the year 1980.



**Figure 8: Reasons for migration**

In the graph above, the reasons for migrating of the members of the target houses in these three cities are shown in groups. Although the main reason seems to be ‘family issues’ in all cities, it is possible to say that economic reasons are at the top of the list in all cities as ‘parents’ searching for a job, job change or spouses searching a job’ are included in the grouped familial reasons along with the economic reasons. Moreover, parents’ immigration, in other words second generation immigrants, has an important place in all cities in the familial reasons. The highest rate of migration due to familial reasons is in Şanlıurfa with a rate of 51.6%. In other words, 5 people in 10 who came to Şanlıurfa via immigration immigrated due to familial reasons. Individual reasons are relatively higher in Erzurum with a rate of 27.5%; this rate remains at 15% in Şanlıurfa. Education and assignment as reasons to migrate have an important place in individual reasons consisting of grouped reasons such as marriage, education and health. Immigration due to security reasons are low in all cities compared to other reasons for immigration.



**Figure 9: Reason to choose the immigration place**

The reasons why people chose to migrate to Erzurum, Gaziantep and Bursa are shown in the graph above in groups. Differences between cities are among the reasons for different choices of immigrants as it is seen in the graph of reasons for immigration. Gaziantep stays at the top of the list for being chosen due to economic reasons with a rate of 20,3%. Gaziantep is followed by Erzurum with a rate of 18,4%. Şanlıurfa is the most preferred city to immigrate to due to ‘familial reasons’ with a rate of 46,1%. This means that one in two people having immigrated to Şanlıurfa within the sample chose this city due to ‘familial and/or economical reasons’ such as parents’ immigration, searching for a job, spouse’s migration or searching for a job or going to live with them. The most preferred city according to individual reasons is Erzurum; this is mainly due to education and assignment issues. Another important difference between cities is related to the choices of people based on relatives, acquaintances or townsman which are grouped as ‘social relations’. Gaziantep with 8% and Şanlıurfa with 7,5% are three times more preferred than Erzurum due to social relations. This is an indicator of the fact that relatives and townsman relationships are still strong in related cities. Immigration due to security reasons are low in all cities compared to other reasons. Another reason for preferring these cities is the closeness. In this context, Şanlıurfa is the city with the highest rate at 9,6%, which is quite different in other cities. One in ten people who immigrated in Şanlıurfa prefers this city as it is close. This explains the immigration that Şanlıurfa has from its own countryside and nearby cities.

Over 6 years old		Erzurum			Gaziantep			Şanlıurfa		
		Resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Is s/he literate?	Yes	90,8%	89,2%	77,5%	90,5%	84,3%	66,5%	83,0%	75,9%	56,5%
	No	9,2%	10,7%	22,5%	9,5%	15,6%	33,3%	17,0%	24,1%	43,5%
	Unknown	,0%	,1%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he ever go to school?	Yes	89,9%	87,7%	71,2%	90,8%	82,1%	63,1%	81,4%	74,2%	51,1%
	No	10,1%	12,3%	28,5%	9,2%	17,9%	36,8%	18,5%	25,8%	48,9%
	Unknown	,1%	,0%	,3%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%
What is the latest school that s/he went to?	Primary school ( 5 years)	24,3%	27,2%	56,2%	28,2%	47,9%	71,5%	22,8%	29,3%	63,0%
	Intermediate school (3 years)	8,5%	8,3%	11,6%	6,7%	11,1%	9,6%	6,3%	6,4%	9,9%
	Primary school	31,7%	13,2%	1,4%	42,8%	15,4%	,7%	50,5%	27,1%	1,2%
	Intermediate school	24,6%	22,0%	17,3%	17,1%	16,1%	11,8%	15,6%	20,0%	17,7%
	High school/university	10,6%	28,6%	12,8%	5,0%	9,1%	6,5%	4,7%	16,3%	8,2%
	Graduate/doctorate	,3%	,7%	,7%	,1%	,4%	,0%	,0%	,8%	,0%
	Unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,0%
	Did s/he graduate from this school?	Yes	57,0%	66,5%	87,9%	44,5%	64,7%	77,0%	42,3%	57,9%
No	43,0%	33,5%	12,1%	55,5%	35,3%	23,0%	57,7%	42,1%	19,2%	
Does s/he have a diploma?	Unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%

Figure 10: Educational Status

The educational statuses of the household members in Erzurum, Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa are shown in the table above according to their immigration status. Literacy rates show differences according to cities and immigration statuses. While there is no significant difference between the immigrants and the settled people in Erzurum, slight differences exist in Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa, where new immigrants are much lower. However, in all three cities there is a great gap between old and new immigrants in terms of literacy. Moreover, in Şanlıurfa, the rate of old immigrants that are illiterate is 43.5%. This means that every 2 people in 5 out of the old immigrants who migrated to Şanlıurfa are illiterate. Schooling rates are not different in these 3 cities; they are even a little lower. The distribution of those who received no education in any educational institute based on their immigration status is almost the same as the literacy rates. The rate of those who never attended a school is the highest in old immigrants; then come new immigrants, and lastly the settled people. Within the scope of the question related to the last attended school, the highest rate of those who attended primary and secondary schools belongs to old immigrants (except Gaziantep). The highest rate of primary school graduates belongs to settled people but the highest rate of university graduates by far belongs to new immigrants. As for high school

education, the rates are close to one another in all cities although there are differences based on cities and immigration statuses.

Age group 6-14		Erzurum			Gaziantep			Şanlıurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
Does s/he go to school this year?	Yes	97,1%	100,0%	100,0%	96,1%	90,9%	100,0%	94,8%	96,8%	100,0%
	No	2,9%	,0%	,0%	3,9%	9,1%	,0%	5,2%	3,2%	,0%
Why does s/he not go to school?	Helping house/garden works	8,7%	,0%	,0%	3,2%	,0%	,0%	6,5%	,0%	,0%
	there is no school in the vicinity/the school is far away,	4,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
	ill/disabled	,0%	,0%	,0%	6,5%	,0%	,0%	3,2%	20,0%	,0%
	unsuccessful/does not want to study	21,7%	,0%	,0%	58,1%	25,0%	,0%	30,6%	20,0%	,0%
	being a girl	13,0%	,0%	,0%	3,2%	25,0%	,0%	24,2%	40,0%	,0%
	not having financial possibilities	39,1%	,0%	,0%	16,1%	37,5%	,0%	29,0%	,0%	,0%
	s/he needs to work	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
	Other	4,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
	Unknown/No answer	8,7%	,0%	,0%	12,9%	12,5%	,0%	6,5%	20,0%	,0%

**Figure 11: School Attendance**

The results of the 6-14 years age group in compulsory education period are quite striking. In Erzurum, 3% of only settled people do not attend school within this age group. In Şanlıurfa, the rate of settled people (5.2%) is a little higher than new immigrants (3.2%). However, the most striking result is that the rate of those who do not attend a school is the highest in Gaziantep than any other city and immigration status with a rate of 9.1%. This means that almost one in every 10 children in the 6-14 years age group does not attend a school. When the reasons for not attending school are considered, economical problems in new immigrants and failure / unwillingness in settled people come to the fore. In Erzurum, economical problems are the main reasons for non-attendance. In Şanlıurfa, the reason for not attending school is indicated as ‘being a girl’ especially in new immigrants. In the results of settled people, all three reasons are expressed nearly in the same rates.

Age group 15-64		Erzurum			Gaziantep			Sanliurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Has s/he worked within the last week regardless of whether s/he made money or not?	Yes	28,0%	30,1%	33,1%	31,0%	31,9%	31,1%	27,4%	30,1%	32,4%
	No	72,0%	69,9%	66,9%	69,0%	68,1%	68,9%	72,6%	69,9%	67,6%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
You mentioned that s/he does not work. Does s/he have a job?	Yes	4,6%	5,2%	6,3%	7,8%	8,7%	9,0%	11,2%	13,8%	17,6%
	No	95,4%	94,8%	93,7%	92,2%	91,3%	91,0%	88,8%	86,2%	82,4%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he have social security?	Yes	66,9%	73,2%	75,8%	47,4%	53,5%	45,5%	39,8%	46,4%	37,2%
	No	33,1%	26,8%	24,2%	52,6%	46,5%	54,5%	60,2%	53,6%	62,8%

**Figure 12: Employment Status**

When the employment status of the people of the 3 cities in the sample, who are in the working age groups of 15-64 years are considered, the rate of those who do not work anywhere is higher in all cities among settled people with a slight difference. The striking result here is that 3 people in every 5 immigrants or settled people in all cities do not work in any kind of job.

In the distribution of those who do not work but have a profession based on settled people, new immigrants and old immigrants, the rates of the old immigrants and settled people are a little higher compared to new immigrants. That the working rates of Şanlıurfa are much higher than the other cities is probably due to the fact that people come to work in Şanlıurfa seasonally.

When the employees aged 15-64 years are considered in terms of their social security possessions, although the rates show differences based on cities and the immigration status of individuals, in Şanlıurfa, the rate of people who work informally is above 60% in settled people and old immigrants. This means that 3 in every 5 people in Şanlıurfa work informally. According to the results of the study, the highest rate of social security possession in Erzurum belongs to old immigrants with a slight difference, and new immigrants in Şanlıurfa and Gaziantep. That Erzurum is the city where the highest rate of social security possession is observed may result from the fact that the immigration in Erzurum is based on education and assignment issues.

	Age group 15-64	Erzurum			Gaziantep			Sanliurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
What is his/her job?		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
	Civil Servant	18,9%	38,1%	25,6%	5,1%	9,0%	4,7%	6,2%	22,6%	6,8%
	Worker	25,7%	28,2%	24,4%	54,2%	53,1%	42,5%	44,5%	31,4%	36,7%
	Bureau Personnel	3,7%	1,5%	1,1%	1,3%	,8%	,0%	1,5%	2,1%	2,3%
	Small retailer/artificer	15,8%	5,9%	18,8%	12,4%	6,4%	16,7%	15,6%	7,5%	10,7%
	Employer/merchant	,4%	,7%	,6%	1,0%	,8%	,9%	,4%	,0%	,6%
	Seasonal worker	1,0%	1,1%	,0%	,4%	,8%	,4%	10,7%	14,7%	16,9%
	Professional independent business	7,3%	3,7%	5,1%	6,8%	7,7%	6,0%	5,3%	4,9%	3,4%
	Irregular unqualified works	10,8%	12,8%	8,5%	6,9%	12,4%	18,9%	13,5%	13,6%	19,8%
	Farmer	8,6%	2,6%	6,8%	6,1%	,5%	,9%	1,9%	3,1%	2,8%
	Unpaid household worker	,4%	,0%	,0%	1,7%	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%
	Other	7,3%	5,5%	9,1%	4,2%	8,5%	9,0%	,1%	,3%	,0%
Where does s/he work at?	Agriculture	8,7%	3,3%	5,1%	5,7%	2,3%	1,8%	12,4%	19,2%	20,9%
	Public/State	27,1%	43,8%	35,0%	8,9%	10,8%	9,6%	10,3%	27,2%	14,3%
	Private Sector	36,3%	34,3%	31,1%	59,7%	61,3%	44,3%	43,0%	29,8%	28,0%
	Own Workplace	15,0%	8,0%	18,6%	17,7%	7,5%	19,3%	17,3%	8,8%	12,6%
	Own house (e.g. handiwork, nursing, cooking)	,6%	,4%	,6%	1,1%	3,9%	3,5%	1,1%	,3%	,5%
	Someone else's house (e.g. housework, nursing)	,4%	,0%	1,1%	,4%	,3%	,0%	,2%	,3%	,0%
	In the Streets (e.g. peddler, stallholder, lottery)	1,7%	,7%	1,1%	1,8%	2,8%	6,1%	3,8%	4,4%	7,7%
	changing fixed places (e.g. construction, instalment works)	4,6%	8,4%	4,5%	3,3%	8,8%	11,0%	8,4%	6,7%	11,5%
	on board (e.g. taxi, collective taxi)	3,0%	,7%	1,7%	,4%	1,5%	3,1%	2,5%	2,3%	3,8%
	Other	2,5%	,4%	1,1%	,8%	,8%	1,3%	1,1%	1,0%	,5%

Figure 13: Jobs

A result put forward by the study findings related to the employment quality is that the employment structure of cities differs independent from the immigration status. The highest rate of those who work as officers belongs to new immigrants in Erzurum; the lowest rate belongs to old immigrants in Gaziantep. In line with this, the highest rate of public sector workers belongs to new immigrants in Erzurum. Also, in Şanlıurfa, the rate of new immigrants that work as officers is much higher than others.

The highest rate of those who are workers belongs to Gaziantep, and the lowest belongs to Erzurum. In spite of slight differences, new immigrants in Erzurum and settled people in Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa are mainly workers. The largest

group working as handicraftsman and craftsman consists of old immigrants in Erzurum and Gaziantep and settled people in Şanlıurfa. Naturally, the highest rate of those who are seasonal workers belongs to Şanlıurfa. Here, old immigrants, new immigrants and settled people respectively follow one another with little difference. In line with this, the highest rate of agricultural workers belongs to Şanlıurfa as well. The rate of those who work as farmers is higher among settled people in Erzurum and Gaziantep, and new immigrants in Şanlıurfa.

The rates of those who work in unqualified jobs irregularly shows differences based on the cities and immigration statuses. In Erzurum, new immigrants have the highest rate with 12.8% for working in unqualified jobs irregularly, and old immigrants in Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa with a rate of 19%. This is a very high rate; it means that almost one in five people in Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa have this kind of job. Those who work in shifting places do not have a particular work place and it is not possible for them to work formally. These jobs generally have low incomes, and are indefinite and insecure. The highest rate of those who work in a particular work place belongs to old immigrants with an approximate rate of 11% in Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa. The highest rate of those working in the private sector is 61.3% and it belongs to new immigrants in Gaziantep. This rate is higher among settled people in Erzurum and Şanlıurfa. Old immigrants in Erzurum and Gaziantep, and settled people in Şanlıurfa mainly work in their own workplaces.

	Age group 15-64	Erzurum			Gaziantep			Sanliurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<b>Why does s/he not work?</b>	Cannot find work/there is no available work	8,0%	5,4%	4,7%	9,5%	8,6%	11,6%	9,7%	10,4%	10,5%
	Retired	5,5%	3,2%	17,8%	3,0%	1,7%	14,1%	3,1%	1,7%	8,3%
	Ill/disabled	1,5%	,7%	2,0%	3,5%	3,6%	4,0%	2,9%	1,9%	4,4%
	no permission by the family/spouse	1,2%	,7%	,7%	1,3%	1,4%	,8%	1,6%	,3%	,9%
	Student	27,4%	33,5%	1,3%	22,0%	11,1%	1,5%	20,6%	18,2%	,9%
	His/her age is not convenient	1,4%	1,1%	3,4%	,7%	1,7%	5,3%	,6%	,8%	1,7%
	Has a good	,5%	,0%	,3%	,1%	,3%	,3%	,2%	,0%	,0%

condition/does not need										
Not to lose the green card	,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,0%	,0%
It is not the season	,6%	,4%	,3%	,6%	,2%	,3%	,5%	,8%	,4%	
Housewife/girl	50,7%	52,9%	68,8%	55,8%	68,3%	61,4%	57,7%	63,0%	72,1%	
Unknown/No idea	,8%	,9%	,0%	,3%	,9%	,0%	,4%	,2%	,0%	
No answer/did not want to answer	,2%	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,0%	,0%	
Other	2,3%	1,3%	,7%	3,1%	2,2%	,8%	2,6%	2,7%	,9%	

**Figure 14: Reason for not working**

The matter which should be highlighted in the reasons for not working is that the proportion of those who look for a job but cannot find one and those who are settled is nearly the same as those who came here by migration, although this last proportion is higher in Erzurum. The group in which the number of those who do not work as they are retired is the highest, is the older immigrants. This condition may arise from the fact that they are at the end of their working ages as stated before.

The proportion of those who do not work as they are housewives does not differ much according to the cities and the status of migration. The proportion is higher in the older immigrants in Erzurum and Şanlıurfa, while it is higher in the settled group in Gaziantep. Similarly, the proportion of those who do not work as they are students does not differ significantly outside Gaziantep between the settled and the new immigrants when evaluated excluding the older immigrants as the age group is higher. The difference in Erzurum arises from the fact that the city gets many students from outside for education purposes.

		Erzurum			Gaziantep			Sanliurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Does s/he have social security?	no	15,9%	12,1%	7,5%	36,3%	36,3%	28,9%	25,0%	28,2%	18,8%
	SSK	40,7%	40,5%	43,5%	34,7%	36,3%	39,9%	30,0%	23,3%	29,1%
	Emekli sandigi	14,0%	24,5%	21,8%	4,1%	7,4%	8,2%	7,4%	15,9%	10,3%
	BAGKUR	10,3%	7,0%	13,3%	10,6%	4,9%	10,1%	9,6%	6,8%	11,5%
	Green card	19,0%	15,6%	13,3%	13,7%	14,4%	11,9%	27,9%	25,8%	30,1%
	Private health insurance	,1%	,0%	,5%	,0%	,4%	,3%	,0%	,0%	,2%
	other	,0%	,3%	,0%	,6%	,3%	,7%	,0%	,1%	,0%

**Figure 15: Having Social Security**

The proportion of those who are not included in any social security goes up to 36% in new immigrants in Gaziantep for the immigrants and adults in the target neighbourhoods in all of the cities in terms of social security. The highest proportions of those who do not have any social security are 15.9% in the settled group in Erzurum, 36.3% in the settled and the new immigrants in Gaziantep, and 28.2% in new immigrants in Şanlıurfa among all the cities with tiny differences. Another important point is the ownership of a health card (green card). The group in which the ownership of the health card is the highest is the settled in Erzurum, the new immigrants in Gaziantep with a small difference, and the older immigrants in Şanlıurfa with a proportion of 30%. There is no big difference between the groups in all of the cities. However, the ownership of a health card is high generally. In Şanlıurfa, 7 people in 10 have health cards within the older immigrants and the settled groups. The proportion of those who have social security for artisans and the self-employed (bağkur) is nearly the same for the settled and the older immigrants in all of the cities. This also shows parallelism with the proportion of those who work at their own workplace. The proportion of those with social security (ssk) is the highest in Erzurum, while there is no crucial difference between the settled and the immigrants. The proportion of ownership of social security (ssk) is higher than the other groups in the older immigrants in Gaziantep by 40% and in the settled in Şanlıurfa by 30%. There are differences

between Erzurum and the other cities in terms of the retirement fund. The older immigrants have the highest proportion in Gaziantep with 8.2% while the new immigrants have the highest proportion in Şanlıurfa with 15.9%. The settled is the group which has the least proportion of having the retirement fund in all of these 3 cities.

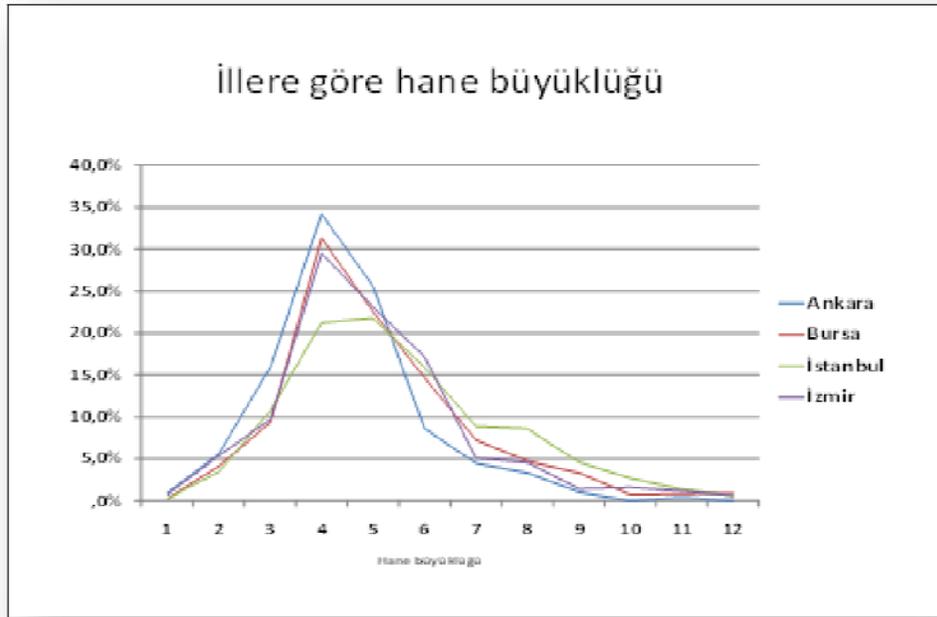
		Erzurum			Gaziantep			Şanlıurfa		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Does s/he have an illness that needs constant care and treatment?	yes	5,5%	6,1%	13,3%	6,0%	9,6%	22,7%	4,9%	4,8%	14,6%
	no	94,5%	93,9%	86,7%	94,0%	90,4%	77,3%	95,1%	95,2%	85,4%
Does s/he have any physical disability?	yes	1,4%	1,2%	,7%	1,6%	2,3%	3,4%	1,6%	1,9%	4,0%
	no	98,6%	98,8%	99,2%	98,4%	97,7%	96,6%	98,4%	98,1%	96,0%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he have any mental disability?	yes	,7%	1,0%	,5%	,6%	,4%	,6%	,6%	,6%	,0%
	no	99,3%	99,0%	99,3%	99,4%	99,6%	99,4%	99,4%	99,4%	100,0%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he get a salary from the government?	yes	39,6%	16,7%	,0%	29,2%	17,4%	41,2%	15,6%	22,7%	27,8%
	no	60,4%	83,3%	100,0%	70,8%	82,6%	58,8%	84,4%	77,3%	72,2%

**Figure 16: Health Conditions**

Those who have an illness which requires constant care and treatment are naturally the older immigrants in all of the cities. This condition is directly proportional with the age group of the older immigrants as stated in the previous sections. The proportions of those who have chronic diseases do not differ much between the groups in Erzurum and Şanlıurfa, while the proportion is higher among the new immigrants in Gaziantep. Another matter which is partially connected to health is disability. We have found among the answers of the two questions in which mental and physical disabilities are evaluated separately that the proportion of especially those with physical disabilities is higher in the older immigrants than the other groups in Gaziantep by 3.4% and Şanlıurfa by 4%. The proportion of those who get salaries from the government is interestingly much higher in all 3 cities than the number of disabled people. This situation indicates two possibilities: the questions may have been misunderstood by those who

answered them, or the proportion of disabled people may not have been declared because of some embarrassments while it was higher than the proportion that was declared. This proportion is nearly 40% in older immigrants in Gaziantep and in the settled in Erzurum.

#### 4.3.2 Finding of the Second Project



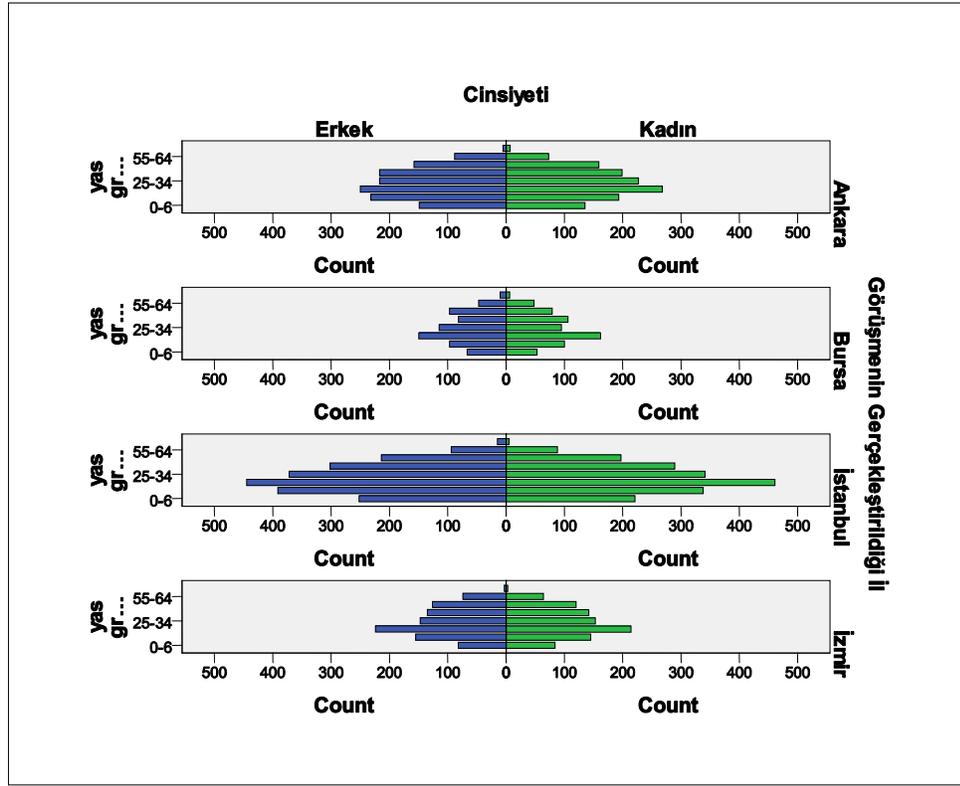
**Figure 17: Household size according to cities**

The average household sizes of the four cities are: Ankara 3,95, Bursa 4,46, İstanbul 4,72 and İzmir 4,29. According to the data from the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) in 2005, as the general average of Turkey is 4.5, the averages of İstanbul and Bursa are above the average of Turkey. With a rate of 31% and more, most families in Ankara, İzmir and Bursa consist of nuclear families. In İstanbul, the rate of nuclear families is low in comparison with the rates in other

cities, however the rate of large families which consist of 7 or more persons is around 15%, and this rate is much more than the rates of other cities.

	Ankara		Bursa		Istanbul		Izmir	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>0-5</b>	246	9,3%	105	7,8%	395	9,6%	140	7,3%
<b>6-10</b>	247	9,3%	114	8,4%	441	10,7%	181	9,4%
<b>11-15</b>	255	9,6%	135	10,0%	467	11,4%	175	9,1%
<b>16-20</b>	270	10,2%	166	12,3%	473	11,5%	257	13,4%
<b>21-25</b>	255	9,6%	145	10,7%	404	9,8%	180	9,4%
<b>26-30</b>	249	9,4%	111	8,2%	414	10,1%	167	8,7%
<b>31-35</b>	214	8,1%	88	6,5%	299	7,3%	132	6,9%
<b>36-40</b>	226	8,5%	100	7,4%	335	8,2%	136	7,1%
<b>41-45</b>	180	6,8%	94	7,0%	256	6,2%	147	7,6%
<b>46-50</b>	164	6,2%	89	6,6%	221	5,4%	139	7,2%
<b>51-55</b>	135	5,1%	82	6,1%	156	3,8%	102	5,3%
<b>56-60</b>	85	3,2%	49	3,6%	94	2,3%	87	4,5%
<b>61-65</b>	51	1,9%	36	2,7%	70	1,7%	28	1,5%
<b>66-70</b>	39	1,5%	21	1,6%	29	,7%	17	,9%
<b>70&gt;</b>	40	1,5%	17	1,3%	55	1,3%	36	1,9%
<b>Total</b>	2656	100,0%	1352	100,0%	4109	100,0%	1924	100,0%

**Figure 18: Population according to age group**



**Figure 19: Population according to age group and gender**

The distribution of population according to gender and age is close in all 4 cities. The rate of women is 49%, the rate of men is 51%. The graph that shows the age distribution of the population according to gender in the four cities can be seen above. In addition, the rates of gender are also close according to age groups. 28% of men and 25% of women in Ankara, 24% of men and 23% of women in Bursa, 30% of men and 28% of women in İstanbul, 25% of men and 24% of women in İzmir are under the age of 14. In the following table, the rates of the 4 cities are compared to the results of the 2005 TYGONA (Turkey Migration and Internally Displaced Population Survey), 2008 TNSA (Turkey Demographic and Health Survey) and 2008 ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System). According to the field research of the Internal Migration Integration Project (IGEP), related to the target group, the city which has the highest fertility rate but at the same time the lowest rate of life expectancy is İstanbul. The city which has the lowest age dependence rate is İzmir. The

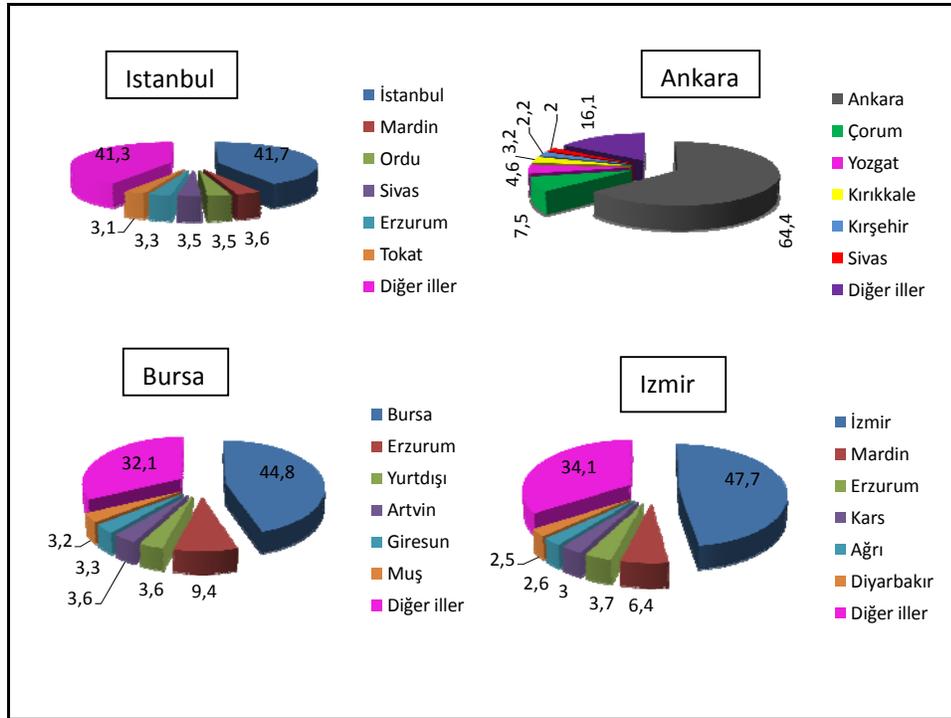
research reveals that economic burdens on the unproductive population, consisting of old and young people have decreased significantly in Izmir.

	TYGONA 2005	TNSA 2008	ADNKS 2008	Ankara IGEP	Bursa IGEP	Istanbul IGEP	Izmir IGEP
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
<b>&lt;15</b>	25,3	27,4	26,3	26,7	23,4	29,3	24,2
<b>15-64</b>	68,2	65,8	66,9	69,9	72,6	68,2	72,7
<b>&gt;65</b>	6,5	6,8	6,8	3,4	4	2,5	3,1
<b>TOTAL</b>	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
<b>Median age</b>	27,0	26,5	26,4	27	26,5	24	27
<b>Dependence rate</b>	46,6	51,9	49,5	45	40	50	38

**Figure 20: Population according to chosen sources**

In the table above, the last three demographic researches compare the distribution of the household population according to wide age groups on the basis of the data collected from the 2005 TYGONA (Turkey Migration and Internally Displaced Population Survey), 2008 TNSA (Turkey Demographic and Health Survey) and ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System). In the table, we can see that when the field researches conducted in the 4 cities within the scope of 2008 ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System) and 2008 Migration Integration Project (IGEP) are compared, the population under the age of 15 in Bursa and Izmir is below the average. This rate in Istanbul is 29,3% and thus above the average. Whereas the portion of the old population is expected to be higher, within each of the four cities it is below the average of 2008 ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System). This situation can be explained with the fact that the target group who came through migration is mainly in this age group.

The dependence rate is described as the rate of the unproductive population (under the age of 15 and at the age of 65 or above) over the population in the age group of 15-64. In the population census of 2008 ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System), the dependence rate which had been around 50%, decreased to 38% in Izmir Migration Integration Project (IGEP). The decrease in the dependence rate reveals that within the target group, the economic burden on the unproductive population consisting of old and young people has decreased significantly. However the dependence rate in other cities is above 45%. Parallel to this finding, the median age of household population which is 26,4 in ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System) is almost the same with ADNKS (Address Based Population Registration System) in other cities, though in Istanbul it is 24 within the scope of the Izmir Migration Integration Project (IGEP).

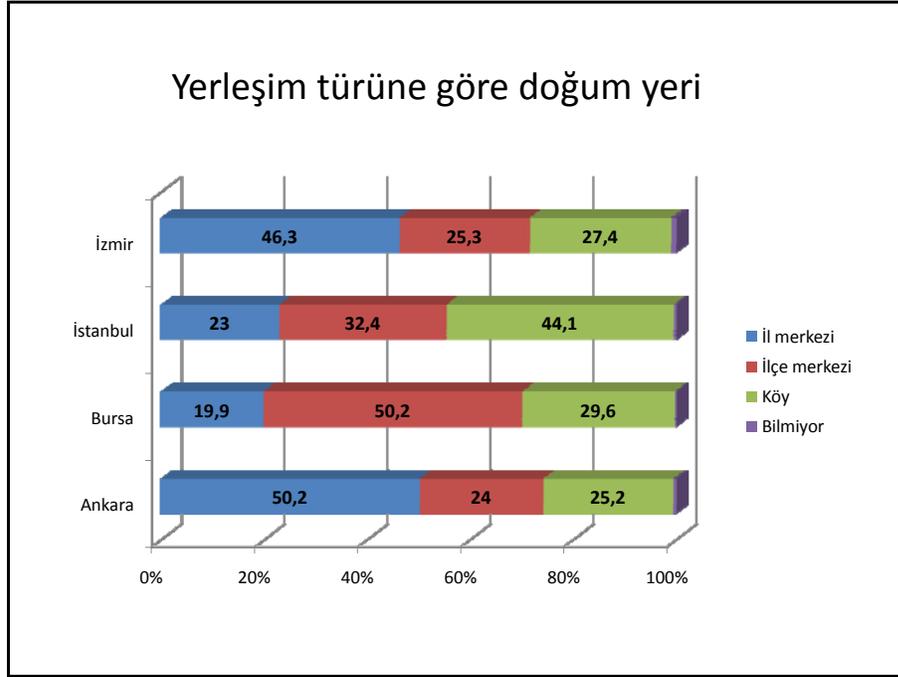


### Figure 21: Population according to birth place

The table above shows the population distribution of households in target neighbourhoods in urban areas according to the birth places of persons. Around 42% of the population in target neighbourhoods in Istanbul consists of people who were born in Istanbul. However, only 48,8% of Istanbul-born people were born in the city centre. The rest were born in rural districts or villages and migrated to the centre in later years. Mardin, Ordu, Sivas, Erzurum and Tokat-born people follow Istanbul born ones respectively.

Within the households in Ankara, 64, 4% are Ankara-born. 70, 6% of these people were born in the city centre. Çorum, Yozgat, Kırıkkale, Kırşehir and Sivas-born people follow Ankara-born ones respectively. Apparently, the city of Ankara lets in immigrants mainly from the Central Anatolia Region.

In Bursa, 44, 8% of people living in disadvantaged households within target neighbourhoods were born in the city centre. Erzurum, abroad, Artvin, Giresun and Muş-born people follow Bursa-born ones respectively. Only 25,7% of Bursa-born people were born in the city centre. 68,8% of the rest were born in districts and others in villages in Bursa. In Izmir, the rate of people who were born in Izmir is 47,7%. 75,5% of Izmir-born people were born in the city centre. Mardin, Erzurum, Kars, Ağrı and Diyarbakır-born people follow Izmir-born ones respectively. Izmir lets in immigrants mainly from the Eastern and South-eastern Anatolia regions at the regional level.



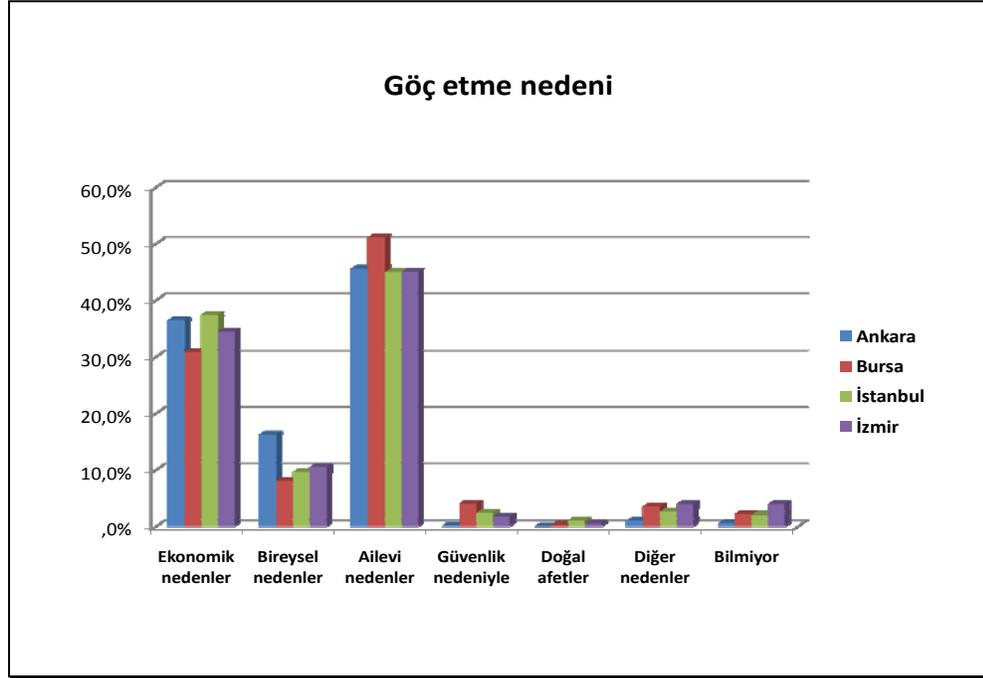
**Figure 22: Birth place according to settlement type**

When the distribution of settlement types of the birth places of people living in target neighbourhoods is examined, according to cities it can be seen that the city which has the highest rate of those who were born in the city centre is Ankara with 50,2%; the city with the lowest rate is Bursa with 19,9%. The city which has the highest number of people who were born in the district centre is Bursa; the city with the lowest number is Ankara. İstanbul is the city which has the highest rate of those who were born in villages with 44,1%, and Ankara is the city which has the lowest rate with 25,2%. This situation also corresponds to the results obtained in the table of real estate ownership.

	Ankara		Bursa		Istanbul		Izmir	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>2001 and later</b>	276	29,30	209	28,30	653	27,70	191	19,00
<b>Between 1991 - 2000</b>	263	27,90	237	32,10	844	35,80	300	29,80
<b>Between 1981 - 1991</b>	178	18,90	203	27,50	503	21,30	259	25,70
<b>Between 1971 - 1981</b>	122	13,00	81	11,00	246	10,40	184	18,30
<b>Between 1961 - 1971</b>	78	8,30	5	0,70	93	3,90	47	4,70
<b>1960 and before</b>	25	2,70	3	0,40	18	0,80	25	2,50

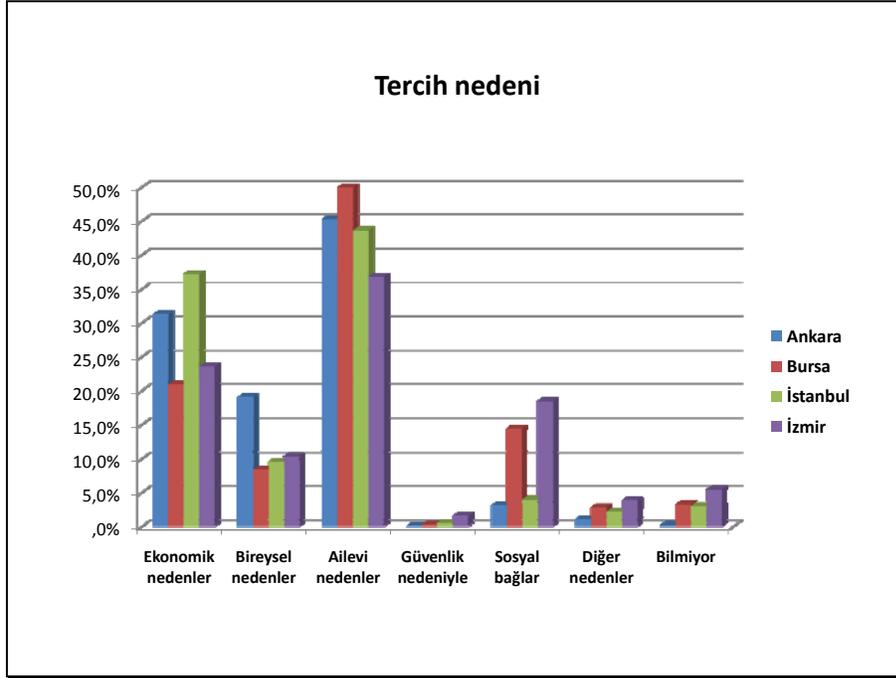
**Figure 23: Migration time**

When we examine the distribution of migration dates by cities, the most intensive migration to Ankara took place after 2000. Migrations to Bursa, Istanbul and Izmir were more intensive between 1990 and 2000. Although there was a constant increase on the basis of ten-year periods, after 2000 there was a slight decline in the mentioned cities. In Ankara, on the other hand, the increase continued. In all cities, almost more than 70% of the migrant population migrated to the mentioned cities after 1980.



**Figure 24: The reason of migration**

The graph above shows the reasons of migration found in the households in the target neighbourhoods within the four cities. Although "familial reasons" seem like the biggest reason, it is possible to say that as "family members' looking for job and job change" can be considered among economic reasons, "economic reasons" is on the first rank in all cities. Among familial reasons, "migration of parents" is also a significant reason in all of the cities. In Ankara, personal reasons has a relatively higher rate with 16,3% than other cities. Among "personal reasons" which consists of grouped reasons such as marriage, education, and health, migration for the reason of marriage has a significant place in the migration to Ankara. Although the rate of migration for safety reasons is low in all cities in comparison with other reasons, in Bursa this rate is a bit higher than in the other cities with 4%.



**Figure 25: The reason for choosing the current place to migrate**

People's reasons of migrating to Ankara, Bursa, İstanbul and İzmir are represented in groups in the graph above. As distinct from the graph showing the migration reasons, in preference reasons there have been differences between the cities. İstanbul takes place on top as the most preferred city for "economic reasons" with 37,2%. Ankara follows İstanbul with a rate of 32,1%. The most preferred city for "familial reasons" is Bursa with a rate of 50%. In Bursa, within the target group, one of two persons preferred Bursa for "familial and economic reasons" such as family members' looking for a job, migration of parents/spouse, etc. On the other hand, the most preferred city for personal reasons is Ankara. An important difference among cities is about preferences related to the group of "social ties" which consist of relatives, acquaintances, townsmen, etc. İzmir with 18,5% and Bursa with 14,4% are cities which are preferred two times more than two other cities for reasons related to "social ties" . This indicates the fact that in the mentioned cities family ties are still strong. Although the rate of migration for safety reasons is low in comparison with other

reasons, in Izmir this rate is higher than in other cities and this may arise from the fact that people who migrate from eastern and south eastern Anatolia mainly prefer Izmir.

over 6 years old	Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Does not go to school yet	1,8%	,7%	,0%	3,3%	1,1%	,0%	6,2%	1,2%	,0%	3,5%	1,2%	,0%
Preschool education (kindergarten, prep. class)	,3%	,2%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,0%	,8%	,0%	,2%
Has never been to school, is illiterate	2,0%	5,2%	9,4%	1,6%	6,0%	12,0%	1,0%	11,2%	11,7%	2,2%	10,7%	13,7%
Has never been to school, is literate	,5%	,7%	3,3%	,8%	2,1%	3,8%	,3%	3,0%	3,5%	,6%	3,6%	7,8%
Dropout from primary school, did not continue	2,2%	3,4%	4,6%	1,4%	1,7%	4,5%	1,3%	5,2%	5,5%	2,7%	3,5%	8,6%
Primary school graduate (6 years), did not continue	23,1%	40,0%	50,3%	21,7%	38,1%	48,5%	13,0%	41,5%	54,1%	16,8%	39,0%	48,9%
Student at the primary school	22,3%	11,6%	,0%	29,4%	6,4%	,0%	35,3%	10,5%	,2%	29,1%	6,5%	,8%
Dropout from intermediate or primary school	1,9%	3,6%	3,6%	1,8%	3,2%	3,0%	3,5%	2,2%	3,2%	3,0%	2,3%	3,9%
Intermediate or primary school graduate, did not continue	9,7%	12,7%	11,0%	6,1%	11,3%	9,8%	8,7%	9,2%	6,7%	10,3%	11,3%	6,3%
Student at intermediate school (3 years)	9,8%	5,2%	,0%	12,7%	5,1%	,0%	10,8%	3,1%	,0%	9,3%	5,2%	,2%
Dropout from intermediate school	3,0%	1,7%	2,6%	3,9%	1,3%	2,6%	2,7%	2,5%	2,0%	3,6%	3,1%	2,0%
Intermediate school graduate, did not continue	15,6%	9,9%	12,5%	9,0%	16,0%	10,5%	9,3%	6,7%	9,7%	11,1%	9,6%	3,9%
Student at high school or university	4,1%	1,9%	,8%	5,5%	3,6%	,8%	4,3%	1,2%	,1%	4,1%	1,3%	,4%
Dropout from college or university	,3%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,4%	,4%	,6%	,2%	,2%	,4%	,8%	,0%
College or university graduate	2,8%	2,4%	2,0%	2,3%	3,8%	3,8%	2,1%	1,8%	2,0%	1,4%	1,5%	3,1%
Master or doctorate student	,2%	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,2%	,2%	,0%	,4%	,2%	,0%
Master or doctorate graduate	,1%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,2%
No answer/unknown	,2%	,4%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,5%	,3%	,8%	,6%	,2%	,0%

Figure 26: Educational Background

When the educational backgrounds of the people living in the target neighbourhoods within the mentioned cities are compared according to their migration statuses, one of the most significant results is the serious difference between settled people in urban areas who never went to school and people who came through old/new migration. In all cities, the group in which primary school graduates are at the lowest rate is the settled group. Another remarkable detection is the difference in the rates of schooling in primary education. In all provinces, the rates of primary school students among settled people are significantly higher

among immigrants. In all provinces, even with a slight difference, among new immigrants the rate of primary or secondary school graduates is higher than old immigrants and settled people. On the other hand, the rates of high school graduates differ by cities and groups. The rates of high school students are also significantly higher than settled people in all cities. Although the rates of university or college students are low in all cities and groups, the high rate stands out among settled people in all cities.

Reason for not attending school	Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Helping house/garden works	5,4	21,9	12,0	25,0	23,7	19,0	5,9	13,8	11,0	4,5	9,3	10,5
there is no school in the vicinity/the school is far away,	27,0	12,5	10,0	,0	31,6	33,3	11,8	25,8	37,8	,0	8,0	13,3
ill/disabled	10,8	3,1	2,0	,0	2,6	,0	29,4	3,2	1,6	22,7	2,7	,0
unsuccessful/does not want to study	,0	3,1	4,0	,0	13,2	2,4	,0	2,8	,8	,0	4,0	6,7
being a girl	21,6	34,4	34,0	16,7	10,5	9,5	5,9	32,3	33,1	13,6	26,7	23,8
not having financial possibilities	32,4	25,0	32,0	41,7	10,5	21,4	29,4	13,8	13,4	36,4	37,3	31,4
s/he needs to work	,0	,0	2,0	,0	2,6	,0	11,8	,9	,0	9,1	,0	1,0
Other	2,7	,0	2,0	,0	,0	,0	,0	1,8	,8	,0	4,0	1,0
Unknown/No answer	,0	,0	2,0	16,7	5,3	14,3	5,9	5,5	1,6	13,6	8,0	12,4

**Figure 27: The reason not to attain to school**

There are some issues which stand out among the reasons of not going to school for persons above the age of 6. In all provinces, the first reason for not going to school for settled people is "financial impossibility", and this appears as "financial impossibility and disease" in Istanbul. The strange thing is the fact that, except for Izmir, in all other cities, two different reasons stand out among the new and old immigrant groups. These reasons are "because the person is a girl" and "there is no school nearby". The most important point here is the fact that among new immigrant groups "being a girl" is still a reason for not being able to go to school. In Izmir, the most important reason according to all migration statuses is "financial impossibility". In Bursa, the most significant reason among old and new immigrants is "there is no school nearby".

Age group 15-64		Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	Resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Does s/he work anywhere?	yes	29,8%	33,0%	32,8%	31,0%	40,0%	38,8%	31,4%	38,8%	38,3%	31,3%	34,2%	31,3%
	no	70,0%	67,0%	67,2%	69,0%	60,0%	61,3%	68,6%	61,3%	61,7%	67,9%	65,8%	68,3%
	unknown	,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,8%	,0%	,5%
Is it a permanent job?	yes	65,4%	57,2%	71,2%	82,2%	72,3%	79,6%	85,8%	74,8%	84,6%	78,3%	66,7%	75,4%
	no	34,6%	42,8%	28,8%	17,8%	27,7%	20,4%	13,7%	24,2%	15,4%	21,7%	33,3%	24,6%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,4%	1,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he have a social security?	yes	72,7%	66,9%	73,7%	89,1%	74,1%	87,1%	64,4%	56,5%	69,9%	68,8%	63,5%	70,3%
	no	27,0%	32,4%	26,3%	10,9%	24,1%	12,9%	35,6%	42,5%	29,4%	31,2%	35,3%	28,3%
	unknown	,3%	,7%	,0%	,0%	1,8%	,0%	,0%	1,0%	,7%	,0%	1,3%	1,4%

**Figure 28: Employment situation**

When the employment situations of the working age population between the ages of 15-64 in target groups within these four cities are compared by their migration statuses, it can be observed that the rate of those who do not work is higher in settled households except in Izmir. The remarkable result is the fact that in all provinces among settled people or immigrants, 3 or 4 of 5 people do not work. In these four cities, the distribution of those who have a continuous job by settled people, new and old immigrants; the rates of settled people and old immigrants are a bit higher than new immigrants. Although the employment rate of those living in target neighbourhoods is relatively high in all four cities, in Bursa and Istanbul these rates are almost as much as half of the average of Turkey. According to the results of the household labour force survey of the 2008 Turkish Statistical Institute, in all cities the employment rate of interviewers stay under the average of their city. The city with the lowest rate of unemployment is Bursa, while Izmir has the highest rate. However, all these rates are significantly higher than the unemployment rate of Turkey. Among interviewers, when the unemployment rate is compared with their own cities' averages, the result is still the same. Unemployment rates are higher than city averages. Although there is not much difference between cities in terms of the rate of participation in labour force, it is very low in comparison to the average of Turkey. Although the cities'

Turkish Statistical Institute averages of participation in labour force are close, in target neighbourhoods the rates of participation in labour force is still lower. When employment is evaluated together with the participation in labour force and unemployment rates, the city in the best situation is Bursa; however, even the rates of Bursa are lower than the values of Turkey and cities.

	TUIK	TUIK	TUIK	TUIK	IGEP	IGEP	IGEP	IGEP
2008	TURKEY	Ankara	Istanbul	Izmir	Ankara	Bursa	Istanbul	Izmir
Employment rate	41,70%	%39,7	%41,7	%39,9	21,76%	26,62%	25,01%	23,44%
Labour force participation rate	46,90%	%45	%46,5	%45,2	29,51%	32,17%	32,66%	32,12%
Unemployment rate	13,60%	%11,8	%11,2	%11,8	26,27%	17,24%	23,39%	27,02%

**Figure 29: Comparative employment situation**

When workers' ownership of social insurance is taken into consideration, it can be seen that although it may differ by migration statuses of cities and individuals, the rate of informal workers in Istanbul is above 40%. This means that in Istanbul 4 out of 10 people work informally. The strangest point according to the findings of the research is the fact that the rate of old immigrants' ownership of social security is higher than that of settled people in all cities, except Bursa. In general, the city with the highest rate of (formal) registered work is Bursa.

	Age group 15-64	Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
What is his/her job?	Civil Servant	7,6%	7,6%	14,4%	11,9%	11,4%	8,6%	15,0%	7,7%	9,7%	13,4%	12,2%	10,9%
	Worker	53,7%	55,2%	49,2%	45,5%	44,0%	44,1%	64,4%	72,4%	62,5%	61,1%	45,5%	57,2%
	Bureau Personnel	9,5%	1,4%	5,1%	4,0%	4,2%	1,1%	8,2%	2,0%	2,0%	5,7%	5,1%	1,4%
	Small retailer/articler	7,3%	2,1%	10,2%	19,8%	12,7%	22,6%	6,0%	8,7%	14,4%	5,7%	15,4%	15,2%
	Employer/merchants	,6%	1,4%	,0%	1,0%	1,8%	,0%	,9%	,0%	1,3%	,6%	5,1%	,7%
	Seasonal worker	1,3%	2,1%	,8%	,0%	3,6%	2,2%	,0%	1,0%	,3%	1,3%	3,2%	,0%
	Professional independent business	1,9%	,0%	,8%	,0%	6,0%	2,2%	2,1%	,6%	1,7%	,6%	,0%	2,2%
	Irregular unqualified works	17,8%	29,7%	18,6%	10,9%	13,9%	18,3%	2,6%	7,3%	7,4%	9,6%	10,9%	9,4%
	Farmer	,0%	,0%	,0%	5,9%	,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
	Unpaid household worker	,3%	,7%	,8%	1,0%	1,2%	1,1%	,4%	,2%	,7%	1,9%	,6%	1,4%
	Other	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,6%	,0%	,4%	,2%	,0%	,0%	1,9%	1,4%
Where does s/he work at?	Agriculture	2,5%	,7%	1,7%	5,0%	4,2%	1,1%	1,3%	2,4%	,7%	1,3%	2,6%	,7%
	Public/state	10,2%	15,2%	16,9%	11,9%	6,0%	5,4%	9,4%	4,6%	7,4%	7,6%	10,3%	13,8%
	Private sector	67,0%	57,9%	53,4%	50,5%	52,4%	48,4%	79,0%	73,8%	64,2%	70,7%	57,1%	55,1%
	Own Workplace	6,3%	3,4%	6,8%	21,8%	18,1%	22,6%	6,0%	7,9%	15,1%	5,1%	14,1%	11,6%
	Own house (e.g. handwork, nursing, cooking)	,3%	,0%	1,7%	,0%	1,2%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,3%	,6%	,0%	,7%
	Someone else's house (e.g. housework, nursing)	,3%	1,4%	2,5%	,0%	,6%	,0%	,0%	,6%	1,0%	1,9%	1,3%	,7%
	In the Streets (e.g. peddler, stallholder, lottery)	2,5%	3,4%	1,7%	2,0%	1,8%	4,3%	1,3%	2,4%	3,7%	3,2%	2,6%	3,6%
	Changing fixed places (e.g. construction, installment works)	9,5%	16,6%	13,6%	7,9%	12,7%	17,2%	1,3%	6,9%	4,0%	7,6%	10,9%	10,9%
	on board (e.g. taxi, collective taxi)	1,3%	,7%	1,7%	1,0%	2,4%	1,1%	,4%	1,4%	3,7%	1,9%	,0%	2,2%
	Other	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
	Civil Servant	,0%	,7%	,0%	,0%	,6%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,3%	,7%

Figure 30: Current job

A result obtained from the findings of research related to the quality of employment is the fact that in all provinces, almost half of the employees between the age of 15-64 work as workers. Although there are no great differences by migration statuses, in all cities rates are close except Istanbul. Among people who work as small business owners/craftsmen, in all cities the highest rate belongs to old immigrants. In Istanbul and Izmir, the group with the lowest rate of those working this way is settled people. Rates of those who work in irregular, unqualified jobs differ by cities and their migration status; however in all cities these rates are remarkable. Except Izmir, in all other cities, people who work in irregular/unqualified jobs are mostly old and new immigrants. In Izmir, the rates of the third group are close. Except Istanbul, in other cities, among settled people the rate of those who work in irregular/unqualified jobs is substantial (10% or above). In Ankara, new immigrants make up the biggest

group who work in these kinds of jobs with a rate of 30%. The rate of those who work in their own working place is low. Among old and new immigrants in Istanbul and Izmir, the rates of those who work in their own working place are higher than settled people. As people whose place of work keeps changing do not have a certain working place, they also do not have the possibility to work formally. These jobs are generally low-paid, uncertain and unsecured ones.

Age group 15-64	Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
Reason for not working	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Cannot find work/there is no available work	18,8%	14,9%	9,5%	11,6%	14,5%	8,8%	20,0%	17,5%	15,6%	18,2%	18,7%	16,3%
Retired	8,1%	2,0%	24,0%	3,1%	6,4%	19,7%	,8%	1,4%	18,0%	6,7%	1,7%	23,6%
Ill/disabled	1,9%	2,7%	2,1%	,9%	4,0%	3,4%	3,3%	4,2%	5,0%	5,6%	3,7%	4,3%
no permission by the family/spouse	,8%	4,1%	,0%	,4%	,4%	,0%	2,0%	,6%	,8%	,9%	,7%	,0%
Student	23,7%	10,5%	1,2%	38,2%	15,7%	1,4%	38,9%	8,3%	,2%	30,8%	10,7%	1,3%
His/her age is not appropriate	,9%	,7%	,0%	2,7%	1,2%	,7%	,6%	1,0%	1,0%	1,5%	1,7%	1,7%
Has a good condition/does not need to work	,0%	,0%	,8%	,4%	,4%	,0%	,4%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does not want to lose the green card	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,7%	,0%	,1%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%
It is not the season	43,7%	62,4%	60,3%	37,3%	51,8%	62,6%	22,6%	60,2%	54,1%	27,9%	56,3%	50,5%
Housewife/girl	1,1%	1,0%	,0%	2,2%	1,2%	1,4%	4,7%	2,9%	1,7%	5,6%	4,7%	1,3%
Unknown/No idea	,9%	1,7%	2,1%	3,1%	4,4%	1,4%	6,7%	3,7%	3,3%	2,9%	2,0%	1,0%

**Figure 31: Reasons for Not Working**

The first thing to highlight within the reasons for not working is that the rate of those who search for a job but cannot find one is almost the same in settled people and those who came via immigration, moreover, it is higher in Istanbul and Ankara. This rate reaches up to 20% in Istanbul with those who are settled. That the rate of being unable to find a job is relatively low in old immigrants compared to other groups in all cities along with the significant differences in those who do not work as they are retired and the largest group is again formed by old immigrants with those who do not work as they are retired can be explained with the fact that they are at the end of their working periods. On the other hand, the significant difference between the settled people and immigrants can be thought to be caused by differences in culture in general, education, and gender-based approach in particular. In all cities, the rate of those who do not

work as they are housewives among the settled people is much lower than those who came via immigration. In the same way, when the rate of those who do not work as they are students is considered excluding the old immigrants as their age group is older, this rate is 2 times, or in some cities 3 times higher in settled people compared to the new immigrants. This situation can be interpreted by saying that education is upheld by the settled ones more.

	Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
no	57,2%	47,1%	56,6%	53,2%	52,4%	53,8%	50,3%	40,0%	58,8%	55,3%	43,3%	59,4%
SSK	9,5%	7,7%	13,8%	6,5%	6,9%	10,2%	13,1%	10,8%	12,0%	6,4%	9,4%	10,4%
emekli sandigi	3,9%	4,7%	6,4%	15,4%	8,0%	12,0%	4,0%	5,1%	5,4%	5,2%	3,6%	4,5%
BAGKUR	7,3%	15,0%	5,6%	7,7%	13,1%	4,9%	6,1%	7,1%	4,2%	11,9%	16,7%	8,2%
Green card	,2%	,9%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,1%	,1%	,2%	,0%	,0%	,2%
Private health insurance	,2%	1,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	1,0%	,7%	,2%
other	21,4%	23,4%	17,6%	17,2%	19,6%	19,2%	25,8%	36,2%	18,7%	20,0%	26,4%	16,9%
no	,3%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,6%	,7%	,7%	,1%	,0%	,2%

**Figure 32: Having Social Security**

The most striking result in the target quarters in all cities with the immigrants and the settled ones in terms of social security is that more than 17% of people do not have any kind of insurance coverage. This rate reaches up to 36% in Istanbul. In all cities, among those who do not have any insurance coverage, the highest rate belongs to immigrants with slight changes in Ankara and Bursa. Another important point here is the possession of a green (health) card. In all cities, the highest rate of possessing this green card belongs to the new immigrants. This rate is twofold compared to the old immigrants in all cities. Bursa is the city where most people with Bağkur insurance live. This rate is in line with the rate of those who work in their own workplace. While the rates of those with SSK insurance are close to each other in all cities, it is lower in new immigrants compared to other groups. Although the rates of those with insurances by the retirement fund are close to each other in all groups, the highest rate belongs to the old immigrant group in all cities except Istanbul.

		Ankara			Bursa			Istanbul			Izmir		
		resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant	resident	new immigrant	old immigrant
		%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%	%
Does s/he have an illness that needs constant care and treatment?	yes	5,3%	9,3%	17,9%	3,8%	10,7%	12,4%	3,6%	7,8%	13,7%	6,6%	9,0%	20,4%
	no	94,7%	90,7%	82,1%	96,2%	89,3%	87,6%	96,2%	92,2%	85,7%	93,4%	91,0%	79,6%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,0%	,2%	,0%	,6%	,0%	,0%	,0%
Does s/he have any physical disability?	yes	,8%	,7%	,3%	,5%	,2%	,0%	,8%	1,2%	,5%	,6%	,6%	,6%
	no	99,2%	99,3%	99,7%	99,0%	99,8%	99,6%	99,0%	98,8%	98,9%	99,3%	98,9%	99,0%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,5%	,0%	,4%	,2%	,0%	,6%	,1%	,6%	,4%
Does s/he have any mental disability?	yes	,8%	1,5%	1,8%	1,1%	1,1%	,8%	1,3%	1,3%	2,8%	1,4%	2,1%	3,5%
	no	99,2%	98,5%	98,2%	98,2%	98,9%	98,9%	98,4%	98,7%	96,6%	98,4%	97,4%	96,1%
	unknown	,0%	,0%	,0%	,7%	,0%	,4%	,2%	,0%	,6%	,1%	,6%	,4%

**Figure 33: Health Situation**

As for the health situation, the highest rate of those with an illness that requires constant care and treatment belongs to old immigrants in all cities. As expressed in the previous chapters, this situation is directly proportional with the age group of old immigrants. But here, the striking thing is that the rate of those with a chronic disease among new immigrants is higher than it is in any other group in all cities compared to the settled ones, although there are small differences. Another thing which is partially related to health issues are disabilities. The answers given to the two questions in which mental and physical disabilities are handled separately point out that there are no differences between the groups which are different in their immigration statuses in all cities in this aspect.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION**

The aim of the study was to discuss whether or not the old and new immigrants who immigrated to Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, Izmir, Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa provinces before and after 1990 are more disadvantaged than the residents settled in the urban areas of these provinces in terms of education, health and employment. Additionally, another aim of the study was to analyse, if any, the differences between the provinces and between the projects in terms of the socio-economic profile of target groups. Based on these findings under the framework of the two of European Union funded projects, the compliance of the design of European Union funded projects is questioned.

Firstly, theoretical approaches stressing the concept of migration were investigated in order to understand the complex migration process. Some causes and consequences of migration are closely interrelated with social policy. In addition to the basic ingredients of social policy, the disadvantaged groups, who grow up in the according to the changing socio economic conditions, influence the structure of society. Hence, they are also subjects of the social policy. The individuals who experience the deprivations or disadvantages in society are directly affected by the injustice and the consequences if this process is diffusing to all the segments of society. Social justice contributes to the fair distribution of advantages and disadvantages in society (Smutanyi 2008, Thomson, 2007). Social policy is indispensable in order to ensure social justice and to minimize the inequalities in society. The social policies targeting social justice are focused not only on the working class but also the unemployed, elderly people, children, migrants and other disadvantaged people.

Following the discussion on the definition of disadvantageousness, the selected three dimensions of disadvantageousness are explored. The overview of the literature, based on these three dimensions which are education, health and employment, is provided. The reason why these dimensions are selected is that they are the most widely accepted basic indicators of the unequal structure in modern societies.

Before analysing the data of the field research conducted under the framework of the “Technical Assistance for Supporting the Municipalities of Diyarbakır, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum for the Solution of Economic and Social Integration Problems” Project, and the “Support to the Solution of Economic and Social Migration Problems in Istanbul, Izmir, Ankara and Bursa as Major in Migration Destinations” Project, the migration case of Turkey is investigated historically in three main periods: 1923-1950, 1950-1980, and post-1980, in order to reveal the changes in the migration patterns during the process. Especially from the 1950s onwards, internal migration gathered speed and transformed Turkey from a predominantly rural country to a mainly urban one in less than half a century. The fact that mechanization in agriculture linked to neo-liberal economic changes resulted in internal migration from rural to urban areas was the main dynamic leading to conditions of urban poverty in this era. Other dynamics that manifested urban poverty in a more stable form started to emerge in the post-1980 era. The forced migration after 1990 was considered a crucial in understanding and analysing urban poverty in the urban Turkish context. Thus, in this study, the conditions of migrants articulated to chronic urban poor were examined to see whether there are any differences between their profiles.

The findings of the research carried out under the framework of the two selected projects first give clues about the recent changes in the migration pattern in Turkey after 2000. The research was carried out in seven provinces, namely Ankara, Istanbul, Izmir, Bursa, Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep and Erzurum.

When the distribution of the dates of immigration in groups is considered, it can be said that the densest immigration to Ankara, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa occurred after 2000; in Gaziantep, Bursa, Istanbul, and Izmir however, immigration rates are relatively higher in the years 1990-2000, the constant rise continued for a ten year period, and only a slight decrease in these provinces except Ankara, has been observed. In all cities, nearly 70% and more of the immigrant population arrived after 1980.

Although the main reason of migration seems to be ‘family issues’ in all cities, it is possible to say that economic reasons are at the top of the list in all cities as ‘parents’ searching for a job, job change or spouse’s searching for a job’ are included in the grouped familial reasons along with the economic reasons. What’s more, parents’ immigration, in other words second generation immigrants, has an important place in all cities in the familial reasons. The highest rate of migration due to familial reasons is in Şanlıurfa and Bursa with a rate of more than 50%. In other words, 5 people in 10 who came to Şanlıurfa and Bursa via immigration immigrated due to familial reasons. Education and assignment as reasons to migrate have an important place in individual reasons consisting of grouped reasons such as marriage, education and health. Individual reasons are relatively higher in Erzurum with a rate of 27.5%. Marriage has a significant place in the migration to Ankara. Immigration due to security reasons is low in all cities compared to other reasons for immigration except Bursa where this rate is a bit higher than other cities with 4%. Gradual migration could be the reason of the low rate of forced migration.

The fact that there are differences between cities is the reason behind the different choices of immigrants. Istanbul stays at the top of the list for being chosen due to economic reasons with a rate of 37,2%. Istanbul is followed by Ankara with a rate of 31,2%. Bursa and Şanlıurfa are the most preferred cities to immigrate to due to ‘familial reasons’ with a rate of more than 45%. This means that one in two people who have immigrated to Bursa or Şanlıurfa within the sample, chose this city due to ‘familial and/or economical reasons’ such as parents’

immigration, searching for a job, spouse's migration or searching for a job or going to live with them. The most preferred city for individual reasons is Erzurum; this is mainly due to education and assignment issues. Another important difference between cities is related to the choices of people based on relatives, acquaintances or townsmen, which are grouped as 'social relations'. Izmir with 18,5%, Bursa with 14,4%, and Ankara with 8% are almost three times more preferred than other provinces for social relations. This is an indicator of the fact that relatives and townsman relationships are still strong in these cities. Immigration due to security reasons are low in all cities compared to other reasons. Another reason for preferring these cities is the proximity. In this context, Şanlıurfa is the city with the highest rate with 9.6%, which is quite different in other cities. One in ten people who immigrated to Şanlıurfa prefers this city as it is close. This explains the immigration that Şanlıurfa has from its own countryside and nearby cities.

The results show that some of the provinces are unique due to their specific experience. For instance, Bursa still has the effects of the Balkan immigration. Erzurum's population is composed of a large amount of students and public servants; therefore while native born people migrate, the city is receiving this type of internal migrants. Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir are always at the top of the list of immigrant in Turkey according to TUIK. Şanlıurfa compared to other provinces is the only one where agriculture is still a source of income, therefore it can be assumed that people who work in agriculture prefer to move there because of the distance.

When the educational backgrounds of people living in target neighbourhoods within the mentioned cities are compared according to their migration statuses, one of the most significant results is the serious difference between settled people in urban areas who never went to school and people who came through old/new migration. In all cities, the group in which primary school graduates are at the lowest rate is the settled ones except Erzurum. However, in all three cities there is a great gap between old and new immigrants in terms of literacy. Moreover, in

Şanlıurfa, the rate of old immigrants that are illiterate is 43.5%. This means that every 2 people in 5 who migrated to Şanlıurfa as old immigrants are illiterate. The rate of those who never attended school is the highest in old immigrants, and then come new immigrants, and lastly the settled people.

Another remarkable detection is the difference in the rates of schooling in primary education. In all provinces, the rates of primary school students among settled people are significantly higher among immigrants. In all provinces, even with a slight difference, among new immigrants the rate of primary or secondary school graduates is higher than old immigrants and settled people. On the other hand, the rates of high school graduates differ by cities and groups. The rates of high school students are also significantly higher than settled people in all cities. Although the rates of university or college students are low in all cities and groups, the highest rate stands out among settled people in all cities.

The results of the 6-14 year age group in compulsory education are quite striking. First of all, migrant or not, new or old, the main reason for not being able to attend school in the 6-14 year age group are economic problems. This result is a clear indicator of injustice in the education system. Despite the fact that education in Turkey is free of charge, families with lower incomes cannot send their children to school. If the school is far away, this is again another reality that, migrant or not, families are not able to send their children to school because of the socio economic environment that they inhabit. This creates another form of injustice in terms of access to education services. Transportation is a serious economic burden for families. In Şanlıurfa, the main reason for not attending school is indicated as 'being a girl' especially in new immigrants. In the results of settled people, all three reasons are expressed nearly at the same rate. This result shows that culture is still a very strong obstacle against the education of girls in Turkey. Even in metropolitan areas such as Istanbul and Ankara, it can be concluded that the settled poor people are more aware of the importance of education compared to migrants.

The findings of a research called “Educational Perception of the Internally Displaced Families’ Children: Evidence from Izmir and Diyarbakir” give clues about the deficiency of the content of the education system in terms of reaching social justice.

The problems that students go through in school may be summarized as the lack of teachers with the required skills, classes with excessive numbers of students, inadequate technology tools, and the absence of sufficient amounts of social activity facilities. As for the issues related to the institutions, the teacher-student ratio, the physical condition of the school, provision of books for free, libraries with books that do not meet the needs of the time and positive arrangements for school activities are among the majors factors that influence the academic success of the children (Berliner, 2007).

When the schools giving education to children from economically disadvantaged families are taken into consideration, it is observed that the fund provided to these schools is quite low compared to the schools in rich neighbourhoods. The inadequate distribution of sources in terms of materials, personnel needs and economic needs of the school, brings about a rise in the current inequities at the school level. Since these factors have a direct impact on students’ achievements, their level of academic success is generally low, which is also caused by the lack of competition and thus motivation.

There also exists the factor concerning the socioeconomic status of the parents. On the one hand, these families cannot afford to send their children to qualified schools; on the other hand, they tend to attach less importance to education as a means of getting a good job, in other words, as a solution to poverty. It has been found that middle class families consider education as something more valuable than the above-mentioned families with limited incomes. Consequently, poverty turns into a heritage for families due to the lack of educational opportunities (Smits and Gündüz-Hoşgör, (2006), Dayıoğlu, (2007)).

On the other hand, when the modern liberal education theory is observed, it emphasizes that education is of great importance as it is a means of minimizing the economic differences between the rich and the poor. The theory suggests that the educational system has the power to ensure a more equitable society. This concept assumes that each student has the right to schools with equal qualities.

All in all, it is a fact that the current educational system increases the inequalities between the privileged class and the working class with disadvantages. However, on the condition that the social and economic conditions of the families change in a positive way, children will be able to find a way to leave behind poverty and gain a better status in society. In today's world, one of the solutions to children from disadvantaged families without cultural, economic and social facilities is education. Therefore, good education is considered the key to a qualified future job and welfare, which in turn will create families with a good economic, social and cultural background. At this point, it should be pointed out that while education is an effective solution to the problem discussed, the existing injustices and inequalities in the education system constitute a challenge to the elimination of disadvantages (Wößmann, 2003).

Finally, it is obvious that we cannot differentiate or classify the deprivations that internal migrants or disadvantaged residents settled in urban areas are experiencing solely based on their migration history. It is crucial to underline that socio economic problems are the main obstacles for all groups. The analysis related to any disadvantaged groups has to be done according to class discussion. There are also other factors, individual or community based, which should be considered while developing policies oriented towards disadvantaged people.

Although it differs depending on the migration status of individuals and provinces when considering whether the employees aged 15-64 have social security or not, the rate of people who work informally including both old settlers and immigrants in Şanlıurfa is over 60%, which indicates that 3 out of 5 employees in Şanlıurfa work informally. In general, the rate of working formally

is highest among old settlers and immigrants in Bursa. The most dramatic result of the study is that the number of old immigrants is more than settlers in all provinces in terms of having social security. Erzurum takes place on the top for possession of social security, probably because the reasons of migration to Erzurum are predominantly education and appointment.

Another result of the study conducted for employment status is that about half of the employees aged 15-64 in all provinces excluding Şanlıurfa and Erzurum are employed as workers. There aren't any big differences between the settlers and old-new immigrants, and the rates are similar in other provinces excluding Istanbul.

Old immigrants have the highest rate of working as small retailers/craftsmen, which can differ among provinces. The number of seasonal workers is naturally more in particular in Şanlıurfa than the other provinces. In parallel with this situation, new immigrants in Şanlıurfa have the highest rate of agricultural workers. The maximum number of officials belongs to new immigrants in Erzurum while old immigrants in Gaziantep constitute the minimum number. Therefore, the province with the maximum number in terms of working in the public sector is Erzurum. However, the number of new immigrants working as officials in Şanlıurfa predominates over the other employees.

The numbers of people who are employed in irregular and unqualified jobs differ by provinces and migration statuses; however, it constitutes a significant part of the business sector in all provinces. The people called unqualified workers in all provinces excluding Izmir are mainly old-new immigrants. About 30% of new immigrants in Ankara are employed in unqualified jobs, which is the highest rate in the entire country.

The highest number of self-employed people belongs to immigrants in Bursa. It is another substantial result that old immigrants in all provinces, excluding Izmir and Şanlıurfa, are the ones who have the highest rate of self-employed working.

Approximately 17% (which is also the highest rate) of old immigrants in Bursa are employed in fixed income jobs. People who work in irregular jobs neither have neither a certain workplace nor the opportunity of working formally. These jobs are mainly low-income, irregular and unsecured. The settlers in Istanbul have the highest rate of working in the private sector with 79%. As a result of the study for employment status, it can be said that employment structures of provinces differ from each other independently of migration statuses. The point that is most worth-emphasizing in terms of reasons of not working is that the rate of settlers who could not find a job is nearly the same as that of immigrants and even higher especially in Ankara and Istanbul. Also 20% of settlers in Istanbul constitute a substantial part of this rate. The minimum rate of not working belongs to old immigrants throughout the country; however, when considering that most of them are retired, it can be said that they cannot work due to age. With regards to the reasons of not working, differences between settlers and immigrants arise from cultural viewpoints in general and educational and sexist perspectives in particular.

Based on the results, it can be concluded that there are no major differences between the migrant groups and residents in terms of employment in the urban area. However, this does not mean that there is social and economic exclusion based on ethnic identity, gender, and religion in society. This is another dimension to consider and analyse while developing social policies for the disadvantaged groups.

In all provinces, with little differences, it is seen that the new immigrants are of the highest rate among the ones who have no social insurance. This ratio reaches up to 36% in Istanbul and Gaziantep. Another point is to hold a green card. The new immigrants hold the highest rate of owning a green card in all provinces except Erzurum and Şanlıurfa. Yet, the ratio of holding a green card is high in general. Especially in Şanlıurfa, this rate is 30%; which means 7 out of 10 old immigrants and settled people hold a green card.

The highest rate of people who are insured by the Social Security Organization for Artisans and the Self-Employed (Bağkur) are observed among the old and new immigrants in Bursa. This rate shows parallelism with the rate of people working in their own company. Although the rate of the people insured by the Social Insurance Institution (SSK) is more or less the same in every province, the old immigrants in Izmir hold a relatively higher rate. Within the scope of the Retirement Fund of Civil Servants on the other hand, it is possible to mention a difference between Erzurum and the other provinces and this difference is mainly based on the immigration to Erzurum due to assignment. The settled people in each of these three provinces hold the lowest rate among to people covered by the Retirement Fund for Civil Servants. Notwithstanding that the rate of people covered by the Retirement Fund for Civil Servants is almost on the same level in every province except Erzurum and Şanlıurfa, the highest rate is of the old immigrants in the other cities.

As for health, the people most in need of continuous care and treatment are the old immigrants in every province. As mentioned before, this is directly proportionate to the age group of the old immigrants. While the rate of people with chronic illnesses in Erzurum and Şanlıurfa is close to that of the other cities, this rate is higher in Gaziantep among the new immigrants. Another subject which is partially related to health is disability. The answers given to the two questions in which mental and physical disability are evaluated separately indicate that there is no difference between the groups in terms of migration status in all cities.

The rate of those who receive a salary from the government in Erzurum, Gaziantep and Şanlıurfa is interestingly much higher than the rate of the immigrants or disabled in settled groups in the other cities. This situation implies two possible things: the question might have been misunderstood by those who answered it, or the rate of disabled people might have been announced as less than it really is because of some concerns. This rate is about 40% among the settled ones in Erzurum and old immigrants in Gaziantep.

In the findings of the studies on the connection between health and poverty, it has been demonstrated that the poor are more vulnerable to health problems. It is usually considered that poverty is a factor that leads to an increase in the frequency of diseases, some of which may be easy to treat.

In the light of the studies carried out and the discussions at the academic and public level, it may be suggested that poverty is directly related to poor health. It is also argued that the poor living in urban areas are more prone to contracting communicable and chronic diseases when compared with the poor groups living in rural areas. Factors such as working conditions, malnutrition and economic problems are the main reasons for this phenomenon.

The health status largely depends on the economic situation of the individuals and families. Children are profoundly impacted by the fact that the family cannot even meet their basic needs. The results of this are mainly seen in children in the form of acute or infectious diseases, whereas adults and older people are more vulnerable to chronic illnesses. From another perspective, it may also be argued that individuals may lose their jobs or change their jobs, as a result of the diseases.

In a general sense, the urban poor regard health as a means of better economic conditions, they do not consider health and body as important issues in and of themselves. Particularly the health of the men or working individuals in the family is a priority, since they should be healthy to sustain the family. This approach is mostly adopted by the female members of the family. In addition to that, health is considered as the product of all the experiences in various areas of life such as economic problems or poverty.

To sum up, the study shows that the people who migrated to the Istanbul, Ankara, Bursa, Izmir, Gaziantep, Erzurum and Şanlıurfa provinces before and after 1990 are not more disadvantaged than the disadvantaged residents settled in the urban

areas of these provinces in terms of education, health and employment. Although a general trend was described saying that these networks actually have lost a lot of their strength recently, it can be assumed that the network relations of the migrants are not weakened as much as it is expected. Therefore, the migrant is capable of coping with the difficulties in the urban areas especially when they are new comers.

The fact remains that state support offered to the disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area is very limited. Both the internal migrants and the disadvantaged residents settled in the urban area strongly rely on informal solidarity networks in order to handle difficult situations. These networks are not necessarily limited to the direct family or kin but also extend to neighbours. The disadvantaged residents settled in the urban areas have no chance to get out of the vicious circle of poverty that they live in. On the one hand, the old migrants who migrated before 1990 had this chance through their networks. On the other hand, we cannot disregard the fact that the socio economic profile of the migrants and disadvantaged residents settled in the urban areas are embracing some diversity. The elderly people, children, women and the disabled people are experiencing the deeper effects of all kinds of deprivation. Therefore, social policies oriented to the disadvantaged people should seriously consider the needs of the target groups.

Based on these findings under the framework of the two European Union funded projects, it is clear that the designs of European Union funded projects are not always appropriate to the purpose of the project itself. The project can only provide temporary solutions to the problems; they are not sustainable in this sense. However, if the needs of the target groups are not clearly defined or the target groups are not clearly identified, the short term results could be unsuccessful.

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Chp 9 European national policies to promote the social inclusion of disadvantaged groups

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