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The integration of Turkish migrants in the German
labour market across generations

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this study is to examine the position of Turkish immigrants who migrated from Turkey to Germany in the historical process in the labour market and the integration between generations. The study was applied to Turkish immigrants living in Germany, 100 people over the internet. Quantitative research method was used in the study. With this method, labour force parameters and demographic parameters suitable for the structure of the region were determined to determine the integration of Turks in the labour market in the USA over generations. Data were collected with the original survey method prepared in the light of these parameters, and the obtained data were analysed in the SPSS version 23 program. While the main reason for the immigration of the first-generation immigrants was economic conditions and family reunification, it was seen that the second-generation immigrants were also affected by comfortable living conditions. It has been determined that those who come to the country are high school and university graduates, and most of them migrate for economic purposes. First generation immigrants of Turks generally work in low-qualified jobs as drivers, workers, operators, second generation do their own jobs differently, university graduates also work in qualified jobs such as finance, architecture-engineering, and the majority of third generation immigrants were born in Germany or It has been determined that after migrating for educational purposes, they stayed in Germany, integrated into business life and worked in more qualified jobs. In the study, it has been observed that Turks do not tend to return to Turkey in the coming years. In the analysis, it has been determined that Turks receive the same level of wages as other immigrants but have a lower wage than German citizens. According to the answer given by all three groups in the study, they gave the answer that they thought they would work and retire in Germany.

Keywords: Labour market, Migration, Germany, Turkey

RIASSUNTO

Lo scopo di questo studio è esaminare l'evoluzione della situazione degli immigrati turchi in Germania dal punto di vista dell'inserimento nel mercato del lavoro e dell'integrazione adottando una prospettiva intergenerazionale. Per analizzare la questione, un questionario è stato somministrato via Internet a 100 immigrati turchi che vivono in Germania. I dati sono stati analizzati con l'ausilio del programma SPSS versione 23. Mentre il motivo principale dell'immigrazione degli immigrati di prima generazione era la condizione economica e il ricongiungimento familiare, si è visto che gli immigrati di seconda generazione erano interessati anche a condizioni di vita confortevoli. Coloro che si trasferiscono in Germania sono diplomati delle scuole superiori e dell'università e la maggior parte di loro emigra per motivi economici. Gli immigrati turchi di prima generazione generalmente svolgono lavori poco qualificati come operai o autotrasportatori, mentre tra gli immigrati di seconda generazione vi è una maggiore incidenza di laureati che svolgono lavori qualificati nei settori della finanza, dell'ingegneria e dell'architettura. La maggior parte degli immigrati di terza generazione sono nati in Germania o dopo essere emigrati per motivi educativi sono rimasti in Germania, integrandosi nella vita lavorativa e svolgendo lavori più qualificati. Dalle interviste è emerso anche che i turchi ricevono lo stesso livello di salario degli altri immigrati, ma hanno uno stipendio inferiore rispetto ai cittadini tedeschi. Infine, è stato osservato che i turchi non hanno intenzione di tornare in Turchia nei prossimi anni. Indipendentemente dalla generazione a cui appartengono, i soggetti intervistati pensano di lavorare e andare in pensione in Germania.

Keywords: Mercato del lavoro, Migrazione, Germania, Turchia

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INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of migration, which has existed since the beginning of human history, has preserved its vitality in the historical adventure. In general terms, migration is defined as the geographical change of the individual or the masses, while in economic terms, migration can be defined as the labour transition between markets. Migration, which is an interdisciplinary concept, has both included definitions and been the subject of interdisciplinary research as the history of humanity progresses.

After the second world war, Germany's desire to develop economically to close its war deficits, together with the increasing need for workers, made it possible to sign labour migration agreements with many countries. Turkey, one of these countries, has also started to send workers to Germany. The process, which became official with the agreement, started in 1961 and continues until today.

The acceleration of technological developments and increasing industrial production after the Second World War led developed countries with labour shortages to recruit immigrant labour from many countries. Especially in the post-1980 period, the continuous renewal of technology and the development of communication and transportation resources have made it easier for people to move from one place to another.

The immigration process to Germany is still going on with various evolutions. International labour agreements particularly continued even though the economic conditions of the countries and other attractive factors changed the momentum of migration.

In the first part of the study, "migration" is conceptually discussed and examined in a general context throughout the historical process. Then, the causes and consequences of migration between Germany and Turkey were examined. In the second part, the relationship between the labour market and immigration is examined. In the third part of the study, the history of

migration of Turks to Germany is examined and the reasons for immigration are emphasized. Then, the conditions of immigration to Germany were discussed in detail and the immigration laws issued by Germany were explained. Finally, an intergenerational analysis of the Turks that immigrated to Germany was made. In the fourth part of the study, the position and integration of Turkish Immigrants living in Germany in the labour market was tried to be determined because of the questionnaire applied to 100 people using the quantitative research method. The findings obtained thanks to the data analysed in the SPSS software were interpreted in detail.

CHAPTER 1

THEORITICAL FRAMEWORK: MIGRATION

1.1 Term and type of international migration

International migration indicates a motion from one land to another. Before globalization, “the sovereignty and power of the nation- state wasn't questioned” with globalization, immigration is prostrate to arise, and emigrants begin to have much further different social and artistic characteristics. Secondly, migration influences certain zones in both countries of origin and countries of destination. For case, as migration continues, large figures of people leave their municipalities or neighbourhood’s “which may lead to original labour dearth’s as well as major changes in family and community life.” Thirdly, especially since early 2000s, new progress in information and transportation technologies has been contributing to the adding volume of temporary, repetitious migration. States try to encourage certain types of emigrants (similar as professed and business emigrants) to come and stymie the occupancy of other types of emigrants (similar as unskilled labour immigration). In addition to certain migration programs, another approach states use to control transnational migration is grading transnational emigrants as, for case, labour emigrant (Garloff, 2015)s. Labour emigrants (low-professed) may be defined as endless workers who resettle to countries for employment. Temporary labour settlers, unskilled labour emigrants, professed and business settlers, irregular settlers, deportees, shelter- campaigners, forced emigrants, family members, and return settlers. Temporary labour settlers (Who are also defined as guest- workers or overseas contract workers) are accepted as individualities “who resettle for a limited period (from many months to several times) to accept employment and send money native country

(remittances). Irregular emigrants (undocumented) are defined as individualities who relocate to a country for work, but do not have the needed documents and permits) then are a lot of labour migrants who are undocumented. Refugees (according to the 1951 United Nations Convention) are people abiding outside of their country of origin and “unfit or unintentional to return because of a ‘well-conditioned- innovated fear of persecution on account of race, religion, nation, class in a particular social group, or political opinion (UN, 2020). Shelter-campaigners, still, are individualities who resettle for protection and who may not fulfil the exile criterion of 1951. Convention Forced migration includes deportees, shelter-campaigners, and individualities who should resettle because of “environmental catastrophes or development systems (similar as new manufactories, roads, or heads)” Family members or family reunification emigrants are the individualities who join formerly migrated people and return settlers are individualities who go back to their country of origin. Incipiently, high professed and business settlers are individualities who have qualifications similar as directors, directors, professionals, technicians, scholars, or analogous and resettle “within the internal labour requests of international pots and transnational association or try to find jobs through transnational labour requests (Abadan, 2006). The integration of requests for goods, services, and capital encyclopaedically requires an increase in transnational migration. For this reason, if countries want to promote freer trade and investment, they must be prepared to manage advanced situations of migration. Some countries (similar as Germany) want to come sponsors of high-professed migration since they are not high in figures and are less likely to have political resistance toward professed emigrant (Anton, 2020). Although such a categorization gives suggestions about motives of migration (similar as end to return native country or to escape from an environmental catastrophe), there are propositions fastening on exploring the reasons of transnational movement. In general, these propositions make macro (focus on large-scale issues similar as rules, procedures), micro (small-scale, similar as

individualities), and (Medium between small and large, similar as communities) analyses. In early migration literature, countries are accepted as structures that have the capability to control transnational mobility. Neoclassical economists support the idea by coming out macro and micro-level analyses of transnational migration (Lundahl, 1985) (Carmelo Pierpaolo Parello, 2021). Inquiries, who make a macro-level analysis, explain the relationship between labour migration, and profitable development. For them, transnational migration is determined by labour requests, that is, it is an outgrowth of “geographic differences in the force of and demand for labour.” Some countries have a larger capability of labour than its capital and in these countries’ hires are low. Countries with a limited labour capability relative to its capital has high request stipend. This kind of a paycheck difference results in labour movement from a low- paycheck country to a high- paycheck bone. According to this proposition, the elimination of paycheck differences also eliminates transnational migration in general, and labour migration. Experimenters, who explain transnational migration with micro-level variables, concentrate on agency or individual choice. According to this proposition, existent is rational actors and make their immigration opinions because of a cost-benefit computation (Constant, 2005). Individualities decide to move to increase their earnings. However, profitable, because of migrating to a country also they decide to move, if individualities anticipate a positive ménage return. Therefore, transnational migration is assumed “as a form of investment in mortal capital. Therefore, individualities decide to resettle to countries where they can be productive in agreement with their capacities. still and all, they first should accept to make certain investments similar as material costs of traveling or sweats including learning a new language and “the cerebral costs of cutting old ties and forging new bones.” The Rational Choice Approach accepts individualities as actors who can elect from sets of options, “while constraints and occasion structures put restrictions on their choice.” Their cost- benefit system motivates their decision- making process (a private

estimated mileage model). In the traditional drive- pull model (which has parallels with neoclassical economics proposition and rational choice approach), neo-classical economics is influential. (Carmelo Pierpaolo Parello, 2021) In this model, it is argued that emigrants reply to profitable conditions in the country of origin and destination, they've applicable information about circumstances in the country of destination, and they decide to resettle because of a rational profitable computation. As neoclassical economics and rational choice approaches, this model has been explosively blamed with ignoring “The goods on migration of distance, other migration flows, intermediating openings, and the size of population capabilities in addition to similar examens, the new economics of migration challenges in the hypotheticals and consequences of the neoclassical proposition. (Lundahl, 1985) According to this proposition, emigrants do not make their opinions as insulated individual actors, but in relation to larger units of associated people, similar as families and homes. In those units, people act together both “to maximize anticipated income,” “to minimize pitfalls and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of request failure, piecemeal from those in the labour request” Therefore, families and homes decide to move. Different from individualities, homes, or families try to control pitfalls to their fiscal weal by distributing ménage coffers, similar as family pool. They do this by assigning some of the family member to profitable conditioning in the original frugality and by transferring others to work labour requests in foreign countries “where stipend and employment conditions are negatively correlated or weakly identified with those in the original area” Families may take pitfalls at home and admit support from Indigenous family members’ remittances. Dual or Segmented labour market theory (macro-level analysis) focuses on labour market and maintains that international migration is a result of “the intrinsic labour demands of modern industrial societies” (WEF, 2018) The main labour market may define as a secure market with high wages to native workers and secondary labour market prefers to give low payments to

immigrant labour. For example, according to the theory of international labour migration, it is driven and augmented by the demands of countries and starts with the registration of the employers in developed societies. Moreover, the structural needs of the economy result in the need for immigrant labour and those needs shown through employment practices instead of making wage offers, the world systems theory, on the other hand international migration is not caused by the divergence in the labour market in certain national economies. It is caused by the structure of the world market, which has established and extended since the sixteenth century. International migration is a natural result of capitalist development. As capitalism has spread from Western Europe, North America, Oceania, and Japan to other countries, more people have been included into the world market economy. International capital flow causes international labour flow Institutional theory focuses on how international migration continues (WEF, 2018). According to this theory, institutions and organizations support immigrants, which cause further migration. After international migration started, private institutions and voluntary organizations have been established in order to fulfil “the demand created by an imbalance between the substantial number of people who seek entry into capital rich countries and the limited number of immigrants visas these countries typically offer.” Such obstacles and an imbalance that main countries choose to use to hinder further migration causes further migration with “a lucrative economic niche for entrepreneurs and institutions dedicated to promoting international movement for profit, yielding an illegal market in migration. The conditions that underground economies create victimize and exploit immigrants and their labour. As a result, further institutions and organizations have been created in developed countries to impose the rights and enhance managing legal and irregular immigrants. Social Networks and Migration Theory (a meso-level analysis), focuses on households, families, and communities (Erçetin, 2014). According to this theory, kinship networks and social networks link social structure to individuals who make migration

decisions. Immigrants have a complex relationship with their family and friends. For individuals, social networks (relations with communities) are the foundation for the distribution of information and for support or help, for instance, for any kind of obstacles in host countries (finding homes, furniture, or temporary jobs). It is easier to migrate if individuals have relations within social networks since this kind of a relation reduces the costs and risks of moving. Moreover, it can cause further migration since “as social networks are extended and strengthened by each additional migrant, potential migrants are able to benefit from the social networks and ethnic communities already established in the country of destination.” The concept of social ties (social relations) and social capital can connect the macro and micro levels of analyses. He explains social ties as “a continuing series of interpersonal transactions to which participants attach shared interests, obligations, understandings, memories, and forecasts. There are strong ties (direct communication or face-to-face) and weak ties (Indirect relations). Strong ties are long-lasting and include duties as well as substantial emotions. Such ties may be seen “in small, well- defined groups such as families, kinship, and communal organizations” Weak ties on the other hand, are a limited set of communications. An example of weak social ties can be communications between friends of friends. Social capital is defined as resources, which are intrinsic in patterned social ties. Thanks to such resources, individuals can collaborate in networks and collectives and follow their aims. Examples of these sources are “information on jobs in a potential destination country, knowledge on means of transport, or loans to finance a journey to the country of destination,” as well as the link created between individuals and networks. Thus, social capital is generated and gathered in social relations: nevertheless, individuals can use it as a resource. Lastly, cumulative causation theory states that there are numerical reasons that cause migration. Scholars maintain six socioeconomic issues that might affect international migration. These are “the distribution of income, the distribution of land, the organization of

agriculture, culture, the regional distribution of human capital, and the social meaning of work. Other factors may exist; however, they have not been systematically analysed and discussed. This theory describes international migration as a cumulative social process and propositions are like network theory. (Struminskaya, 2011) For instance, according to the cumulative causation theory, in the country of origin and country of destination, international migration causes social, economic, and cultural transformations. Such a transformation helps people to gain a powerful force to resist control or regulation, because “the feedback mechanisms of cumulative causation lie outside the reach of government” International migration theories try to explain why people move internationally. Studies show that after 2000s, there has been an increase in the mobility of immigrants (Heath, 2008). However, there are little studies to show that the situation on the Turkish immigrants after being a guest worker, and the generations after them, in Germany both in Economic and Social perspective.

1.2 International labour migration movements

Persons who work in a country of which they are not a national are called foreign workers. The migration of these people is called labour migration. The term “emigrant worker” is defined in the European Convention on the Legal Status of Migratory Workers as follows “A citizen of a constricting country whose home and paid employment have been permitted by another constricting country to live in that country.” As one of the product factors, transnational labour migration affects the rate of profitable growth. Further than half of transnational settlers come from developing countries (Boswell, 2004). Transnational labour migration can be caused by internal and external profitable reasons. These are the reasons similar as the differences in labour stipend between countries, globalization, the increase in the difference between poor and rich countries, and demographic differences. The effect of the pressure of jobless labour on the country of emigration is the drop in the demand for

consumer goods and services, and the relief in the balance of payments with the foreign currency that the foreign labour force will transfer to the home country (Struminskaya, 2011). In general, governments see transferring labour abroad as a policy tool in the fight against severance. Although there are different types of transnational labour migration, it substantially focuses on three types definitive migration, temporary migration and brain drain, in addition to these types of migration, the demand for migratory workers because it's cheap in the current global profitable order and migratory programs that limit or don't live in this regard, constitutes the conditions for illegal immigration, which is a fourth type of immigration (Ruppe, 2018). Immigration of an individual to another country can be defined as definitive migration if that individual stays in the country where he or she immigrated without the study of returning to the country where he was born and grew up. This means that, piecemeal from the loss of pool, unborn generations of the person who migrated also migrated. In the case of temporary migration, workers go to another country temporarily and work there believing that they will return to the country of origin in the future. Brain drain is the movement of professed workers out of the country (Jakobsen, 2003). The development of underdeveloped or developing countries, which lost their professed pool with scarce and limited coffers, is decelerating down due to brain drain, and on the other hand, their development is accelerated by the fact that developed countries give advanced stipend and better openings to trained smarts. In this case, resides of the country of origin spend their first time in their country for standard and vocational training and resettle to another country as professed workers. Scientists, masterminds, croakers, so on. they fall into this order. Brain drain is one of the most egregious exemplifications of voluntary migration and transnational migration to find a better job (Meçik, 2020). Transnational labour migration, labour import in numerous countries, reduce severance and give plutocrat flux to the country from abroad. On

the other hand, the drop in the professed pool causes the technological eventuality of the exporting country to decline and the scientific and artistic position to decline in general.

1.3 Turkey German labour migration movement before the agreement

After the Second World War, Europe demanded to be rebuilt. Although the need for labour, which surfaced as the effect of the declining population, was felt more in the Federal Republic of Germany, the German Employment Agency determined that 4 million workers were demanded as of 1950. It was seen as the only missing workforce for the technologically advanced Germans. In line with this demand, Federal Germany was planning to demand workers from countries with surplus labour through various agreements. In fact, until 1959, when an agreement was inked with Italy on 20 December 1955, Italian workers immigrated to Germany (Zafer, 1977). These workers made up 31 of foreign workers at that time. As a result of the inadequate number of Italian workers, a labour force agreement was signed with Spain on March 29, 1960, and with Greece on March 30, 1960. These agreements had an important part in adding the number of foreign workers in Germany to. About of these workers were Italians. In the 1960s, Turkey was a developing country with a rapidly adding population and floundering with the structural severance problem. There was an agrarian employment and agrarian areas were no longer able to give this employment. Political problems in the country brought about the 1960 revolution. The import negotiation policy with the new government was a turning point for Turkey. Although this policy was legislated to cover domestic directors, it increased the import of intermediate goods in Turkey eventually and the current account deficiency problem arose. With the fleetly adding population, Turkey could not produce the necessary labour force, and the structural severance problem was one of the most important problems of this period. Turkey's immigration story began during the Democratic Party period. Apprehensive of the ever- developing job request in Germany, the Democratic Party Government conveyed its request to the German side in

1957 through the Foreign Minister Fatin Rüştü Zorlu to send Turkish workers to Germany. Although it was decided to establish a commission in 1960 in line with the admiration of the trainee workers who went to Germany and the demands of German employers, this process was suspended with the revolution. With the 1961 revolution, going abroad came an Indigenous right, and although there was no agreement, conditioning to go abroad to work with central institutions began. The German Consulate General in Istanbul, in its report to the Ministry of Foreign Affairs on August 18, 1960, said, "If our need for Turkish workers will continue in this way, it would be veritably applicable to make an agreement with other countries as we did." The Ministry of Foreign Affairs replied, "There's no need for such an agreement for now". In fact, just one time after this answer, on October 30, 1961, an agreement was signed with Turkey on labour force. With this agreement, Turkey aimed to exclude the severance problem by exporting the surplus workforce, as well as the current account deficiency problem with the unborn foreign exchange. Indeed, before the Turkish-German Labour Agreement entered into force on October 30, 1961, various worker demands, and transfers were taking place. Turkish labour migration to the Federal Republic of Germany; In 1956, upon the suggestion of the Institute of World Economy of Kiel University that Federal Germany should invest in Turkey and employing high academy graduates who were trained as heads in Germany with these investments, a small technician group of 12 people, together with their families, was established in Hamburg in the first months of 1957. It is grounded on going to. After the agreement of Turkish workers who went to the Federal Germany for education, companies that immorally transferred workers to Germany in return for a commission surfaced and led to an irregular migration surge. The number of workers who went abroad through these companies immorally and worked illegally reached 2700 people in 1960. Piecemeal from the workers' groups, there were Turkish citizens working in various jobs in Germany. The fact that the workers in the plastic goods and material product

manufactory established by an engineer from Malatya correspond of emigrants from Turkey and those numerous Turkish workers analogous to this work in the same plant is just one of these exemplifications. Piecemeal from enterprise like this, the demand for workers from Germany and the density of worker operations from Turkey before the agreement draws attention. This demand of Germany, which wanted more workers, was around. The number of operations from Turkey was over. Due to problems in shipments; For illustration, carrying a visa from 3 consulates, carrying the passports of the workers going to Germany from the Police Departments braked down the shipments. (Abadan, 2006)

1.4 Turkey - Germany labour migration agreement and its effects

An agreement was signed between the German and Turkish Employment Agency on October 30, 1961. The base of this agreement was the desire to protect the rights of the workers there, as well as the workers to leave, and to conclude an agreement (Abadan, 2006). The elementary lines of this agreement emerged because of the negotiations held in Bonn to preclude the difficulties faced by our workers who went to Germany and to give the openings handed to the German workers to the Turkish workers. This agreement, which was put into effect on September 1, 1961, was planned to cover the rights of Turkish workers who went to Germany before the agreement. Unless it was terminated by one of the governments, it would automatically extend for another time. Although the labour transfer, which boosted with the agreement, did not attract enough attention at first, the seriousness of this event was understood over time and Turkish workers showed the necessary interest in this issue. News of the agreement took place in journals of the period similar as Milliyet, Hürriyet, Cumhuriyet, Tercüman and Ulus (Newspaper, 1961). After the agreement signed on 30 October, the news of the agreement published in the journals coincided with 2 November. This agreement, which will give new chances to Turkish workers going to Germany, is allowed to be an occasion to increase the knowledge, experience, and specialization of

Turkish workers. The departure of workers to Germany is veritably important for the development of Turkey. Authorities suppose that they will make a great contribution to Turkey on the return of the workers. With the agreement, it was decided to establish a liaison office in Istanbul. The working charges of the Liaison Office would be covered by the German Institution, the Turkish Institution would allocate services and outfit to the Liaison Office, as well as the necessary apartments suitable for the medical examination of the applicants, free of charge. In the content of the agreement, the Turkish Institution was given full authority. The institution will elect and list those who have the necessary skills and capacities and notify the Liaison Office. The Liaison Office did not want preliminarily condemned workers. It was not presented to the Liaison Office for people who were not given a passport or who were inconvenient to be given a passport. It was stated that the Turkish Institution would make the necessary examination regarding the health status and residence status. Latterly, two contracts, in German and Turkish, for the accepted workers will be made and the composition "to be signed by the employer and the worker" was also included in the contract. The Turkish Institution and Liaison Office stamped these agreements with the 'seen' seal. It was also the task of the Liaison Office to organize the journeys of the workers and to meet their wages. These wages were to be covered by the German Employment Agency. Workers arriving in Germany had to apply to the necessary authorities for a hearthstone permit within 3 days at the latest. Workers who wanted to work for a period of 1 time had to apply for authorization by applying to the authorized Labour Institution of the region where they worked 1 month ago, at the end of the period. Workers were not allowed to work for further than 2 times. Still, in the addition textbooks of the agreement, if the governments of the two countries suppose it applicable, this composition was crossed out (Zafer, 1977). In any event, the Federal Republic of Germany had the power to send workers back to their country. In such a case, the authorities of the Republic of

Turkey had to give the necessary trip permits and transit visas. Both delegations also mentioned some issues regarding the residence and employment of Turkish workers in the Federal Republic of Germany. It was emphasized that it was not the right behaviour for the Turkish delegation to accept that the necessary residence permit was not granted by the applicable authorities in order to enable the spouses of workers who work as workers in Germany and visit their spouses without carrying a visa, in order to enable them to work in Germany. The German Delegation, on the other hand, stated that the German Passport and Foreigners Police Legislation did not allow foreigners who entered Germany without a visa to be granted a residence permit that would serve their working purpose. The German Delegation also added to the Turkish Delegation that the citizens working in Germany should gain a residence permit in advance if they want to bring their spouses to Germany to hold a job in the future. He refocused out that the applicable people could apply to the sanctioned German Consulates in Turkey before they travel to Germany and stated that the German Consulates were instructed in this regard. After the agreement was signed, there was an increase in the number of workers going to Germany. Although the agreement touched upon many issues according to the conditions of the period, its shortcomings emerged over time. These shortcomings were written by Suphi Baykam, the Istanbul Deputy of the time, and published in the Milliyet newspaper (Newspaper, 1961). Suphi Baykam has revealed that there are deficiencies in the agreement and that there are great problems in its implementation. Germany did not want skilled workers in general, but wanted workers who were healthy, sound and fit to do the job given. Firms were looking for some specific skills required by the job and demanding workers accordingly. Turkish workers were falling into a one-sided situation, not according to their own abilities. Turkish workers, unfamiliar with the living conditions in Germany, were unknowingly signing contracts with low wages. Turkish workers, who could not get along in such conditions, were looking for better jobs. In this

case, the permission paper they received from the Liaison Office lost its validity. Some women had problems with passports because of their bachelor and marriage surnames. The German police were making difficulties for female workers of different surnames. Even if the workers who pass the health examination in Turkey are unable to work, they find a way to leave, for example, even pregnant women could obtain workers' passports. As for the living conditions of Turkish workers, it was seen that it was not possible to live with 400 Marks, the workers made a living due to cheap meals and accommodation, and they made little savings. In addition, since the exchange rate was low, foreign currency was tried to be smuggled into the country. This situation affected the state revenues. The absence of an existing insurance agreement between Germany and Turkey was also an important problem. Workers of Common Market member countries received a raise for their children. It was seen that Turkish workers could not benefit from this situation. Different treatment of other foreign workers reduced the motivation of Turkish workers. As a result of such disruptions, the grievances of Turkish workers were tried to be eliminated with various additional agreements during the period. With the Social Security Agreement signed on April 30, 1964, new rights were granted to Turkish workers, and social rights such as Sickness Rights, Maternity Rights, Death Insurance, Work Accidents Insurance, Invalidity and Old Age Insurance, Child Allowance were issued to Turkish workers with this agreement.

1.5 Reasons for Turkish workers to go to Germany

In the realization of labour migration, the economic structure, demographic structure, and social structure of the countries receiving and sending migration are effective. The labour movement from Turkey to Germany has occurred depending on the economic conditions of Turkey and Germany. The basis of migration was Germany's demand for labour. The economic reasons for migration from Turkey to Germany can be listed as follows.

- Increasing prevalence of covert and overt unemployment in Turkey,

- Decrease in the demand for workers in the labour market in terms of employment,
- The general worker wage level is below the minimum subsistence level,
- Working conditions and wage rates of industrial workers in Germany are much higher than those in Turkey,
- Attractive job conditions and wage levels in the Federal Republic of Germany and the effect of this situation on the workers by making propaganda, and announcing the social security and stability of the business life through the press,
- The aim of the workers who will return to the country after a period of at least two years to gain the qualifications of qualified, master, technicians, and the desire to have a car, expensive goods, money,
- The reasons such as the lack of arable land to be shared with the industrialization in agriculture in Turkey were the most important economic factors of migration to Germany. Financial difficulties and financial concerns were among the leading economic factors. Social conditions in Turkey and Germany also had a significant impact on the Turkish - German labour migration movement, where economic factors were at the forefront. The fact that Turkey has more underdevelopment indicators has made the modern level in Germany more attractive. The social reasons for this migration movement can be listed as follows.
- Lack of stability and excess elasticity in working life due to the alternative crises created from time to time by various political, economic, and social crises,
- Decreased belief of individuals in state security,
- The demoralization caused by the social institutions that have not yet become fully established with the social, economic, and political environment,
- Especially those who have worked in Turkey for a while in business branches that require technical knowledge such as assembly, engine repair, electrician, turning, designer, metal,

optics, printer, ship construction, furniture, but those who have not yet trained enough, and young people who have studied in secondary technical schools. He preferred to work as a worker in the Federal Republic of Germany to find the opportunity to work and earn their living and earn money.

Most of the workers who applied to the Employment Agency Offices to go to the Federal Republic of Germany were workers representing the unskilled workforce. Most of these applicants were illiterate and preferred comfortable and torture-free but low-paying jobs. The unemployed, who flocked to villages and towns, constitute this group. Their ages range from 22 to 32. They want to work in construction docks, mines, and agricultural works (Sener, 2014).

1.6 General conditions of being a guest worker in Germany

Before the Turkish-German Labour Agreement, Germany's demands for workers had started. Germany wanted to meet the workers' demands in a systematic way. For this reason, the need to open an office in Istanbul Tophane has emerged in order to speed up the transactions. The idea that labour supply should be managed from a sole source was dominant. In fact, in such a system, both workers would be prevented from being victimized and the selection of workers to come to their countries would be easier. Persons who will go to Germany through the German Employment Agency,

- Having completed their military service,
- Being individuals who have not received a prison sentence and without a criminal record.
- If they are unskilled workers, they must be over 35 years old, and if they are skilled workers, they must be over 40 years old.

Persons with the required qualifications and qualifications selected among the applicants made to the Employment Agency Branches across Turkey were reported to the German

Liaison Office in Istanbul and sent to Germany after the strict health check there. Germany was also very meticulous about health checks. During the health examinations, urine and blood analyses of the worker candidates were performed and their blood pressure was measured. Later, Turkish workers, who went in front of the doctor in their underwear in groups, were examined for injuries, surgical scars, missing or rotten teeth. Those who had the slightest health problem were not given any privilege and their file was stamped "Cannot Work in Germany". After applying to İİBK, a Job Request Card was issued to the people who met the conditions brought by the German Employment Agency. On these cards, the name, surname, application profession, education and age of the person were written, and after the institution made an examination, the process of sending an invitation letter to the selected workers began, and the beneficiary had to apply to the institution within 15 days from the date the letter was sent to the mail. Various documents were not required from the invited workers.

These documents.

1 — A copy of the identity card in which the last military service enrolment has been processed,

2 — Diploma or testimonial,

3 — Prosecutor's Office,

4 — 8 4 X 6 size photos.

With the completion of these documents, the migration process began. One of the most important problems for the workers was obtaining passports. The Ministry of Labour, which wanted to respond quickly to Germany's intense demands, asked the Police Departments for permission for passports. Passports were of immense importance to speed up the transactions,

as passport procedures often took months. Even though 6 months have passed since the agreement, the increase in the demands of the workers made it necessary to increase the number of personnel working in the Employment and Employment Agency. Bülent Ecevit, Minister of Labour at the time, stated that 200 people were sent a week and 7,000 Turkish workers were in Germany. With the rapid increase in the number of workers who went to Germany through the German Liaison Office in 1962, Germany had 560,000 workers in its 1963 plans, but was planning to receive 10,000 workers from Turkey. The General Manager of the Unemployment Insurance Institution, Herr Anton Sabel, was making contacts on this issue and expressing his views on accelerating job recruitment in Turkey. The number of Turkish workers who went to Germany, which was 18 thousand in 1964, exceeded 30 thousand in 1966. It was seen that a large number of Turks were placed in jobs in the automobile industry. Although the number of workers who went to Germany decreased to 7 thousand due to the recession in the German market in 1967, the number of those invited to Germany in 1969 exceeded 40 thousand. The OPEC crisis in 1973, the quadrupling of oil prices and the unemployment that started to increase with economic fluctuations forced the German State to take new decisions. While the demands of workers continued to increase in the official period between 1961-1973, with the globally effective Oil Crisis that emerged in 1973, the demands and dispatches of workers were terminated (Newspaper, 1961).

1.7 General situation and rights of workers

Turkish workers were trying to overcome the adaptation problem in a foreign country, in a language they did not know. Living conditions in Germany were also effective in the adaptation process of Turkish workers. The most important of the problems experienced by the workers was the language problem. Turkish workers could not adapt to the German cuisine and lived together and therefore could not learn the German language. The workers, who could not get used to German food, were busy with chores such as cooking instead of

resting in their place of shelter after they were tired, and they were putting an extra burden on themselves. Turkish workers, who came from a different working climate, could not adapt to the programmed and disciplined working order in Germany, and the work monotony caused a tendency to return. While the most crucial factor in job change of Turkish workers was the job monotony, the concern about not being able to participate in the production and not showing their talents during the production phase was also one of the common reasons for Turkish workers to change jobs. Turkish workers were working in the manufacturing industry and in the mining basins. In Germany, how many hours a day and a week, the workers would work and their rights arising from working conditions were determined in the “Arbeitszeitordnung,” and the provisions of this instruction were applied to all workers in all kinds of establishments and factories. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the Employment and Unemployment Insurance Agency is the enforcer of all kinds of laws regarding workers and the solution authority of all kinds of problems (Sun, 2016). Finding a job, unemployment insurance, and unemployment benefits are its main duties. According to Federal German Laws, no worker could be forced to work more than 10 hours a day, but in some exceptional cases (such as floods, earthquakes, fires, etc.), changes could be made, and the employer was obliged to pay for each overtime worked. Workers could not work more than 8 hours a day for 45 hours a week, and workers who had the right to rest for 1 hour a day could use this right twice as half an hour if they wanted. According to the law, male workers were forbidden to work for 6 hours without rest. For women, this time was 4.5 hours. Although Saturday and Sunday were public holidays, workers who wanted to work on public holidays were paid 100 percent over time. Workers were also entitled to annual leave. There was flexibility in wages in Germany. While the wages were paid weekly, 14 days, and monthly according to the workplace, if the wage were paid monthly, advances could be given on the 10th and 20th days of the month. Turkish workers were paid between 2 and 2.30 Marks per hour, and this

wage varied between 380-532 Marks per month. Female workers, on the other hand, were paid between 1.60-1.80 Marks per hour, and 285-323 Marks per month (Newspaper, 1961). There were various deductions from these wages. 10 percent income tax, 4 percent sickness insurance, 1 percent unemployment insurance on average, and the monthly income of the workers was around 345 Marks.

CHAPTER 2

LABOUR MARKET

The labour market is one of the different but also interrelated markets that determine the direction of the economy. The strength of an economy is determined by its gross domestic product (GDP), which also includes production activities in the labour market. Based on this relationship between an economic growth indicator and the labour market, it can be said that positive or negative changes in the labour market would lead to changes in economic growth. In order to understand the importance of the labour market for a country's economy, it is first necessary to get an overview of the labour market. How does the labour market work? How is it defined and what are the most important basics to know about the labour market? Like other economic markets, the labour market has its 'buyers' and 'sellers'. In this market, the buyers are defined as employers and the sellers as employees. Not everyone (employers and employees) is in the market all the time, because there are always some who are not looking for new employees or new jobs. Therefore, not all people above a certain age are considered as the labour force of a country. The category 'labour force' includes all people above a certain age (which may vary from country to country) who are employed or looking for a new job. The unemployed also belong to the 'labour force' (Aracı, 2022). They are looking for work and are available to the labour market as a supply. People who are not part of the labour force are those who are not employed and not looking for work, in short, people who do not want to work. The labour force is differentiated by age (Sener, 2014). People of working age are distinguished from people of non-working age. Demographic indicators such as fertility rates, mortality rates and migration rates have an impact on the population rate. Changes in

these indicators lead to changes in the labour market, which are discussed in the next chapters. Second, not all people of working age are willing to work. The share of employed people in the population is defined as the labour force participation rate, which indicates the labour supply of households. Finally, both employed and unemployed people are defined as the labour force. The ratio between the labour force and the employed is determined by the employment rate (M. Santric-Milicevic, 2015).

In summary, the population can be categorised as either employed (dependent or self-employed), unemployed, inactive, or not of working age. The rates of these categories are constantly changing due to movements between categories there are four movements between these categories.

1. employed workers become unemployed by voluntarily quitting or being laid off (involuntary separation from the firm, either temporarily or permanently).
2. unemployed workers obtain employment by being rehired or recalled to a job from which they had been temporarily dismissed.
3. employed workers, whether employed or unemployed, may leave the labour force by retiring or otherwise choosing not to work for pay (resignation).
4. those who have never worked or sought employment expand the labour force by entering it, while those who have left it do so by re-entering it." Participants in the labour market, workers, and enterprises, have different goals. While workers seek to sell their labour at the highest possible price, firms want to buy labour as cheaply as possible. These transactions between workers and companies are conducted within the framework of rules set by the government. Labour market outcomes depend on these rules. For example, the minimum wage law prohibits payments below the required hourly wage, or safety regulations protect

workers' health by eliminating unhealthy working conditions. Therefore, the three actors' workers, companies and the government are the most important participants in the labour market. All issues such as workers' qualifications, unemployment rates, types of jobs are determined by the agreements between the actors, workers, and enterprises, within the framework of government regulations. The labour market is one of the important markets in which companies trade. The other two are the capital market and the commodity market. The labour and capital markets are where enterprises buy inputs, and the commodity market is where enterprises sell output.

2.1 The German labour market

The employment of 'foreign' workers has always been primarily dependent on the respective interests of the German economy. The economic boom in Germany in the 1950s and 1960s led to an increased need for young, healthy and above all flexible workers. However, because of the Second World War, young adults who are now starting a lucrative job and education are among the so-called baby boomers. At the same time, the number of (domestic) workers fell because of the founding of the Bundeswehr, reduced working hours and longer education. The demand for labour varied from region to region. There was almost no unemployment in the industrial centres, but there were not enough paid jobs for everyone in the rural areas, where many people had fled and arrived after being deported (Constant, 2005).

Since it was difficult to recruit Germans in agriculture, in 1953/54 the Württemberg farmers' association suggested recruiting workers from other countries. Sending countries, especially Italy (1954), also showed great interest in employment. In the following years, there was a debate in Germany about hiring workers from other countries, both politically and economically. Eventually, the federal government decided to use contracts to regulate the hiring of 'foreign' workers. The Federal Bureau of Labour has established commissions and liaison offices in the respective recruitment countries. With the migrant workers, the

economic and social situation in Germany has changed dramatically. Their dedication to work and their high degree of flexibility played a key role in Germany's economic development. Without migrant workers, "the post-war boom would have ended abruptly as a result of wage increases and inflation (Sebastian Till Braun, 2021)."

The German labour market has been in a healthy condition over the last decade. It has been characterised by continuously falling unemployment rates since 2005 and crisis-proof employment growth. This labour market stability is attributed to an "effective and unique combination of flexibility and rigidity" (Constant, 2005).

However, the labour market also benefits from a favourable economic development. This includes attractive investment conditions due to low interest rates, higher government spending due to rising tax revenues and higher private consumption, which interacts with lower unemployment rates. For an export nation like Germany, it is also important to mention the positive development of the global economy in combination with a weak euro and wage restraint that keeps unit labour costs low as supporting factors for employment growth.

However, the current stable labour market situation was preceded by serious labour market problems, in particular a trend towards rising unemployment. In the early 2000s, the country had higher unemployment rates than most other members of the European Union and then the OECD average. Only since the 2009 crisis has it been among the countries with the lowest unemployment rates in both organisations. Today, it even has the lowest levels of unemployment and underemployment since German reunification (Sebastian Braun, 2014).

The reversal of the negative trend in the labour market was made possible by far-reaching improvements in the first decade of the new millennium, the so-called "Hartz reforms". Among their most important innovations were the reduction of unemployment benefits to lower the reservation wage of the unemployed, the linking of benefits to an active job search

and the possibility to sanction the unemployed if they refuse a job, as well as expanded and improved training measures to improve the employability of hard-to-place people. On the other hand, the reforms included public job creation, subsidies for the self-employed as well as for companies employing older or long-term unemployed people, and the exemption of marginal employment from taxes and social security contributions. The positive effect of the reforms was higher work incentives and better placement efficiency, which led to a decline in structural unemployment, but they also led to wage moderation, as those receiving unemployment benefits were pushed to take low-paid jobs. Thus, the low-wage sector in general expanded. In the last decade, the German labour force has also changed significantly. Although German society is undergoing demographic change in the form of an ageing population, the labour supply has increased. The labour force participation rate, which was 71% in 2000, will reach 84.4% in 2022 (OECD, 2022)). While the labour force potential is decreasing due to the ageing of the labour force and the exit of older persons from the labour market, the propensity of women and older persons to work is increasing. In addition, refugees who have come to Germany in recent years are now increasingly entering the labour market after completing their language and integration courses. For the refugees, the bottlenecks in the German labour market are an advantage, because they create free spaces in the labour market that they can fill, provided their professional profile fits the vacancies. It is also to be expected that the authorities will not only support them against the background of the Hartz system described above, but also urge them to actively look for jobs and contribute to a turnaround in the labour shortage.

The already rising labour force participation rate is accompanied by a low and steadily declining unemployment rate, which stood at 3.10% in February 2022. The official unemployment rate seems low at first glance, but it should be remembered that it has been significantly glossed over by not counting welfare recipients who receive some kind of

vocational training but are technically still unemployed. Moreover, 38.2% of the unemployed population is long-term unemployed, indicating major obstacles to overcoming unemployment and thus inefficiencies in the labour market.

2.1.1. Employment opportunities for Turkish in Germany

In the times when immigration started, Turkey was an agricultural country. Most of the people made their living from agriculture and lands. With the adding population, husbandry was inadequate to give a livelihood for the people. Still, both rural to urban migration began. In addition, people who wanted to take advantage of openings abroad contributed to the workforce by immigrating to countries where the industry was developed.

Germany was also an industrially developing country, but it demanded labour demand. In Germany, people earned utmost of their livelihood from the industry. This was a good opportunity to create employment in labour migration.

Immigrants, typically play a crucial function within the German labour market. as an example, half of the employment growth inside the remaining decade is foreign-sourced employees. however, there are robust differences amongst foreign nationals. Germany. Refugees discover themselves in greater hard starting positions. Unemployment degrees for German residents keep saying no, at the same time as the unemployment charge for foreigners has intensified in recent years. it is miles completely primarily based on the migration of refugees. however, when we look at the challenging work marketplace of Turks in Germany, it would be extra beneficial to look at the intergenerational labour market beginning from 1961 (Abadan, 2006).

The development status of the receiving country is the most key factor in attracting emigrants to the sending country. This situation is attractive to workers migrating from Turkey to Germany. In the first years of immigration and the period we banded until 1972, the

unemployment rate, hourly wages, and workers' rights in Turkey were underdeveloped. Contrary to this situation, Germany was in the position of an advanced country. While Germany pays around 3 dollars per hour; Turkey was paying 0.50 dollars. In Turkey, where severance is high, people started to resettle to Germany, which has a shortage of workers and offers better living conditions. (Pacaci S. , 2012)

2.1.2 Recruitment

The German government signed the first contract with Italy for the recruitment of 'foreign' workers on 22 December 1955, followed by further agreements (1960) with Greece and Spain. 30 Individual companies entered individual contracts with workers before or outside of formal contracts. The Turkish government has also expressed interest in the recruitment agreement. The reaction of the Federal Republic to this was initially extremely limited, finally, on 30 October 1961, an agreement was signed between the government of the Federal Republic of Germany and the Republic of Turkey, regulating the resettlement of Turkish workers in the Federal Republic of Germany. In the following years, new recruitment agreements were signed with Morocco (1963), Portugal (1964), Tunisia (1965) and Yugoslavia (1968). It is pointed out that the contracts with the countries are written differently and this causes discrimination against Turkey and Tunisia. (Jurgens, 2010)

The formulation that applicants' medical suitability should be checked 'to stay in the Federal Republic' (not just 'for the job offered') can only be found in agreements with Turkey and Tunisia. 'Principles regarding the nature and scope of health examination', which form part of the agreement with Italy, any communicable disease (e.g., this practice could of course also be possible in Turkey. The explanatory reference to this in the text of the convention caused discrimination against Turkey and was clearly unnecessary to avoid health risks (Boswell, 2004).

The governments concerned have adopted the rotation model, in which workers will stay in the country of employment for a limited period. This idea is reflected in the initial definition as ‘guests’ or ‘guest workers’. The original plan was that when workers returned home from Germany, new workers from recruiting countries would take their place in the German economy. This was to prevent people from settling permanently ‘from abroad’. Germany did not want to be a country of immigrants, and neither were the countries concerned with permanently losing workers. This arrangement was initially in the interest of not only the governments concerned, but also most workers who wanted to make a living or secure their livelihood in Turkey with the money they earned and the knowledge they acquired in Germany (Jurgens, 2010).

The Turkish government primarily wanted to allow unskilled workers and the unemployed to leave the country because their migration would not affect the Turkish economy. Despite the Turkish government’s interest in relaxing the labour market, the first migrant workers had above-average educational and vocational qualifications. While the second five-year plan was being prepared in Turkey, it was determined that 38% of the workers who migrated from Turkey to other countries between the years 1964-1967 were skilled workers. The widespread impression that workers in Germany are ‘uneducated’ people and come directly from Eastern Anatolia does not fit their qualifications: “The first Turkish immigrants to Germany were the most highly skilled and came primarily from the western regions of Turkey. Only a quarter of workers came from the agricultural sector. (Pacaci S. , 2012)”

But the German economy was not interested in possible available qualifications, it was important to find workers for simple jobs. Firms and companies therefore recruited people from recruiting states as unskilled workers, who were also cheaper than skilled workers. Workers can be requested anonymously or anonymously. The school and professional qualifications you brought with you played no role; what was decisive was compliance with

the planned activities and the possibility of not incurring any costs to the German health system. Although experience, qualifications and certifications in the learned professions were not important, they still had to pass rigorous examinations before traveling to Germany. In the placement section, applicants were required to read aloud, answer work-related questions, and demonstrate their practical skills. This is skipped only if the request was made by name. Then came the check-up: blood pressure, blood and urine were examined. Undressing to their panties, the applicants had to perform physical exercises in front of the German doctor and his physician's assistant. For the sake of future working ability, special attention was paid to physical disabilities and surgical scars; The genitals and groin were examined, as were the eyes and ears, and finally an X-ray examination was performed. A new appointment was made for minor complaints, people with severe disabilities were denied and access to the Z1 card was granted. They had no right of appeal and, according to the note on the card, they no longer had a legal opportunity to go to Germany (Aracı, 2022).

In Turkey, as in all sending countries, both men and women responded to recruitment offers from the Federal Republic of Germany. Women were in great demand as workers in all sectors of the economy, so few female applicants often did not have to wait long for approval. "Many of these women worked in Bavaria and Baden-Württemberg in the electrical, clothing and textile industries and in the service sector, and here specifically as nurses." Women applied to Germany from divergent backgrounds (Anton, 2020). They went alone, before, after, or at the same time as their husbands, immigrated with or without children, were married, engaged or single, had different qualifications and came from different regions or contexts.

Women in various positions have influenced family migration decisions. Married women staying in Turkey often made it possible for their husbands to migrate in the first place. Mothers were also involved in their daughters' and sons' decision to emigrate to work. These

women, who went to Germany, first created the conditions for their husbands to emigrate, whether by arranging a job or later by family reunification. Single women did not need consent if they were over 18; Those under the age of 18 had to submit a statement of consent from their parents. For married women, a declaration of consent was requested from the husband. But from 1965 the regulations were relaxed, so increasingly married women immigrated to Germany from that point on (Jurgens, 2010). “The proportion of married women living alone in Germany was the highest among Turkish women. It is estimated that the German authorities' concerns about allowing family members to enter the country from Turkey played a role in the high number of married women who migrated alone. Some women had to defend themselves, sometimes against their own will, others on the initiative of their families, against their husbands or other relatives.

CHAPTER 3

LABOUR MIGRATION FROM TURKEY TO GERMANY

3.1 Labour agreement between the Republic of Turkey and European Union and Federal Republic of Germany

Agreement Between European Union and Turkey

The purpose of this section is to show how the legal rights of people migrating from Turkey to Europe, especially Germany, and the agreements signed between the European Union and Turkey, and policies affect citizens. It is not a sociological study or legal study, but since economics is in interaction with other sciences, determining the factors that a country is affected by when it migrates to other countries and explaining these factors in an economic language will make the subject more understandable. Federal Germany started to heal its wounds after the Second World War in 1950 and started to say that I am in the world market. However, due to the lack of labour force, he was trying to fill the worker shortage he needed from the developing or undeveloped countries. Among these countries was Turkey. This process, which started as a guest worker in 1961, has experienced different developments in every period with the agreements made with Turkey and European countries. To better examine this section, it is also necessary to examine the European Union Law, international law and the agreements and policies signed between Turkey and the European Union.

European Union Law

The European countries, which suffered a lot of damage with the Second World War, were trying to find a way among themselves. There was a need for a union to establish an environment of peace in Europe and to unite values such as common trade, economic

development, and human rights among European countries under one roof. The states of the countries that came together as the European Steel and Coal Community established this union in 1951. This union consisted of Belgium, Luxembourg, France, Italy, Federal Germany, and the Netherlands. For the first time in history, steel and coal vehicles as raw materials aimed at both peace and economic development among these countries (EU, 1977).

Treaty of Rome

With the Treaty of Rome in 1957, it was decided to establish the European Economic Community and the European Atomic Energy Community. (“VISION STATEMENT VISION OF THE FUTURE OF THE EUROPEAN UNION - Fdfa.be”) With the Roma agreement, free movement of goods, services, capital, and people have been given between these 6 countries. The main purpose of this agreement is to share the labour force among the countries and to achieve economic development by granting the right of free trade. It is known as the agreement in which the foundations of the European Union were laid with the agreement articles changed several times.

The agreement, which also includes commercial concessions between the countries, facilitated trade by removing customs tariffs between these six countries. At the same time, a common customs tariff began to be applied for trade with foreign countries. However, they made new policies by following common policies. They introduced common policies in agriculture, trade, and transport. By establishing the European Investment Bank for the economic expansion of the European Union, it aimed to improve living standards especially for workers.

In addition to these, for decision and authority mechanisms; The Council of Ministers, the Parliamentary Assembly, the Commission, and the Council of Justice are established to protect common interests and development.

Among these institutions, the Court of Justice of the European Union was established in Luxembourg in 1952. In the countries of the European Union, it is its main duty to ensure that the European Union law is applied in the same way in every country. At the same time, it makes it easier to resolve disputes between countries, to facilitate the interpretation and application of legal articles, and to ensure the rights of countries in the European Union (EP., 1958).

In terms of its functioning, an application can be made to the national courts indirectly, or a right can be sought as an individual or legal person by applying directly to the general courts of the European Union.

Ankara Agreement

The European Union and its member countries were opening factories to recover post-war and improve the economic situation. The biggest problem in these countries was the dwindling number of young working people. With a number of accompanying problems, the European Union member states began to recruit workers, especially from Third World Countries, to close the labour force gap in order to solve this problem. Among these countries was the Republic of Turkey. It should be clearly stated that the European Union has signed different agreements between other Third World Countries to meet the workforce. However, the fact that a part of Turkey is in the European continent and that it wants to establish close relations with Europe has led to an agreement that deals with many issues between the union and the Republic of Turkey. Since the agreement, which has gone through various revisions after many years, deals with quite different issues, the articles related to workers will be mentioned here.

The intense interest shown by Turkish citizens, guest worker migration to other countries such as Germany, Austria and France started to occur. In this period, which started legally in

the 1950s and there was intense immigration to Germany in 1961, securing workers' rights between the Republic of Turkey and the European Union, removing, and regulating the legal barriers faced by workers and citizens who want to live there, such as the right to free commercial movement, the right to visa. Agreements and policies were started to be discussed.

As a result of long negotiations in 1963, the Ankara Agreement was signed between Germany, France, and the Benelux states. Later, with the UK's accession to the European Union in 1973, it is included in the agreement. The main purpose of this agreement; It aims to strengthen the economic relations between the Republic of Turkey and the countries in the European Union, to protect the rights of workers during their stay in Europe and to eliminate inequality among citizens in the European Union. This agreement, which has articles on many issues, consists of 33 articles. This agreement also aims to contribute to the development of the Turkish economy. Ankara agreement: The preparatory phase consists of the Transition phase and the final phase. Explanations of these stages are given in Articles 4.5 and 6 of Articles. In summary, it is based on improving the economy of the Republic of Turkey and increasing the welfare level of the citizens. In the customs tariffs, there is an article for Turkey to accept the customs tariffs applied to the developing countries and to get closer with other communities. In addition, according to the article in Article 12, which is particularly relevant to migrant workers, the state parties must also accept articles 48, 49 and 50. Accordingly, after the entry into force of the agreement, the workers' right of free movement will be guaranteed gradually. The Association Council was established to control committee the agreement.

The guest workers who went to work from Turkey to Europe consisted of the vast majority in Germany. This process, which started in the late 1950s, continued until the 1970s. However, with the oil crisis, the European countries, which did not want to hire more guest workers,

were making the Turkish workers there nervous. The Turks who lived and worked there for many years were afraid to return for fear of losing their jobs and retirement rights. Turks, who wanted family reunification, employment, and social rights, were waiting for a solution with the crisis (ECC, Ankara Agreement, 1963). The detailed and insufficient Ankara agreement was presented to the committee based on the Ankara agreement, together with the additional protocols signed in 1970. Additional protocol and details will be covered in the next section.

Additional Protocols

The Ankara Agreement was an agreement that was also considered the beginning of the relations signed with Turkey and the countries in the European Union. The initial agreement includes transition and decision processes. Additional Protocols are therefore important. The developing relations and economic situations of the countries in the ten-year period needed to be regulated with the help of additional protocols. Particularly, the political changes experienced in Turkey also affected Turkey's economy, commercial situation, and migration of people to Europe. In addition, Turks who migrated to Germany and other European countries to work wanted to benefit from rights such as family reunification, retirement rights, the right to live on equal terms with citizens living in Europe, and citizenship. With the article in Article 4 of the Ankara Agreement, the seriousness of the stages between Turkey and the European Union partners is mentioned. Turkey and the Association, which were in a transitional phase after the Ankara Agreement, had conditions to gradually establish a customs union and to bring the economic policies between Turkey and the Association more harmonious. As the second item, the process of this transitional phase is mentioned. The transition phase should not last more than twelve years, and the establishment of the customs union should not be hindered. The Additional Protocol, negotiated in 1970,

discussion about the regulations and timeline between Turkey and the European Community, especially regarding the implementation of Article 4 of the Ankara Agreement.

Explanations and regulations on the Additional Protocol, free movement of goods, restrictions on imports, common agricultural policy, and freedom of movement of persons and persons are included. Since this study includes the economic impact of migrant workers, only policies that relate to workers will be considered in the Additional Protocols.

The second part of the Additional Protocols, articles 36 and 40, covers worker and service movements. In this case, it is useful to examine these items. In the Additional Protocol signed between the European Economic Community and Turkey, Article 36 concerns the free movement of workers between the Member States of the European Union and Turkey. According to this article, the agreement will be valid gradually between 12 and 22 years after its entry into force. This means that it does not apply after 1 December 1986. Article 37 includes working conditions and wages. It is based on not being discriminated against between Turkish citizens and the countries where they go to work. The gradual regulation of the free movement of workers between the Member States and Turkey, the employment of workers without geographical discrimination, and the assistance of workers in their difficulties are explained in Article 38. Article 39 is explained in 5 paragraphs regarding the rights that workers and their families will also benefit from. According to this article, workers working in the European Union will be given the right to pension, death benefits, and insured employees. From these rights, their families in member states will also be able to benefit from health services. Article 40 of the Additional Protocol allows Member States to advise Turkey on the participation of young workers in exchange programs.

Regarding the free movement of workers and persons between Turkey and the European Union, steps have been taken with the Ankara Agreement. With the Additional Protocol, the

parties gave Turkey time to develop its economy and internal regulations and reached some decisions regarding free movement. At the Association Council meeting held in 1976, the Commission prepared a proposal in 1974 to pursue a common migrant worker policy and to find an alternative to the immigration problem and included proposals to improve the rights of migrant workers.

In the German process, which started with guest workers, the number of Turks who went to Germany with worker and family reunification increased. German Chancellor Helmut Kohl aimed to halve the number of Turks living in Germany in 1983. In this context, restrictions on the free movement of Turkish workers have been introduced.

The Association Council meeting, decided on 24 July 1976, was postponed to December on the grounds that the Community's proposals for free movement were not clear. The main legal regulation regarding the free movement of Turkish workers is the Association Council Decision dated 20 December 1976 and numbered 2/76.

With this decision, it was envisaged that the free movement of Turkish workers would be realized gradually between December 1976 and December 1986 in accordance with the principles set forth in Article 36 of the Additional Protocol and Article 12 of the Ankara Agreement. With Decision 2/76, the Council determined the principles of implementation of the first stage of free movement of workers.

The basic principles of Decision 2/76 are as follows:

- The first stage was determined as 4 years and ended on 1 December 1980.
- Workers who have been working in the Community for 3 years, without prejudice to the priority rights of the workers of the member states, in the same profession.

With their branch of activity, they will be able to enter the business registered in the region and conducted under normal conditions.

- Workers who have worked in the Community for 5 years will be able to freely apply for full-paying jobs in that country.
- Families and children of workers will be able to benefit from regional education opportunities in their community country.

The basic condition for Turkish workers to benefit from the right of free movement is worker status. The second condition is that the worker is included in the regular labour market in the host country.

It granted Turkish workers the right to enter employment with second priority, after Community workers, over other foreign workers working in the EU. The freezing of relations with the Community after 1976 prevented the de facto implementation of the second priority right.

At its meeting in 1980, the Association Council took Decision 1/80 on the second phase. According to the Association Council Decision No. 1/80.

- The second phase will last 3 years and will end on 30 November 1983.
- For workers who have been working for 3 years in the Group, the rights provided in the Decision No. 2/76 will remain valid, and the working period of 5 years will be reduced to 4 years.
- Family members of Turkish workers working in the Community, those who have resided in the Community countries for at least 3 years, can apply for all kinds of jobs, secondly, those who have been residing for 5 years will be able to enter all kinds of paid jobs.

- No difference will be made against Turkish workers in terms of wage level and social rights.
- Turkish workers' children will benefit from education, apprenticeship, and vocational training opportunities in the same way as the children of their member countries.
- The Association Council will review the second stage implementation between 1.6.1983 and 1.2.1983 and prepare the measures to be taken for the third stage (ECC, Additional Protocols, 1973).

Decision No 3/80 The Council of The Association of 19 September 1980 on the implementation of the social security programs of the Member States of the European Communities to Turkish workers and their family members. According to the decision 3/80; 'This Decision applies to all general and private social security plans with or without a premium, and to plans regarding the liability of the employer or shipowner for benefits, sickness and maternity benefits; disability benefits, old-age benefits, death benefits, benefits for work accidents and occupational diseases, death benefits, unemployment benefits, family benefits, including those for maintaining or improving earning capacity.'

The customs union envisaged to be established between Turkey and the EEC was seen and expressed as a means, not an end, by the Ankara Agreement. The goal of the agreement is Turkey's full membership to the Community. The Ankara Agreement has divided the partnership into three periods. These phases are Preparation, Transition and Final Phases. During the preparatory period, Turkey will strengthen its economy with the help of the Community to undertake the obligations that will fall on it in the Transition and Final Periods. The Turkish Preparatory Period is foreseen for five years, but its extension up to 10 years has been made possible by the Temporary Protocol annexed to the Ankara Agreement. Turkey could not use the Preparatory Period sufficiently and acted hastily for the Transition

Period. During the Transition Period, when the Turkish economy was not ready for full membership, it emerged with the economic problems that escalated with the Oil crisis and Turkey could hardly implement the Transition Period obligations brought by the Additional Protocol regarding the free movement of goods. The association regime was not conceived as just a customs union. At the same time, the parties decided to gradually implement the free movement of workers and services and the right of establishment within the Partnership regime.

3.2 Turks in Germany from generation to generation

The Turks who came to Germany as guest workers in 1961 were within the status of employees. for this reason, even as analysing their contribution to the body of workers, they contributed to the development of the German economy together with their numbers and guest workers from other nations. however, whilst Turks live in Germany thru family reunification, citizenship, and marriage; After settling in Germany, their children (2nd generation Turks) and grandchildren (3rd generation Turks) have contributed to the workforce in specific areas as they've fewer troubles with language and education.

Years	Turkish workers Outgoing	Total Turkish workers in Germany
1961	1476	6.800
1962	11.025	15.300
1963	23.436	27.100
1964	54.902	87.200
1965	45.572	132.800

1966	32.580	161.000
1967	7.199	172.400
1968	41.409	205.400
1969	98.142	322.400
1970	96.936	469.200
1971	65.684	652.800
1972	65.875	712.300
1973	103.793	910.500

Table 3-I : Number of Turkish in Germany (1961-1973) (SIS, 1990)

As seen in the table 3-I, 648,029 workers from Turkey to Germany has been sent. The number of Turks in Germany was 910,500 as of 1973.

When we look at the number of Turkish workers going to Germany, although there is a continuous upward trend, a great decrease is observed in 1967. This was the period when Germany saw an economic recession between 1967-1968 and reduced the recruitment of workers corresponds to years (Zafer, 1977). Considering the total number of Turks in Germany, is a continuous increase. Especially at the end of 1973, when family reunification and bringing the worker's spouse and children to Germany became legal, the total number of Turks was also affected by this situation (Munz R. S., 2007). Although the total number of Turkish workers working in Germany is around 650 thousand, it is seen that this figure is not reflected in the number of insured Turkish workers.

Year	Total Number	Man	Woman
1962	15.318	14.045	1.273
1963	27.144	24.167	2.977
1964	69.211	62.280	6.931
1965	121.121	105.566	15.555
1966	157.978	131.853	26.125
1967	137.081	111.692	28.389
1968	139.336	109.167	30.169
1969	244.335	190.762	53.573
1970	353.898	276.493	77.405
1971	453.145	355.787	97.358
1972	528.414	399.606	128.278
1974	574.810	424.532	150.278

Table 3-II Number of Insured Turkish Workers Working in Germany (1962-1974) (SIS, 1990)

When we compare Table 3-I and Table 3-II, there is an inconsistency between the numbers of employed workers and insured workers. The main reason for this is that Turks who work without insurance and come illegally; Continuing to live and work in Germany. The main problem of this is to settle for low wages and heavy working conditions.

Industries	Man (%)	Woman (%)	Total (%)

Metal Industry	%80	%20	%41(186.000)
Production Industry	%61	%39	%24 (111.159)
Construction Industry	%99	%1	%15 (72.099)
Coal Industry	%99	%1	%7 (33.304)
Government	%15	%75	%2 (13.443)
Trade and Bank	%75	%25	%2 (11.913)
Customer and Service	%43	%57	%2 (10.954)
Agriculture	%78	%12	%1 (4.043)

Table 3-II :Turkish Workers and their sectoral distribution in Germany (SIS, 1990)

Turkish workers in Germany work in various business lines. As seen in Table 3-III, it is seen that Turkish workers mostly work in the metal industry, manufacturing industry and construction sectors. Male workers make up the majority in other business lines except the service sector and public services. It can be said that female workers are employed extraordinarily little in the Construction sector and the Hard Coal-Electric sector. It is seen that female workers have a higher employment rate in areas such as service, public and production.

CHAPTER 4

EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS

People who immigrated to Germany took part in various jobs to increase their living standards and stay in Germany. Turks also immigrated to Germany and started to be employed and to see Germany as a permanent country. The migration movement, which started many years ago, has started to take place in different business areas with the change of people's mentality and commitment.

4.1 Purpose of the research

The research was conducted in order to determine the effects of Turks who immigrated to Germany on the intergenerational workforce, the status and workforce of Turkish employees who immigrated to Germany and are in the labour market here, in line with their demographic information. In addition, the satisfaction of Turks living in Germany with their current situation and the determination of their desire to return to Turkey in the future are also included in the research purpose

4.2. Scope of the research

The research was conducted on the Turkish workforce living in Germany. The situation of the migrant Turkish workforce and the existence of the difference in the labour force between generations were examined by considering their demographic characteristics (age, gender, education level), economic conditions and social conditions. In this context, questions about profession, education, working hours, wages, discrimination, job security, social security, union rights, and their position in the labour market were asked to the 100 participants

reached. 58% of the participants within the scope of the research are men and 42% are women.

4.3 Research method

In the research conducted using the quantitative method, an original questionnaire was applied to the sample selected from the determined population and to determine the situation regarding the labour market. The questionnaire was analysed in SPSS V.23 program and the results were tabulated. The findings obtained from the answers to the survey questions were evaluated under the heading of suggestions in the conclusion part by making use of the observations obtained during the one-to-one survey application, so that the reliability of the findings was tried to be increased. The details of the method used in the research are as follows:

4.4 Determination of the universe and sample

The population of the research consists of Turkish immigrants living in Germany. The sample of the study consists of 100 immigrants from the universe who can be reached by the online snowballing method (T. Johnson, 2014). The questionnaire form was applied to the participant over the internet.

4.5 Research type and hypothesis

The main question of the research is the different integration in the labour market across generations of Turks who immigrated to Germany or who have a migration story. To answer the research question correctly, hypotheses were formed in order to show significant relationships between the groups defined within the scope of the survey questions. Thus, first, in order to make it easy to calculate the difference between the dependent variables and the independent variables, a score calculation was made between the independent variables. One-

way Anova Test or T-test applied according to the grouping; Post Hoc test applied where the significant differences were present.

The hypotheses of the study were determined as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There are/not significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of labour market integration

Hypothesis 2: There are/not significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of reason for immigrating to Germany.

Hypothesis 3 There are/not significant differences between the Education level of Turkish in Germany and labour market integration.

Hypothesis 4: There are/are not significant differences between the Education level of Turkish and reason for immigration to Germany.

Hypothesis 5: There are/are not significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and labour market integration.

Hypothesis 6: There are/are not significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and reason for immigration to Germany.

Hypothesis 7: There are/are not significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their income level in Germany

Hypothesis 8: There are/are not significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their job qualification.

Hypothesis 9: There are/are not significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and pull factor of Germany.

4.6 Preparation of the questionnaire form and data collection techniques

Questions	Question Classification and Types
1-3	Demographic questions (Gender, Age, Education)
	Descriptive Questions
4	What is the reason of coming to Germany?
5	What is the pull factor of Germany?
6	From which part of Turkey did you immigrate to Germany?
7	What was your education level when you came to Germany?
8	Do you get help from any organization?
9	What is your German language level?
10	Do you plan to return to Turkey?
11	How often do you visit Turkey?
	Labour Market Questions
12	What is your occupation?
13	What kind of jobs do you work?
14	Is your job related to your field of study?

15	Do you feel respected in the society related to your job?
16	How many hours do you work per week?
17	What is your monthly income?
18	Do you think that the wage you receive covers your labour?
19	What is your income level compared to other migrant workers in a similar work/occupation?
20	What is your income level when compared to German citizens in a similar work/profession?
21	Do You Think German Employment Agencies Helped You in Finding a Job?
22	Do You Think Employers Provide Equal Opportunity During the Job Finding Process?
23	Do You Think Employers Discriminate According to Ethnicity During the Recruitment Process?
24	Has an Institutional Vocational Course Opportunity Offered to You to Move To A Different Profession?
25	At What Level Do You See Women in Participation in the Labour Market?
26	Do You Benefit from Social Security Benefits?
27	Do You Worry About Being Unemployed?

28	Do You Have Job Security?
29	Did You Benefit from Unemployment Insurance?
30	Have You Experienced Discrimination in Unemployment Insurance Application?
31	Do you think you can retire from Germany?
32	Are you involved in any social community in the area you live in?
33	Do You Have a Union Membership?
34	Would you return if you knew you would earn enough good income in Turkey?
35	How Will the German Labour Market Affect Without Migrant Workers?
36	What is your work-life balance?

Table 4-I: Survey questions

A total of 36 questions created with demographic questions, it was prepared in the Google survey form program. The survey questions consist of 36 questions in total, including "yes" and "no" answers and structured alternative answers, at a level that will meet the purpose of the research, considering the answering potential of the participants. The survey study was applied over the internet. The researcher notified all Turkish-origin participants in the Germany via the social media and e-mail system and sent the survey link to all the participants he could reach through the snowball method.

(https://docs.google.com/forms/d/e/1FAIpQLSdngFenCD9pzgw1Ja6rBgE_OJcAbgFxFamBVHoeFp6KDRERg/viewform?usp=sf_link).

Since the language level of the immigrants who answered the questions was not known, the questionnaire was prepared together in Turkish and English. Thus, data were obtained from 100 people in total.

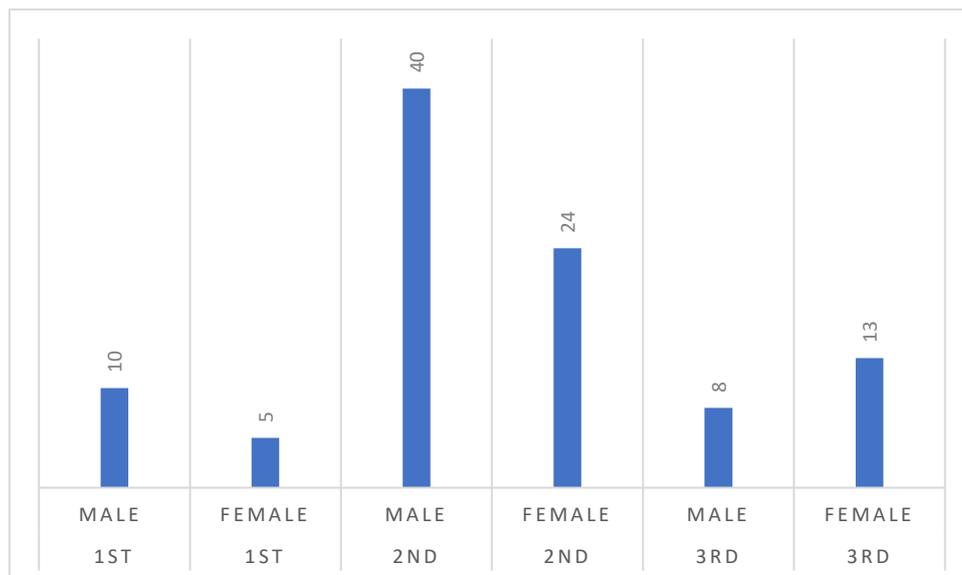
4.7 Analysis of data

The data collected because of the research were analysed in SPSS version 23 program. After the survey results were entered into the SPSS program, the results are explained in detail with One-way Anova test and T-test.

4.8 Findings of the research

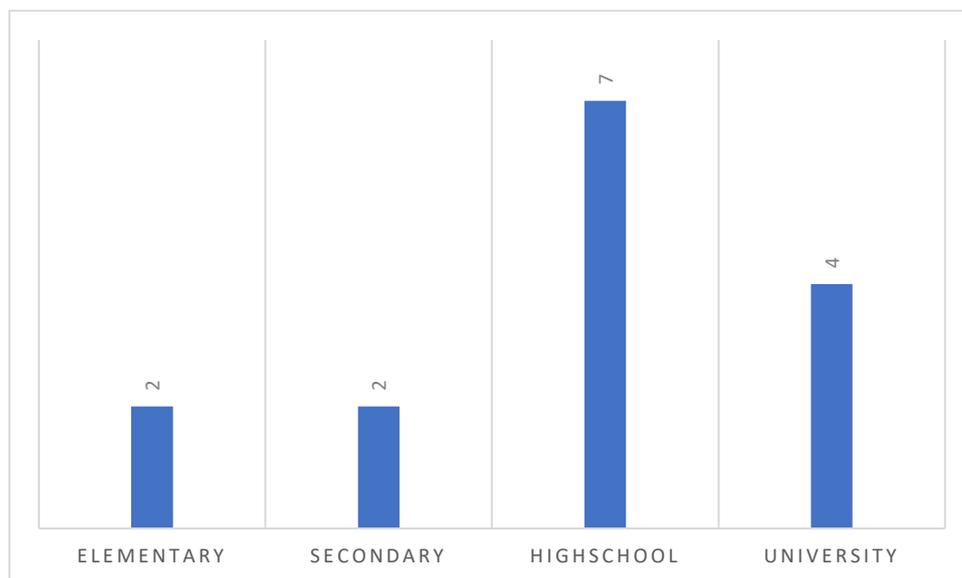
As set out in the research questionnaire, the findings are built on answers to demographic, descriptive and labour market questions by comparing different generations: First generation with the age above 50, second generation, with the age between 26 and 50, and third generation, from 10 to 25. The findings for the relevant classification are given below, respectively.

4.8.1 Demographic Findings

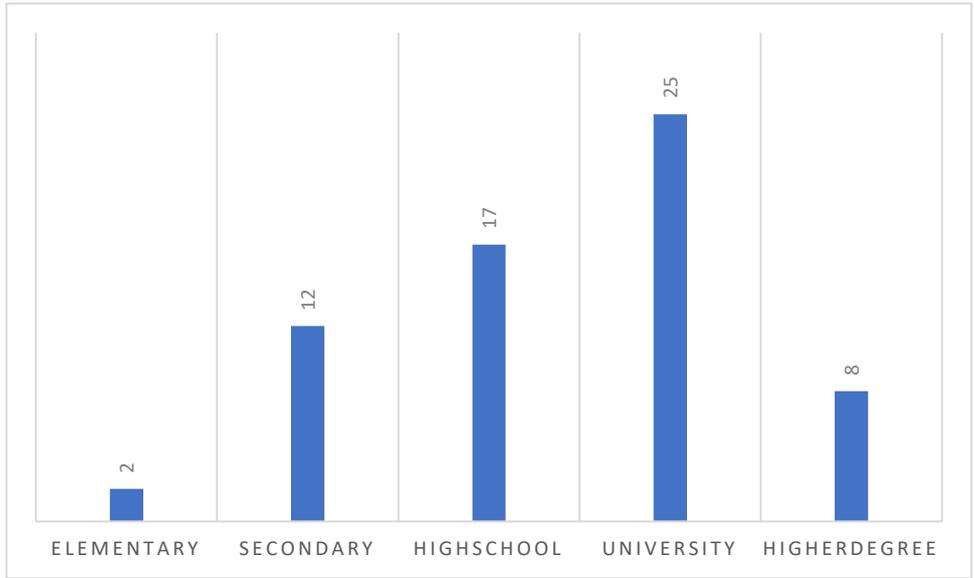


Graph 4-I Gender with generations

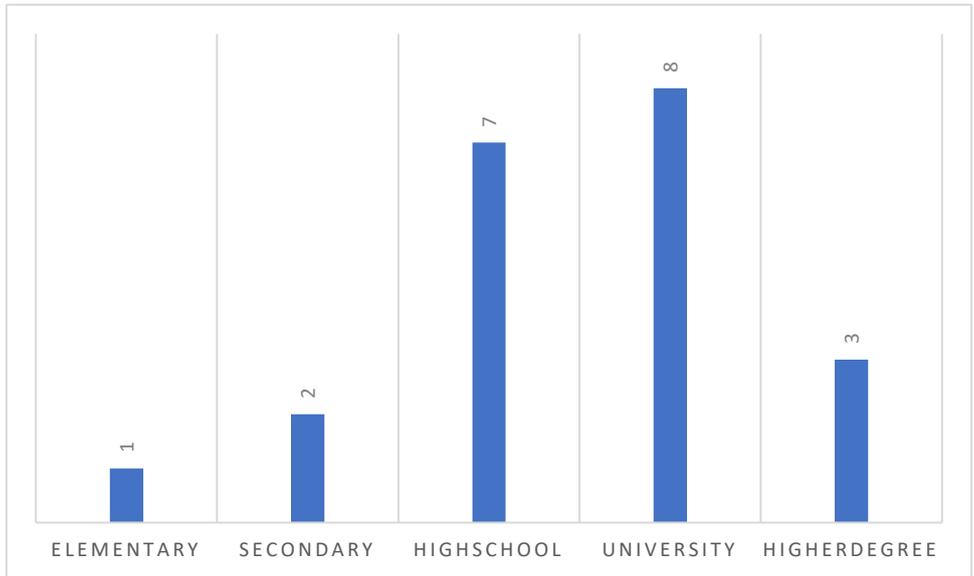
In this study, it was requested to answer the questions prepared by randomly selecting 100 observations. As can be seen in the graph 4-I, when we look at the gender distribution across generations, it is seen that in the first generation which the ages above 50 is 15 people and is 15 % of the survey participants and they are 10 male (10%) and 5 female (5%). In the second-generation participants who they have an age range between 50 to 26 is the common part of our survey they are 66 people. They are 40 male (40%) and 26 female(26%). Finally in the third generation 21 people attend to survey, which have age range between 25 to 10 it represents 21% of our survey group. Third generation is 8male(8%) and 13female (13%).



Graph 4-II First generation education level



Graph 4-III: Second generation education level



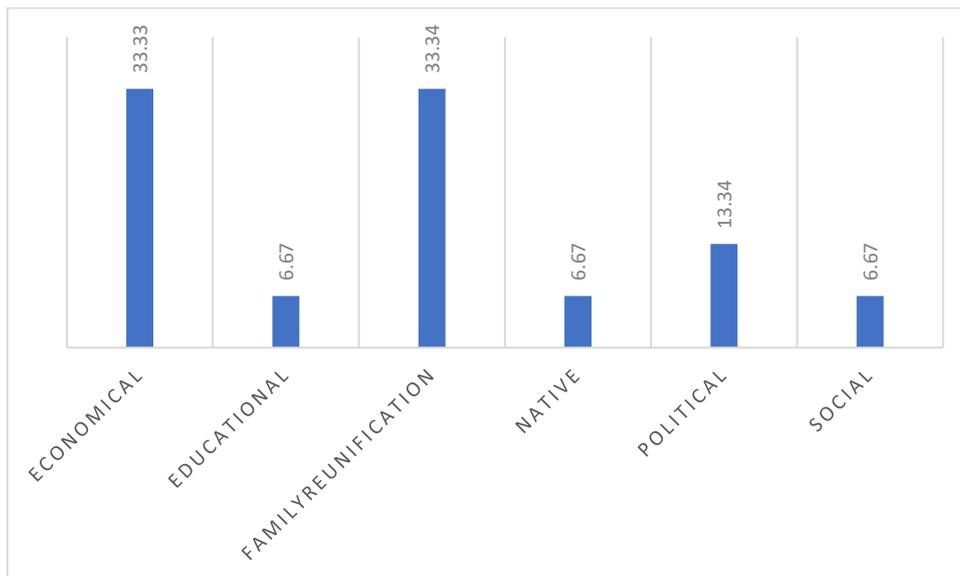
Graph 4-IV: Third generation education level

The chart above presents descriptive statistics about education. To better see the difference between the generations of the graph, generation versus education graphs were created. According to this, it was seen that the education level of the immigrants in the first generation was higher in High school level (46.7%), while the education level of the immigrants in the second generation was 25 (39.1%) immigrants at university level and 17(26.6%) immigrants

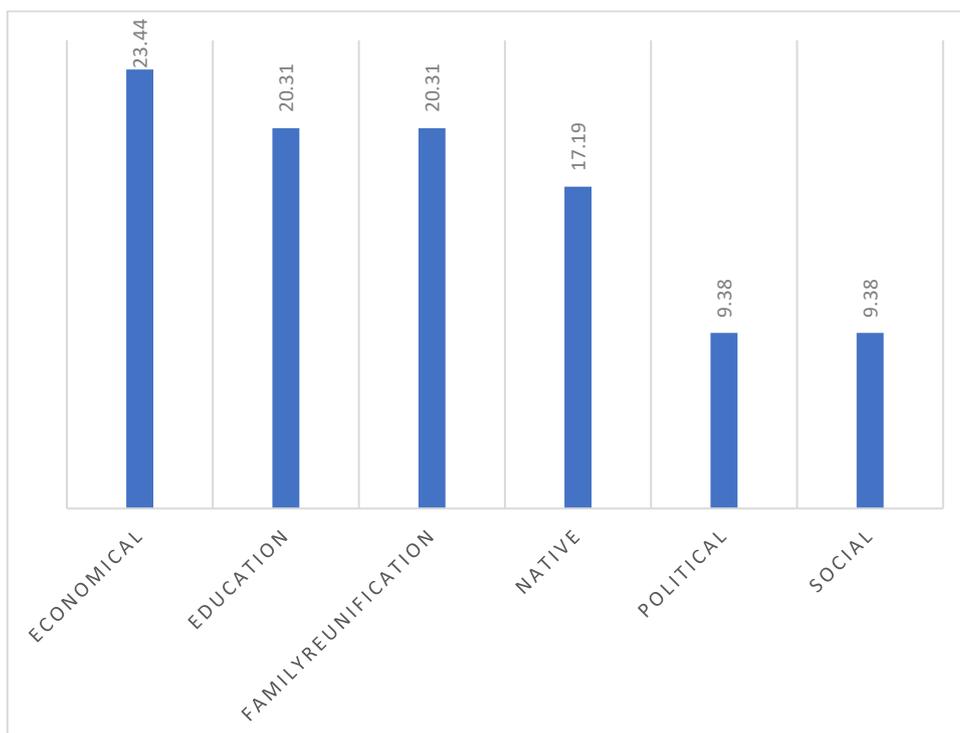
at high school level. Since the third generation covers the age range of 10 and 25, it is possible to meet with all levels of education. In this sample, we see that university and high school education levels are dominant.

4.8.2 Descriptive Findings

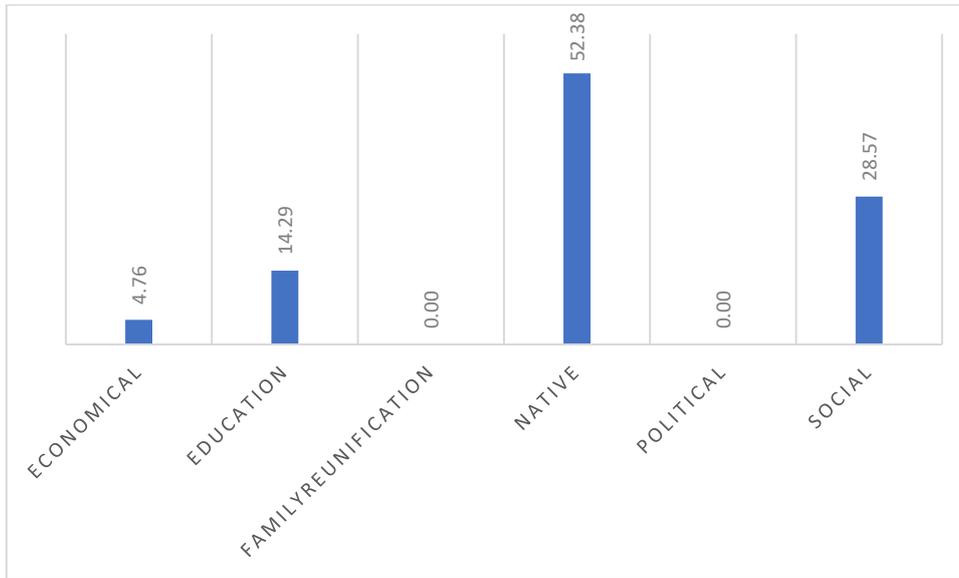
It was obtained from the answers to the questions.



Graph 4-V: First generation reason to coming Germany (percentage)

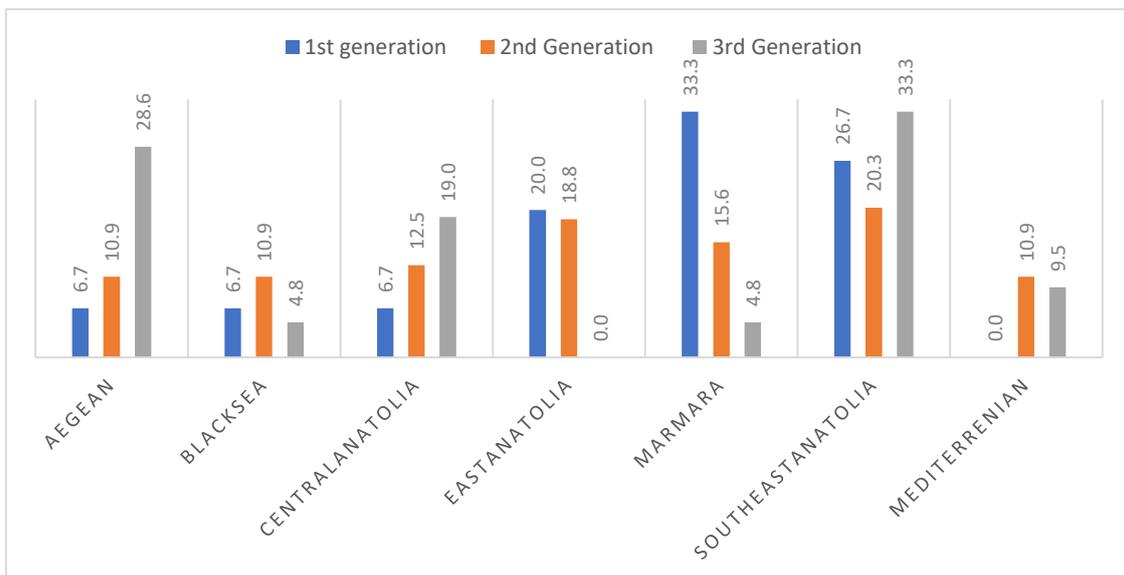


Graph 4-VI: Second generation reason to coming Germany (Percentage)



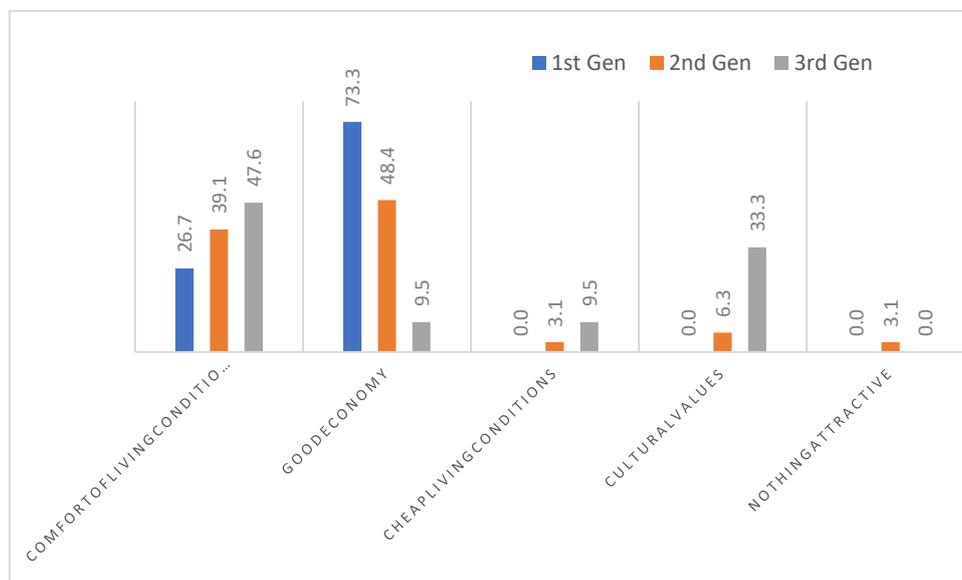
Graph 4-VII: Third generation reason to coming Germany (Percentage)

The graph 4 V,VI and VII represent statistical data on the reasons why people who came to Germany immigrated. It is seen that 33,4 % of the participants in the first generation migrated due to either economic reasons or family reunification. It is observed that the reasons for the migration of the second generation to Germany are mostly economic, family reunification, education, and social reasons. Contrary to the first and second generation, most of the individuals belonging to the third generation were born in Germany.



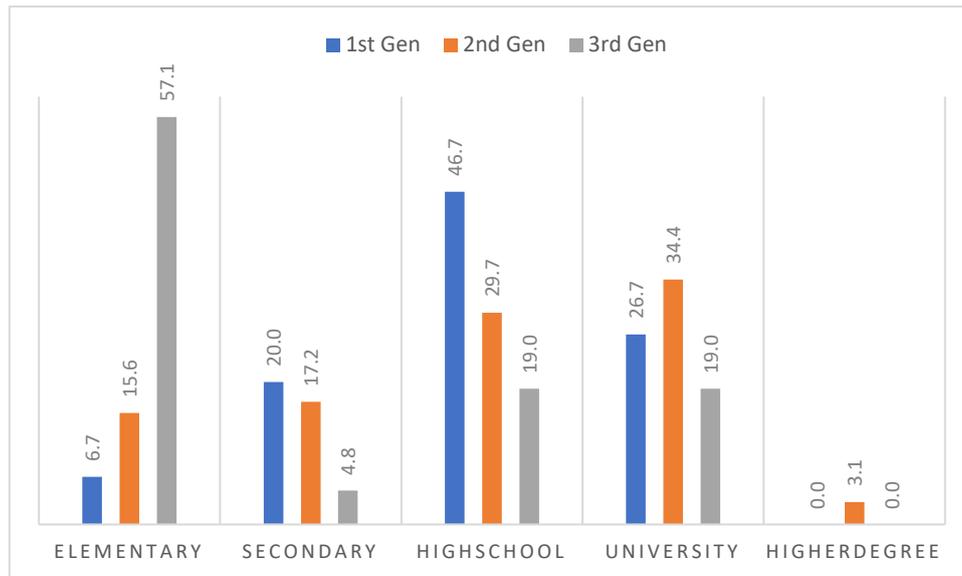
Graph 4-VIII: Region of Turkey of immigrants

In the graph 4-VIII the region of origin of both first and second generation is showed. Third generation born in Germany answer this question with regards to their family of origin. From this graph, first generation mostly immigrate from the region of Marmara (33.3%) while second generation mainly moved from the East Anatolia and Southeast Anatolia, which account for 18.8% and 20.3%, respectively. Third generation family of origin mainly came from Southeast Anatolia, Central Anatolia, and Aegean.



Graph 4-IX: Pull factors of immigrate to Germany between generations

In the graph 4-IX, we show the answers regarding the pull factor to immigrate to Germany across generations. 73.3 % of first-generation immigrants immigrate for Economic conditions whereas second-generation mentioned both economic reasons and comfortable living conditions. Comfortable living conditions and cultural values are the main pull factors for the third generation.



Graph 4-X: What is the level of education before immigrating to Germany

In the chart 4-X, there are descriptive statistics showing the education levels before immigrating to Germany. Of the first-generation respondents, 46.7% completed high school, 34.4% of second generation completed university and 57.1 % of the third generation completed elementary level Because most of the third generation born in Germany and they start their education in Germany.

4.8.3 Labour Market Findings

4.9 Statistical analysis

In order to understand the general idea on the survey, score analysis is done. Anova and t-test were applied between the groups below, and evaluations were made on whether there was a committed relationship between the groups. A significant relationship was determined when the p-value was 0.05 and below.

The hypotheses of the study were determined as follows:

Hypothesis 1

H0: There are significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of labour market integration

H1: There are not significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of labour market integration

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
LABOUR_SCORE	Female	39	1,7036	,15154	,02427
	Male	57	1,7333	,14839	,01965

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
LABOUR_SCORE	Equal variances assumed	,199	,656	-,956	94	,341	-,02974	,03110	-,09150	,03201
	Equal variances not assumed			-,952	80,656	,344	-,02974	,03123	-,09188	,03239

Table 4-II: Gender vs Labour Market Score-t-test

The table 5, describe the statistical differences between gender and labour market score. T-test p value is bigger than 0.05, this means that we reject the Hypothesis 0. We can say that there are not significant differences in the Labour Market Score between men and women.

Hypothesis 2

H0: There are significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of reason for immigrating to Germany
H1: There are not significant differences between Turkish females and males in terms of reason for immigrating to Germany

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
DESC_SCORE	Equal variances assumed	1,985	,162	,946	94	,347	,07608	,08044	-,08364	,23580
	Equal variances not assumed			,917	72,813	,362	,07608	,08293	-,08920	,24136

Group Statistics

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
DESC_SCORE	Female	39	2,6090	,42358	,06783
	Male	57	2,5329	,36022	,04771

Table 4-III: Gender vs Reason to Immigration Score-t-test

The table 6, describes the statistical differences between gender and Reason to Immigrate score. T-test p value is bigger than 0.05, this means that we reject the Hypothesis 1. We can say that there are not significant differences between the Gender and the Reason to Immigrate

Hypothesis 3

H0: There are significant differences between the Education level of Turkish in Germany and labour market integration

H1 There are not significant differences between the Education level of Turkish in Germany and labour market integration

Descriptives

LABOUR_SCORE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary	4	1,7100	,14376	,07188	1,4812	1,9388	1,60	1,92
Secondary	14	1,7200	,16153	,04317	1,6267	1,8133	1,40	2,00
High School	30	1,7787	,14583	,02663	1,7242	1,8331	1,40	2,04
University	37	1,7038	,14801	,02433	1,6544	1,7531	1,48	2,00
Higher Degree	11	1,6291	,10747	,03240	1,5569	1,7013	1,48	1,84
Total	96	1,7213	,14960	,01527	1,6909	1,7516	1,40	2,04

Table 4-IV: Descriptive result Education level versus Labour Market Score

ANOVA

LABOUR_SCORE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,204	4	,051	2,416	,054
Within Groups	1,922	91	,021		
Total	2,126	95			

Table 4-V One-way Anova result for Education level and Labour Market Score

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: LABOUR_SCORE

Bonferroni

(I) Education_Lvl	(J) Education_Lvl	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Elementary	Secondary	-,01000	,08240	1,000	-,2471	,2271
	High School	-,06867	,07736	1,000	-,2912	,1539
	University	,00622	,07649	1,000	-,2139	,2263
	Higher Degree	,08091	,08486	1,000	-,1632	,3251
Secondary	Elementary	,01000	,08240	1,000	-,2271	,2471
	High School	-,05867	,04704	1,000	-,1940	,0767
	University	,01622	,04560	1,000	-,1150	,1474
	Higher Degree	,09091	,05856	1,000	-,0776	,2594
High School	Elementary	,06867	,07736	1,000	-,1539	,2912
	Secondary	,05867	,04704	1,000	-,0767	,1940
	University	,07488	,03571	,387	-,0278	,1776
	Higher Degree	,14958*	,05123	,044	,0022	,2970
University	Elementary	-,00622	,07649	1,000	-,2263	,2139
	Secondary	-,01622	,04560	1,000	-,1474	,1150
	High School	-,07488	,03571	,387	-,1776	,0278
	Higher Degree	,07469	,04991	1,000	-,0689	,2183
Higher Degree	Elementary	-,08091	,08486	1,000	-,3251	,1632
	Secondary	-,09091	,05856	1,000	-,2594	,0776
	High School	-,14958*	,05123	,044	-,2970	-,0022
	University	-,07469	,04991	1,000	-,2183	,0689

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4-VI: Bonferroni Post Hoc Test result Education level and Labour Market Score

The tables above describe the statistical results of the education level and labour market score. In the One-way Anova result there is a significant difference between the groups. In order to understand the level of these differences Bonferroni Post Hoc test is applied. The results shows that there is a statistical difference between the Higher Degree education and High School degree.

Hypothesis 4

H0: There are significant differences between the Education level of Turkish and reason for immigration to Germany
H1: There are not significant differences between the Education

level of Turkish and reason for immigration to Germany

Descriptives

DESC_SCORE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Elementary	4	2,6250	,28868	,14434	2,1657	3,0843	2,38	2,88
Secondary	14	2,4375	,37580	,10044	2,2205	2,6545	1,75	3,13
High School	30	2,4833	,36515	,06667	2,3470	2,6197	1,88	3,38
University	37	2,6959	,41723	,06859	2,5568	2,8351	1,75	3,50
Higher Degree	11	2,4773	,28949	,08729	2,2828	2,6718	2,00	3,00
Total	96	2,5638	,38687	,03948	2,4854	2,6422	1,75	3,50

ANOVA

DESC_SCORE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1,161	4	,290	2,023	,098
Within Groups	13,058	91	,143		
Total	14,219	95			

Table 4-VII: One-way Anova result for Education level and Reason to Immigrate Score

The tables above describe the statistical results of the education level and reason to immigrate score. In the One-way Anova result the significant differences p value is bigger than 0.05. We reject the null hypothesis. There are not significant differences between the education level and the reason to immigrate score.

Hypothesis 5

H0: There are significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and labour market integration.

H1: There are not significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and labour market integration.

Descriptives

LABOUR_SCORE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
50+	15	1,7547	,18384	,04747	1,6529	1,8565	1,48	2,00
26-50	60	1,7060	,15392	,01987	1,6662	1,7458	1,40	2,04
10-25	21	1,7410	,10401	,02270	1,6936	1,7883	1,52	1,96
Total	96	1,7213	,14960	,01527	1,6909	1,7516	1,40	2,04

ANOVA

LABOUR_SCORE

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,039	2	,019	,866	,424
Within Groups	2,087	93	,022		
Total	2,126	95			

Table 4-VIII: One-way Anova result for Generation and Labour Market Score

The tables above describe the statistical results of the generation and labour market score. In the One-way Anova result the significant differences p value is bigger than 0.05. We reject the null hypothesis. There are not significant differences between the generation and labour market score.

Hypothesis 6

H0: There are significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and reason for immigration to Germany H1: There are not significant difference between the Turkish immigrants across generations and reason for immigration to Germany

Descriptives

DESC_SCORE

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
50+	15	2,7583	,36433	,09407	2,5566	2,9601	2,38	3,50
26-50	60	2,5354	,35137	,04536	2,4446	2,6262	1,75	3,38
10-25	21	2,5060	,46850	,10224	2,2927	2,7192	1,75	3,50
Total	96	2,5638	,38687	,03948	2,4854	2,6422	1,75	3,50

ANOVA

DESC_SCORE					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	,686	2	,343	2,358	,100
Within Groups	13,532	93	,146		
Total	14,219	95			

Table 4-IX: One-way Anova result for Generation and Reason to Immigrate score

The tables above describe the statistical results of the generation and reason to immigrate score. In the One-way Anova result the significant differences p value is bigger than 0.05. We reject the null hypothesis. There are not significant differences between the generation and the reason to immigrate score.

Hypothesis 7

H0: There are significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their income level in Germany

H1: There are not significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their income level in Germany

Descriptives

LabourM6

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
50+	15	1,8000	1,01419	,26186	1,2384	2,3616	1,00	4,00
26-50	60	3,1333	1,22774	,15850	2,8162	3,4505	1,00	5,00
10-25	21	3,3333	,85635	,18687	2,9435	3,7231	2,00	5,00
Total	96	2,9688	1,22649	,12518	2,7202	3,2173	1,00	5,00

ANOVA

LabourM6

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	24,906	2	12,453	9,815	,000
Within Groups	118,000	93	1,269		
Total	142,906	95			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: LabourM6

Bonferroni

(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
50+	26-50	-1,33333*	,32517	,000	-2,1261	-,5406
	10-25	-1,53333*	,38080	,000	-2,4617	-,6049
26-50	50+	1,33333*	,32517	,000	,5406	2,1261
	10-25	-,20000	,28560	1,000	-,8963	,4963
10-25	50+	1,53333*	,38080	,000	,6049	2,4617
	26-50	,20000	,28560	1,000	-,4963	,8963

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4-X: One-way Anova result for Generation and Income level

The tables above describe the statistical results of the significant differences between the generations and income levels. In the One-way Anova result there is a significant difference between the groups ($P > 0.05$). To understand the level of these differences Bonferroni Post Hoc test is applied. The results shows that first generation income level significantly different with second and the third generation. Also, second generation is significantly different with the first generation.

Hypothesis 8

H0: There are significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their job qualification
H1: : There are not significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and their job qualification

Descriptives

LabourM2

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
50+	15	2,2667	1,22280	,31573	1,5895	2,9438	1,00	4,00
26-50	60	1,5500	,85222	,11002	1,3298	1,7702	1,00	4,00
10-25	21	1,5714	,50709	,11066	1,3406	1,8023	1,00	2,00
Total	96	1,6667	,89050	,09089	1,4862	1,8471	1,00	4,00

ANOVA

LabourM2

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	6,407	2	3,204	4,322	,016
Within Groups	68,926	93	,741		
Total	75,333	95			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: LabourM2

Bonferroni

(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
50+	26-50	,71667*	,24852	,015	,1108	1,3226
	10-25	,69524	,29104	,057	-,0143	1,4048
26-50	50+	-,71667*	,24852	,015	-1,3226	-,1108
	10-25	-,02143	,21828	1,000	-,5536	,5107
10-25	50+	-,69524	,29104	,057	-1,4048	,0143
	26-50	,02143	,21828	1,000	-,5107	,5536

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4-XI: One-way Anova result for Generation and Qualification of the job

The tables above describe the statistical results of the significant differences between the generations and qualification of the job. In the One-way Anova result there is a significant difference between the groups ($P > 0.05$). To understand the level of these differences Bonferroni Post Hoc test is applied. The results shows that first generation qualification of the job significantly different with second generation.

Hypothesis 9

H0 There are significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and pull factor of Germany. H1: There are significant differences between the Turkish immigrants across generations and pull factor of Germany.

Descriptives

Desc1

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
50+	15	4,5333	,63994	,16523	4,1789	4,8877	3,00	5,00
26-50	60	3,7500	1,78150	,22999	3,2898	4,2102	1,00	6,00
10-25	21	2,4286	1,88604	,41157	1,5701	3,2871	1,00	6,00
Total	96	3,5833	1,79863	,18357	3,2189	3,9478	1,00	6,00

ANOVA

Desc1

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	43,207	2	21,604	7,607	,001
Within Groups	264,126	93	2,840		
Total	307,333	95			

Multiple Comparisons

Dependent Variable: Desc1

Bonferroni

(I) Generation	(J) Generation	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
50+	26-50	,78333	,48649	,332	-,4028	1,9694
	10-25	2,10476*	,56972	,001	,7158	3,4938
26-50	50+	-,78333	,48649	,332	-1,9694	,4028
	10-25	1,32143*	,42729	,008	,2797	2,3632
10-25	50+	-2,10476*	,56972	,001	-3,4938	-,7158
	26-50	-1,32143*	,42729	,008	-2,3632	-,2797

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Table 4-XII: One-way Anova result for Generation and Pull Factor of Germany

The tables above describe the statistical results of the significant differences between the generations and pull factor of Germany. In the One-way Anova result there is a significant difference between the groups ($P > 0.05$). In order to understand the level of these differences Bonferroni Post Hoc test is applied. The results shows that third generation pull factor different with first and second generation.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

Even if the migration story of Turks to Germany started before 1960, the migration has continued, evolving since then with the labour agreement made. Studies have shown that there are currently more than 3 million Turks in Germany.

In this study, it was evaluated and analysed in the light of the findings obtained because of the survey conducted with 100 people. In the study, when the job information of the participants was requested, retired and housewife surveyors were not included in the evaluation. They are grouped into generations according to age information. The first generation of the respondents aged 50 and over, the second generation between the ages of 26-50 and the third generation between the ages of 25-10. In the first generation, 66,7% are men, 33,3% are women, in the second generation 60,6% are men and 39,4% are women, and in the third generation, 38,1 % are men and 61,9% are women. When the education levels are examined, it is observed that the majority of the first generation are high school graduates, while the second generation is university and high school graduates. What makes the third generation different is that it is observed that there are participants from all levels at the education level, as they are immigrants who were born in Germany and started their education there and went to Germany for educational purposes. It can be said that the first generation immigrating from Turkey to Germany is mostly for Economic (33.34%) and Family Reunification (33.34%). It has been observed that the second generation who migrated to Germany were born in Economic Education Family Reunification and were born in Germany (23.44%, 20.31%, 20.31%, 17.19%). It is seen that the majority (52.38%) of the Third-Generation participants were born in Germany. Considering the regions where the

participants migrated from Turkey, it is seen that the majority of the first generation is Marmara (33.34%) and Eastern Anatolia (26.7%). The regions from which the second generation migrated from Turkey are evenly distributed, while the third generation mostly consists of the Eastern Anatolian Region (33.3%), the Aegean Region (28.6%) and the Central Anatolian Region (19.0%).

Good economic conditions, favourable living conditions can be said to be effective in the reasons for the Turks who immigrated to Germany to migrate to their places of residence.

In the survey study, statistical significance was checked to evaluate the results. One-way Anova test and T-test were applied to look for significant difference in Gender category. Bonferroni Post-Hoc test was used to look at the between-group level of the results that were found to be significant. The Bonferroni test was used for the results that were thought to have a number difference between the groups and to have equal variances. Accordingly, descriptive findings and questions about labour migration were scored, and the significance level of demographic information was checked. Secondly, the significant difference between the Income Level, Job Quality and Germany's pull factor, and the generations were examined.

In the Labour Market Score analysis, there is a significant difference between education levels. The differences in the answers given by the immigrants at the high school education and graduate education levels in the Market Analysis are seen. This difference is mostly made up of second and third generation immigrants.

When a more detailed analysis is made, it is observed that the income level creates a serious difference between generations. There are differences between income levels in all three generations. Based on the answers given to the survey questions, these differences made a difference as they held professions such as driver and worker in the first generation. While a

different income level is seen in the second generation because they work in qualified jobs and some people have established their own businesses, the difference in the third generation is due to the difference in student income levels.

Statistical significance was observed in the analysis made to understand whether the work done was qualified or not. This difference was observed especially between the first and second generation. While it was concluded that the first generation who came as worker immigrants worked in unqualified jobs, it was seen that the second-generation immigrants were generally immigrants with a certain education level and working in more qualified jobs.

Finally, in the pull factor statistical analysis of Germany, which is one of the questions of the survey study, it was seen that third-generation immigrants and Germans with an immigrant story chose Germany as comfort of living conditions and Cultural values. While the first- and second-generation immigrants find the economic and educational reasons more attractive, it is seen that they give importance to the cultural values and comfortable living conditions of the third generation.

In this study, specific questions were asked under the titles of demographic, descriptive of the causes of migration and labour market questions. In line with the answers received, it is seen that the first and second generations go through longer and more arduous ways and are more involved in the workforce to a certain level of adaptation. In particular, it is seen that the second-generation income level and business integration are more. However, the fact that the majority of the third generation was born in Germany, it is concluded that they have been in Germany by increasing their education level and working in more qualified jobs, they have adapted more easily than the first and second generations, and they have increased and will increase their job fields.

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