Evaluation of Immigration from Africa to Türkiye and Its Economic Impacts: Case Study of West African Communities Living in Türkiye

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Master's Thesis

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ESKİŞEHİR OSMANGAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

Mamadu Aliu SO tarafından hazırlanan **Evaluation of Immigration from Africa to Türkiye and Its Economic Impacts: Case Study of West African Communities Living in Türkiye** başlıklı bu çalışma 3.9.2024 tarihinde Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Lisansüstü Eğitim ve Öğretim Yönetmeliğinin ilgili maddesi uyarınca yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda başarılı bulunarak, jürimiz tarafından İktisat Anabilim Dalında Yüksek Lisans tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYGUNLUK BEYANNAMESİ

Bu tezin Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi Bilimsel Araştırma ve Yayın Etiği Yönergesi hükümlerine göre hazırlandığını; bana ait, özgün bir çalışma olduğunu; çalışmanın hazırlık, veri toplama, analiz ve bilgilerin sunumu aşamalarında bilimsel etik ilke ve kurallara uygun davrandığımı; bu çalışma kapsamında elde edilen tüm veri ve bilgiler için kaynak gösterdiğimi ve bu kaynaklara kaynakçada yer verdiğimi; bu çalışmanın Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi tarafından kullanılan bilimsel intihal tespit programıyla taranmasını kabul ettiğimi ve hiçbir şekilde intihal içermediğini beyan ederim. Yaptığım bu beyana aykırı bir durumun saptanması halinde ortaya çıkacak tüm ahlaki ve hukuki sonuçlara razı olduğumu bildiririm.

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İmza

ÖZ

AFRİKA'DAN TÜRKİYE'YE GÖÇÜN VE EKONOMİK ETKİLERİNİN DEĞERLENDİRİLMESİ: TÜRKİYE'DE YAŞAYAN BATI AFRİKALI TOPLULUKLAR ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

SO, Mamadu Aliu

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Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Esin KILIÇ

Bu çalışmanın temel amacı, Batı Afrika toplumunun Türkiye'ye yönelik göç hareketlerinin altında yatan nedenleri ve sonuçta ortaya çıkan etkileri araştırmak ve bu hareketlerin Türkiye'nin ekonomik faaliyetleri üzerindeki etkilerini analiz etmektir. Çalışma, ekonomik kalkınmanın göç hareketleri üzerindeki en büyük etken olduğunu kabul ederek, göç akımları ve ekonomik kalkınma arasındaki bağlantıları aydınlatmayı amaçlamaktadır. Araştırma dört temel bölümden oluşmaktadır: ilk bölümde göçün belirleyicileri mikro ve makroekonomik teorik çerçeveler üzerinden değerlendirilmekte; ikinci bölümde göç faktörlerini ortaya çıkarmak için Sürdürülebilir Kalkınma Hedefleri (SKH) göstergeleri kullanılarak Batı Afrika ülkeleri ile Türkiye arasında karşılaştırmalı bir analiz yapılmakta; üçüncü bölümde Batı Afrika ülkeleri başta olmak üzere Afrika ile Türkiye arasındaki göç akımlarının özelliklerine odaklanan kapsamlı bir literatür taraması yapılmakta; son bölümde ise birincil kaynak olarak anket verileri kullanılarak göçü etkileyen ve teşvik eden faktörler incelenmektedir. Anket sonuçları, ekonomik ve siyasi motivasyonların baskın olduğunu ve katılımcıların çoğunun Türkiye'ye göç etmelerinin başlıca nedenleri olarak sınırlı istihdam ve eğitim fırsatlarını gösterdiğini ortaya koymaktadır. Ayrıca çalışma, göçün göçmenler ve göçmen olmayanlar arasında kurulan ağlar tarafından kolaylaştırıldığını ve bu ağların yardım sürecinde ve ev sahibi ülkedeki ekonomik ve sosyal entegrasyonda önemli bir rol oynadığını tespit etmektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Göç, Batı Afrika, Türkiye, Nüfus Hareketliliği, SKH Göstergeleri.

ABSTRACT

EVALUATION OF IMMIGRATION FROM AFRICA TO TÜRKİYE AND ITS ECONOMIC IMPACTS: CASE STUDY OF WEST AFRICAN COMMUNITIES LIVING IN TÜRKİYE

SO, Mamadu Aliu

Master's Degree, 2024

Department of Economics

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Esin KILIÇ

In this study, the primary aim is to conduct an exploratory investigation into the underlying causes and consequent effects of migratory movements of west African community to Türkiye, and to analyse the impacts of these movements on Türkiye's economic activities. The study seeks to elucidate the connections between migration flows and economic development, recognizing that the economic development is the greatest influencer on migratory movement. The research is structured in four key sections: the first section evaluates migration determinants through microeconomic and macroeconomic theoretical frameworks; the second section undertakes a comparative analysis between West African countries and Türkiye, utilizing Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators to uncover migration factors; The third section involves a comprehensive literature review focusing on the characteristics of migratory flows between Africa, with particular emphasis on West African countries, and Türkiye; and the final section examines the factors influencing and encouraging migration, using survey data as the primary source. Survey results indicate that economic and political motivations are predominant, with a majority of respondents citing limited employment and educational opportunities as the primary reasons for their migration to Türkiye. Additionally, the study identifies that migration is facilitated by networks formed between migrants and non-migrants, which play a crucial role in the aid process and in the economic and social integration within the host country.

Keywords: Migration, West Africa, Türkiye, Population Mobility, SDG Indicators.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation, in particular, to the Palestinian people who have been unjustly displaced from their homes, as well as to the Congolese and Sudanese refugees who have been forcibly uprooted due to armed conflict. May Allah grant paradise to all those who have been unjustly killed.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADNKS	Address Based Population Registration System (for Turkish Republic)
AKS	Address Registration System (for Turkish Republic)
ATUWA	Organization of trade Unions of West Africa
ECOWAS	Economic Community of West African States
ICMPD	International Centre for Migration Policy Development
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LIC	Low-Income Countries
LMIC	Low- and Mid--Income Countries
OSBUK	Organized Industrial Zones Supreme Organization (For Turkish)
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SSA	Sub-Saharan Africa
TUIK	Turkish Statistical Institute
UN	United Nations

INTRODUCTION

The phenomenon of immigration, while formally conceptualized in the post-Industrial Revolution era, is believed to have origins tracing back to the early stages of human existence, displaying an incremental increase over millennia. Following the Industrial Revolution in the 18th century, this process was markedly intensified, driven by a substantial rural exodus, during which many urban centers experienced rapid and often chaotic growth. This urbanization reflected a significant migration from rural (typically agrarian) areas to urban centers, a trend that has persisted and evolved. By the 21st century, migration continues to be predominantly characterized by population displacement, influenced by various factors including humanitarian interventions, disparities in economic development across regions, political instability, and a range of social and cultural dynamics.

The mid-20th century witnessed the gradual disintegration of the Western colonial empire in Africa, a development that imposed significant challenges on West African nations as they sought to establish new republican systems. This period of transition necessitated comprehensive political, social, and economic reorganization. Despite various political reform efforts aimed at addressing the damage and losses incurred during the liberation struggles, there was a profound inability among political leaders to effectively structure a functional system in the post-independence era. Consequently, these administrative failures, coupled with persistent political instability, have series conditions of extreme poverty throughout the region. Although the post-colonial states of West Africa share similar political, economic, and social traits, some nations, such as Senegal, Ghana, and Cabo Verde, are making efforts to transcend this adverse legacy.

The pervasive political and economic instability in West Africa has compelled thousands of individuals, including women and children, to immigrate from their countries of origin to other regions, particularly western countries, in pursuit of improved living conditions. Historically, the African continent has been recognized as a significant source of labour migration, with a substantial proportion of its youth actively seeking opportunities to emigrate.

Türkiye is traditionally acknowledged as a nation with a profound history of migration, tracing back to the Ottoman Empire and continuing into the modern era,

notably intensified by the recent influx of Syrian refugees due to the Syrian conflict. This migration legacy is deeply intertwined with Türkiye's strategic geographical location and its diverse cultural heritage. Over the past twenty-five years, Türkiye has cultivated strong bilateral relations with sub-Saharan African nations, particularly those in West Africa. This diplomatic engagement has consequently facilitated migratory flows between Turkey and various African countries.

The factors, causes, and implications of both national and international immigration have long been central themes in numerous academic investigations and studies. The concept of immigration has been examined, researched, and analyzed through various lenses, including sociological, cultural, economic, and political perspectives. This research, however, is specifically conducted from an economic standpoint, focusing on the analysis of a range of economic theories.

The research undertaken at the master's level involved a comprehensive review of various micro and macroeconomic theories, as well as other contributions within the economic context related to national and international immigration. This study primarily focused on the inter-relationships between migratory movements and economic development for both the countries of origin and the host countries. The central aim of this research was to explore the impact of immigrants on economic development in destination countries, examining their roles, the process of social and cultural integration, and the social networks they establish before, during, or after migration. Additionally, the study set out to achieve further objectives, including presenting an exploratory analysis of international immigration, with particular emphasis on African immigration to Türkiye.

In the course of researching the mobility of African populations that form the diaspora across various destination countries, and its economic impact on these nations—specifically focusing on the West African community residing in Türkiye—it became evident that examining the role of West African governments is of paramount importance. This investigation aims to assess how these governments can implement and facilitate policies that foster economic cooperation and development. Such policies would create new opportunities and favourable conditions to encourage the return of West African communities to their home countries. The successful implementation of these strategies could potentially lead to the recovery and

enhancement of the social and human capital that has been affected by migratory movements.

However, another significant observation that emerged during the literature review and from the results obtained is that most migration research concerning African migrants, specifically those from sub-Saharan Africa, has predominantly focused on their movement to Western countries, particularly in Europe and America. There is a noticeable lack of studies examining the substantial migratory movement of Africans to Türkiye, which aims to uncover the underlying factors driving this trend. This scarcity of research posed challenges in evaluating the existing literature for our dissertation (thesis).

The limited research and analysis on the expanding West African community in Türkiye prompted us to select this topic for our dissertation (thesis). Several factors contributed to this decision, including the increased enforcement of regulations on illegal immigrants across various municipalities in Türkiye, the high rejection rates of residence applications and renewals, the integration of West African immigrants into the informal labour market, and the significant number of self-employed West African immigrants in Türkiye. These dynamics presented a valuable research opportunity. Although these reasons strongly motivated our topic selection, they also introduced challenges in structuring the methodology necessary to advance the research.

This research was conducted utilizing a dual-method approach. The initial method involved the extraction of data from the World Bank databases and the International Labour Organization (ILO). Also, indicator’s data from the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) were selectively analysed as part of this phase. The second method entailed conducting a survey, which was structured into two sections. The first section included demographic questions, while the second focused on employment status, both in the respondents' countries of origin and their current location (specifically Türkiye). The survey was prepared via Google Forms and distributed to participants. The resulting data was subjected to a descriptive analysis, which was interpreted in the context of economic immigration theories. For the execution of this descriptive analysis, two (2) tools were used: Microsoft Excel and SPSS statistical software.

The structure of our research begins with an introduction, followed by four chapters, each intricately aligned with the research objectives. These chapters are designed to systematically address and illustrate the core aims of our study.

Chapter One - This chapter discusses migration theories from economic perspectives, among which we differentiate microeconomic theories such as: classical theory, neo-classical theory, push-pull theory and human capital theory; macroeconomic theories: labour. Market segmentation, informal economy, structures of capitalism and world systems theories, migration networks theory and social networks approaches.

Chapter Two - This chapter analyses the migratory flows from West African countries to Türkiye and the factors that led to this movement, linking them to the push-pull theory. The analysis was based on the results obtained from the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicator data.

Chapter Three - In this chapter, a comprehensive literature review was conducted, with the aim of highlighting the evidence presented by other scholars. However, it is important to note that none of the studies provide empirical evidence regarding migratory movements between Africa and Türkiye. The review was instead grounded in studies that separately examine the migratory characteristics of Türkiye and Africa, to develop a deeper understanding of the factors and outcomes that might be relevant in any future empirical analysis.

Chapter Four - This chapter presents an analysis of the survey results, which are displayed in tables and figures to facilitate descriptive analysis, followed by a discussion of the findings. The results identify the factors motivating West Africans to migrate to Türkiye, the conditions and challenges they encounter in their countries of origin, the reasons behind their choice of Turkey as a destination, and their employment statuses in Türkiye. These findings serve as the case study for our research.

Conclusion - in this part of our work we try to contextualise the subject of our thesis, summarising the problem of our work and identifying whether there is a correlation between immigration and economic development. On the other hand, whether economic development depends on immigration or whether immigration depends on migratory development.

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL THEORIES OF MIGRATION: MICRO AND MACROECONOMICS PERSPECTIVES

In economic science, migratory movements are examined from two main perspectives: microeconomics and macroeconomics. The microeconomic perspective investigates the behaviour of individual actors within a specific region or economy to predict their responses under conditions of scarcity. This analysis focuses on the interactions between consumers and producers within the economy. On the other hand, the macroeconomic perspective, which is more comprehensive, analyses the behaviour and activities of the entire economy. It gathers data from business dynamics to provide insights into key indicators such as unemployment rates, global price levels, and the total national income (Castanho, 2013: 33).

In this chapter, different theories relating to the migratory movement, its causes and effects are analysed, considering the economic perspectives mentioned above. In the context of microeconomic analyses, the theory of the classical school, the neoclassical theory (Equilibrium), the theory of attraction and repulsion (push-pull), the theory of human capital and other theories are emphasized. In the context of macroeconomic analyses, the segmentation of the labour market (dual), the informal economy, the structures of capitalism theories, the theory of the world system (migratory systems) and the theory of migratory networks are analysed. In addition, other contributions are included, such as social networks, cumulative causation theory and institutional theory, which can help with perceptions of the immigration phenomenon.

In the context of microeconomics, as mentioned above, there have been various contributions to the analysis of migration over time, including the classical school, the neo classical school, theory of push-pull and migration laws, the theory of human capital and other theoretical perspectives.

1.1.1. The Classical School Theory

The classical school emerged in 1750 and remained as the only school of economic thought until 1800. Its logic focuses on prices and wages, which, due to their flexibility, eliminate excesses in supply and demand and stabilize employment and output (Küçükkalay, 2019: 291). The price mechanism guarantees the most efficient

use of resources and production without excessive profits. According to this perspective, macroeconomic policy is not considered a policy in determining the reduction of unemployment and the stabilization of economic growth.

The release of Adam Smith's book “The Wealth of Nations” in 1776 is usually considered the beginning of economic science (Küçükkalay, 2019: 261), although there is a different opinion on the origin, evolution, and nature of economic science. A perspective that considers the impossibility to identify the exact time of the beginnings of economic science, arguing that science was formed with continuous evolution and with the accumulation of more comprehensive and true knowledge, overcoming challenges and controversies, which ultimately contributed to its formation as a single true economic science (Corazza, 2009: 107).

Based on ideologies oriented at individual interest and not at governmental intervention (invisible hand), classical economics pointed out that the fundamental source of value is the labour factor. Government interference in the economy could only occur in the absence of a market (market failures) or free competition.

The classical economics remained predominant until the second quarter of the twentieth century, when the Keynesian model appeared, which contradicted the classical economics' principles. John Maynard Keynes, the idealist of Keynesian thought “*In the long run, we are al dead*”, introduced a point that drew the attention of many economists, the point that would give rise to macroeconomic theory (Castanho, 2013: 35).

Keynes opposed the theory and principles of the classical school since it was unable to alleviate the economic crisis that began in 1929, commonly known as the Great Depression (Fisunoğlu & Köksel Tan, 2009: 33).

> This essay is written in the classical tradition, making the classical assumption, and asking the classical question. The classics, from Smith to Marx, all assumed, or argued, that an unlimited supply of labour was available at subsistence wages. They then enquired how production grows through time. They found the answer in capital accumulation, which they explained in terms of their analysis of the distribution of

> income. Classical systems stem thus determined simultaneously income distribution and income growth, with the relative prices of commodities as a minor bye-product. (Lewis, 1954: 139)

In his seminal 1954 article, "Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour" Lewis introduced a classical model to explain immigration, positioning himself as one of the pioneering authors in this field. In his article, Lewis highlighted two primary sectors:

- Subsistence (rural sector)
- Capitalist (urban sector)

In his dualistic model, Lewis describes the 'subsistence' sector as primarily consisting of rural and agricultural activities, while the 'capitalist' sector includes the industrialized and urban areas of society. Although Lewis did not explicitly define the subsistence sector, it is understood to consist of individuals earning subsistence wages (Gollin, 2014: 74). The model assumes that in the subsistence sector, surplus labour is compensated with wages equal to the marginal product of labour (MPL = 0). Conversely, in the capitalist sector, surplus labour earns wages that exceed the marginal product of labour (MPL > 0), making this sector particularly attractive for an unlimited supply of labour.

However, the wage cannot be equal to zero, it is usually determined above the marginal product of labour so that the average product of labour provides enough for workers in the agricultural sector and those who are on their livelihood. In the same article, Lewis attributes immigration to the wage disparity between the capitalist sector (where wages are higher) and the subsistence sector (Lewis, 1954: 410). He asserts that the wage rate in urban areas is roughly 30% higher than in rural areas, and labour is relatively scarce in urban areas compared to rural ones (Akyıldız, 2016: 138).

Thus, the capitalist sector “urban area” continues the increase in capital accumulation by pulling along the excess labour existing in the subsistence sector “rural area” (Akyıldız, 2016: 138). The deceleration in capital accumulation leads to both internal and external migration, although various authors identify different primary causes for immigration. For Lewis, however, the principal driver of immigration is the wage gap between the capitalist and subsistence sectors.

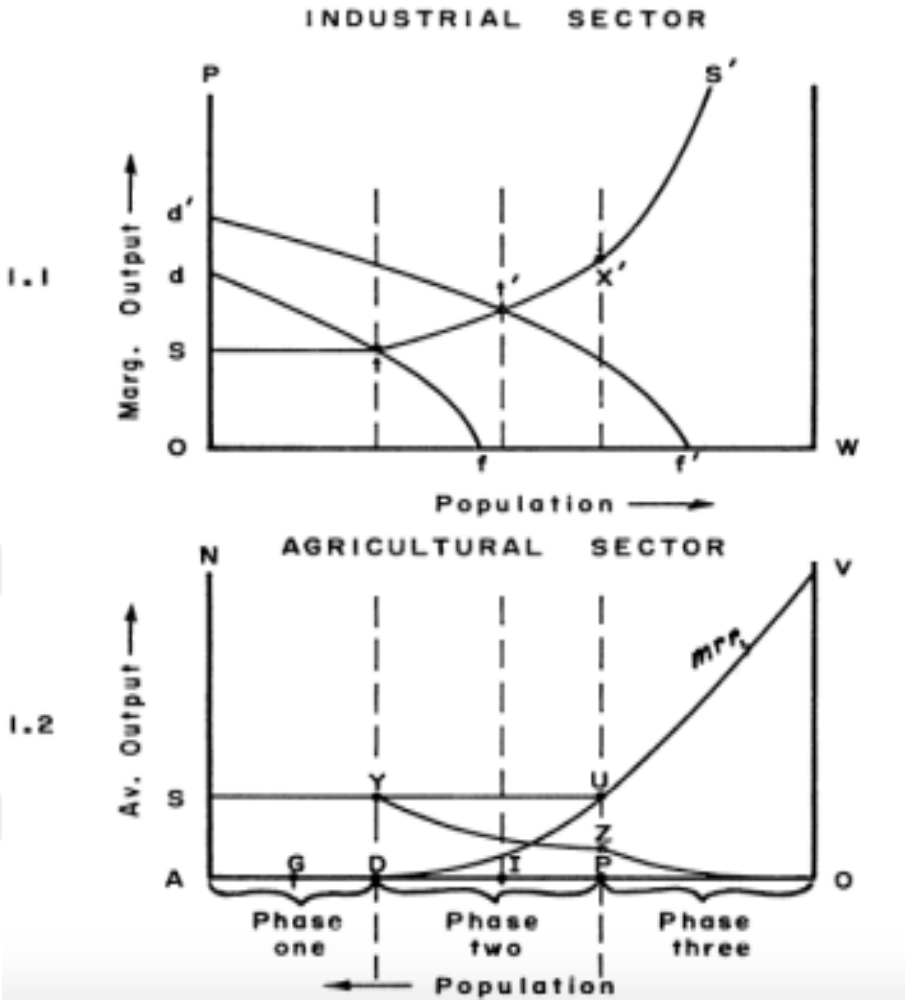
While the model effectively described migration movements between rural and urban areas, it overlooked the potential for unemployment in metropolitan regions. Various perspectives have since emerged, critiquing and expanding upon Lewis's views and assessments of immigration.

Ranis and Fei (1961) strongly criticized Lewis for neglecting the agricultural sector in his model. In response, Gustav Ranis and John C. H. Fei developed a model that emphasized the crucial role of agriculture in the growth and expansion of the industrial sector. They argued that the industrial sector's growth rate is bolstered by the surplus generated in the agricultural sector and the profits accumulated in the industrial sector (Ranis & Fei, 1961: 534).

In the Figure 1, the horizontal axis, OW, represents industrial labour measurement and the vertical axis, OP, represents marginal physical productivity (MPP). The labour force demand curve (which is identical to MPP curve), *dtf*, together with the labour force supply curve, *SS′* marks the total employment of labour force in the industrial sector and prior to the shifts in the MMP, the equilibrium curve is observed at *St′*. As is shown in the graph, since the MPP curve is subject to the size of the stock of capital and labour, an increase in these two factors can cause the MPP curve to move to the right *d′t′f′* (Ranis & Fei, 1961: 536). Ranis and Fei's main point of research is the reference to the unlimited labour supply curve in Lewis' article, which led them to focus their research on the subsistence sector.

Figure 1

The Ranis-Fei "Interpretation of Lewis Model"



Source: Ranis and Fei (1961: 535).

Portes (1995) challenged the neo-classical perspective for overlooking social factors in the economic analysis of migration. He argued that immigrants should be viewed not as isolated individuals but as members of social groups that guide their socio-economic mobility. He expanded his ideas to include the influence of central areas on peripheral ones, intermediary groups, ethnic communities, and the informal economy. Portes emphasized that individuals make rational decisions by considering not only economic factors but also the expectations of their families and social groups.

The effect on the perception of rational attitudes on the decision to migrate, and the process of integration of the migrant into the society of the country or place of destination, began to be included in the influence of social relations and not as a simply particular decision. Taking these points to a conclusion, Portes (1995) himself directed

his questionnaire to the classical perspective linked to the points of origin of immigration and economic integration of the immigrants themselves.

In their 1985 article "The New Economics of Labour Migration," Stark and Bloom posited that the decision to migrate is not made by an individual alone, but rather collectively by groups or units such as families. They argued that people collaborate in the decision-making process, aiming not only to maximize their expected income but also to minimize various constraints within the labour market of the destination country.

In understanding this content, Stark and Bloom (1985) dictated a sentence that clearly demonstrated their position on the collective decision of immigration. The sentence reads as follows: "*just as it is clear that neither a brick nor a bottle of wine can decide to move between markets, so should it be equally clear that a migrant is not necessarily the decision-making entity responsible for his or her migration. Migration decisions are often made jointly by the migrant and by some group of non-migrants*" (Stark & Bloom, 1985: 174). The costs incurred in the immigration process and the returns are generally shared, due to an implicit agreement between both parties (Stark & Bloom, 1985: 174).

Likewise, Massey (1999) also revealed his idea by pointing out the limitations of classical theory. According to him, the main focus of this analysis should be on families or on production and consumption, but not exactly on the individual. The variety of incomes is not the necessary factor that would lead migrants to leave their countries of origin and migrate to another country, as they consider various incentives to reduce risks, because there is always a connection between the migrant and the non-migrant. This connection between the migrant and non-migrant helps to reduce the costs and risks of immigration (Massey et al., 1994: 734). Often, changes in the political regime and some government policies can cause changes in the country's economy, these changes directly affect the distribution of income, creating major influences on international migration (Massey, 1999: 306).

In our examination of various classical school theories on migration, as advocated by authors like Lewis (1954), we identified numerous factors driving migratory movements. These include a surplus of labour in the subsistence sector

drawn to the capitalist sector through its fundamental mechanisms, climate change, and the influences of social or familial groups.

Theories on the dynamics of migratory movements, despite being empirically based, are more connected and associated with the reality of migratory movements recorded in the 1950s and 1960s. Over the years, the dynamics of migratory movements have become more variable with a socio-economic connection between the country of origin and the host country. Scenarios that allow us to proceed with various investigations that incorporate fresh concepts to expand the theory.

1.1.2. The Neo-Classical (Equilibrium) School Theory

The neo-classical theory of immigration, similar to other economic theories, delves into explaining migration patterns by concentrating on the fundamental economic principles of supply and demand This theory emphasizes the rational behaviour of individuals as they assess the costs and benefits associated with their decision to migrate, aiming for improved living conditions and personal utility.

According to Sjaastad (1962), migrants are rational beings capable of evaluating their preferences in detail and making rational balances between alternatives, focusing on maximizing the utility of their decisions and choices. In other, more specific words, the decisions made by migrants are the result of calculations of the costs and benefits that provide an expectation of income and a positive return - in most cases this is a monetary issue - obtained from migration. The places of destination will be chosen on the basis of the individual's own ability, giving importance to their personal capabilities, and on the other hand, the rational calculation that allows them to consider the monetary returns and costs linked to their displacements (Santos et al., 2010: 7).

According to Sasaki and Assis (2000), neo-classical economists formulated their theories of international migration based on the wage disparities between countries. They supported their arguments by stating that the neo-classical model attributes a migrant's success to various human capital factors, including education level, work experience, language proficiency in the host country, and extended residence in the destination country (Sasaki & Assis, 2000: 6).

Microeconomic activities are expanding everywhere in the host countries, helping the economy to pulsate remarkably. In these host countries, the labour markets

stimulated/attracted migratory movements in combination with the logic proposed by the general theory of employment (Castanho, 2013: 38). The members of this economic school argued for no government intervention in the economy, claiming that the economy regenerates only with the free functioning and dynamics of the market, meaning that the economy will return to equilibrium on its own without any government policy "invisible hand" (Castanho, 2013: 39).

The neo-classical authors underlined that the reason for migration is the difference in labour income between markets. Some models have been developed to emphasize the basic ideology of this theory, one of the most basic models to explain the theory was developed in the work of Lewis (1954) and Harris and Todaro (1970) claiming that migration is the outcome of the excess of labour in the host countries (Kurekova, 2011: 5). All these studies have shown with evidence that the neo-classical approach focused on wages, based on the assumption of full employment and migratory movements.

The Harris-Todaro migration law has been used as the starting point for most studies in the field of labour migration. It is a neo-classical model in which international migration is forced by different causes, including geographical and labour differences between the two regions (Parikh & Leuvensteijn, 2002: 3).

However, on the basis of the centralization of this theory, Harris and Todaro (1970) put forward different arguments that presuppose full employment, considering not only the wage gap as the sole reason for attracting migratory movement, but also the excess of employment rates and ease of integration of immigrants into groups of workers in the host/destination country. According to them, there must be at least one of these reasons between the two specified for migratory movements to occur. Furthermore, the theory points out that groups or family members with extreme poverty use migration as a source to diversify their income and reduce the risks of poverty (Odhiambo, 2022: 184). Thus, the wages earned in the host country are sent to the country of origin in order to support the family's basic needs. The imbalance of remittances between the country of origin and the country of destination means that each migrant is seen as an important resource for the family's income, and the expectation is often so high that the migrants themselves feel a total obligation.

1.1.3. The Migration Laws and Push-Pull Theory

In the penultimate decade of the 19th century, the geographer and cartographer Ernest George Ravenstein published two articles entitled “Law of Migration” (Corbett, 2003: 1). His first article was published in *the Journal of the Statistical Society in England* in 1885 and the second was published in 1889 in *the Journal of the Royal Statistical Society* (Corbett, 2003).

Figure 2

Currents of Migration Map Designed by Ravenstein



Source: Corbett (2003)

Figure 2 illustrates the Migration Currents Map developed by Ravenstein in 1885. The push and pull model indicate that the primary factor influencing migrants' decisions is their personal aspiration to achieve better economic conditions. This decision is based on comparing available information about living conditions in their home country with potential conditions in the host country, typically focusing on salary and economic factors.

Ravenstein (1885) attempted to utilize data from the 1871 and 1881 censuses (Corbett, 2003) to advance his theory on internal and international migration patterns, providing a comprehensive overview of individual movements. His study incorporated various factors such as economic status, gender, technology, distance, and others. Ravenstein posited in his research that economic factors between regions were the primary drivers of migratory movements. These insights prompted him to critically analyse migration theories, including the push and pull model.

The study focused only on information collected in its survey in the United Kingdom, on the other hand, it formalized its observations in seven laws, some of them are covered so much information that opened the possibility of creating other laws. The following are Ravenstein's original laws in numerical order:

1. The majority of migrants move to short-distance regions and towards the center with strong industrial and commercial activity, which absorbs the migrants.
2. As the migrants move towards the absorption centers, they leave an open "gap" in the "rural" agricultural sector which is also filled by migrants from the more remote district.
3. The process of dispersal is the reverse of absorption, with similar characteristics.
4. Each migratory current produces a counter-current of compensation.
5. Migrants who move long distances prefer to move to the major centers of commerce and industry.
6. Those born in the centers are less migratory than those born in rural areas.
7. Women are more migratory than men. *(Ravenstein, 1885: 198-199).*

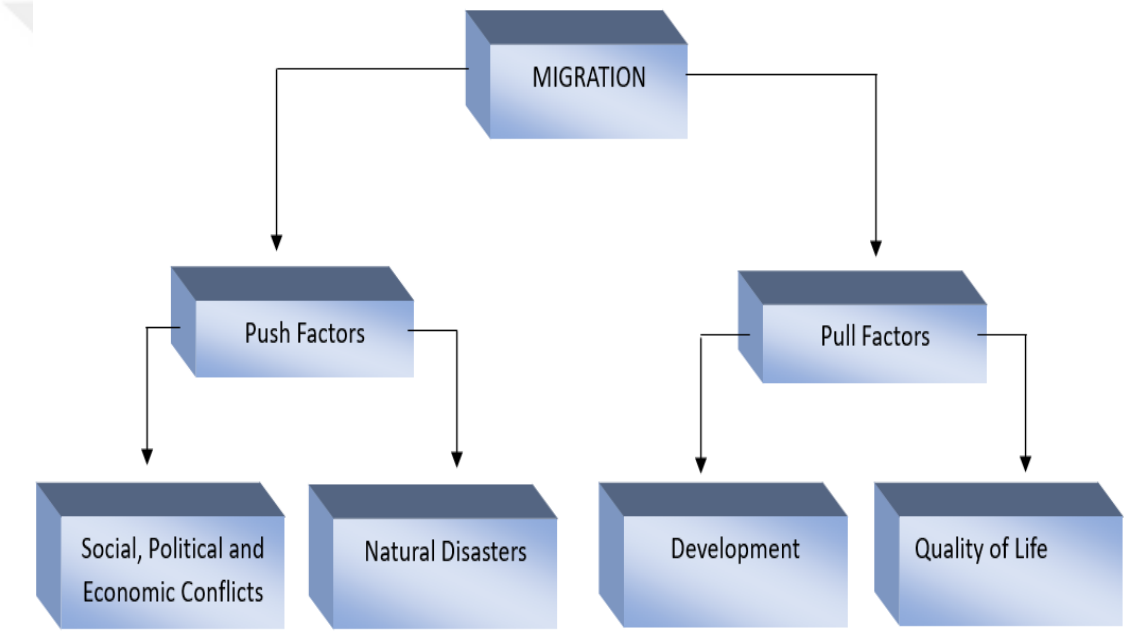
A review of the 'laws of migration' would be necessary to help understand migratory movements and the push-pull model. This model was developed from the examples of Wales and England. Ravenstein focused more on the factors associated with the region of origin and destination, assuming their positive and negative impacts on decision-making in migratory activities. The model has six main factors in both repulsion and attraction.

Push factors refer to the conditions that exert pressure and compel individuals to leave their regions or homes in search of better opportunities elsewhere. These

factors include insufficient livelihood opportunities, poverty, rapid population growth exceeding available resources, poor living conditions, desertification, drought, famine, environmental degradation, societal unrest, and natural disasters. On the other hand, pull factors operate in contrast to push factors, attracting people from regions affected by these push factors. Pull factors include job opportunities, improved living conditions, access to agricultural land, economic and political freedoms, religious freedoms, better education and social welfare systems, transportation infrastructure, improved healthcare, and enhanced security (Kline, 2003: 108).

Figure 3

Push and Pull Model Factors



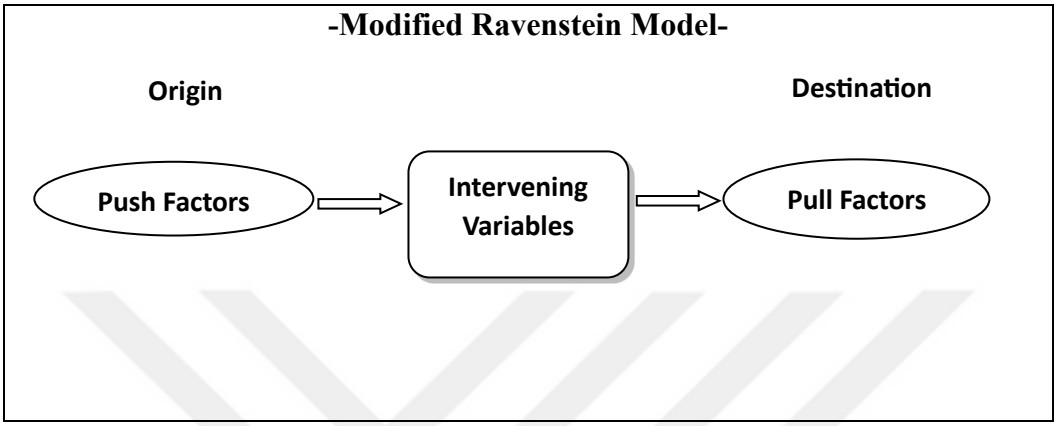
Source: Created by the author based on the push-pull factors.

Figure 3 illustrates the factors associated with the push-pull model. The push factors are characterized as factors that create a motivation or desire to leave their homes to travel, due to the imbalance of the system, attraction factors totally in contrast to repulsion is characterized as place of destination for natives and residents of the subsistence zone (Kim et al., 2003: 170-171). According to Mejía, Pizurki and Royston, in their 1979 World Health Organization report entitled "Physician and Nurse Migration", migration is the result of interactions between various forces at both ends of the migration axis. These forces include political factors, social factors, economic factors, cultural factors and educational factors (Mejía et al, 1979). Theories using the

push and pull model point out that migrants make their decisions rationally in the light of the pressures they are under. Based on these rational decisions, they try to maximize the advantages (positivity) and deduce the discomforts linked to migratory activities.

Figure 4

Modified Ravenstein Model



Source: Adopted from Castanho (2013: 46)

In the adaptation of Ravenstein's model depicted in Figure 4, there is a clear representation of how migrants make decisions. These decisions, driven by economic factors, are made in a deliberate and individual manner, making Ravenstein's model one of the most influential theories in migration studies. Based on the push and pull framework, Ravenstein's theoretical contribution remains highly regarded as one of the foremost attempts to elucidate migratory patterns.

Table 1

Factors that Cause Migration

FACTORS			
Type of Migrant	**Demand-Pull**	**Supply-Push**	**Network/Other**
Economic	Workers recruitment	Unemployment or underemployment; low pay (e.g. farmers whose crops fail from time to time)	employment and income information flows
Non-Economic	Family unification (joining family as son and wife)	Fleeing civil wars and persecution (refugees)	Assistance organizations; communications; transportation; and others.

Source: Martin and Zürcher (2008: 4)

Table 1 illustrates the factors that cause the migratory movements. Martin and Zürcher (2008) commented that the decision to move to another country can be categorized into two parts: economic and non-economic. Above all, for the purposes of analysing the factors that push a migrant to make the final decision, they can be better categorized into three parts: demand, supply and networks/others.

Lee (1966), also seen as a follower of Ravenstein's line of thought, was considered a theorist who contributed more to in-depth research into the main economic factors that cause migratory flows. According to Lee's theory, there are several factors that motivate people to leave an area, to stay in it and to attract them to it (Gupta & Miglani, 2021: 2327). Based on this, there are totally different factors between those related to the region of origin and those linked to the region of destination. However, migratory movements can take place after consideration by both parties (origin & destination).

Lee (1966) also argued that personal factors such as educational level, professional, physical and mental health, strong border controls, lack of financial resources, constituted barriers to migratory activities. Even after the effective restructuring of the push and pull model, Lee focused his argument only on the causes and reasons for migration. Lee summarized the factors influencing the decision to migrate and its process in the following categories:

- ✓ The factors linked to the area of origin
- ✓ Factors linked to the destination zone
- ✓ Barriers/obstacles to the process
- ✓ Personal factors

For better understanding, its schematically indicate the first three points mentioned in Figure 4, and in each area it can be note several factors that act to maintain, leave or attract people/migrants (Lee, 1966: 50).

After the publication of Ravenstein's works/papers at the end of the 19th century, presenting economic causes as the main motivation for migratory movements, most contributions have followed the same line of thoughts. Economic theories and authors in the line of economic sciences emphasized factors in the economic aspect, limiting themselves within the economic field, without considering other factors that contribute to the existence of migratory movements.

1.1.4. The Human Capital Theory

The human capital theory has been extensively studied across various countries, particularly in the United States of America, where it originated in the mid-1950s and gained prominence in 1962 with the publication of Theodore William Schultz's article *"Investment in Human Resources"*, introduced the term in an article published in the "*American Review*" Journal of Political Economy. His research demonstrated that investing in human capital through education and professional training yields higher returns in the United States of America (USA) compared to investments in physical capital (Anastácio, 2019: 32). While various authors such as Becker (1962) and Borjas (1994, 2000) have contributed to and supported this theory, its foundational ideas can be traced back to Adam Smith, Alfred Marshall, and Irving Fisher's studies in the early 19th century.

Becker (1962), a prominent figure in human capital theory, has also made significant contributions to migration studies. According to Becker (1962), human capital can be understood as an activity that shapes future economic growth by investing in people to enhance their skills and capabilities. This concept emerged as economists explored disparities in physical capital among individuals and households, where wealth was primarily invested in physical assets. Through this comparison, they discovered that factors such as human capital play a crucial role in explaining income disparities between individuals (Becker, 1962: 9). Based on this, the education, vocational training and experience gained over the period, migration becomes a source for investing in human capital. In the wake of migratory activities and investment in human capital, not only self-development but also personal change is considered, to the extent that there are more reasons for host countries to continue making investments in human capital, according to Becker's view.

Borjas (2000), one of the neo-classical scholars who considers migratory movements of labour as an investment in the development of human capital. Borjas (1994), tried to explain that when migrants arrive at their destination, they earn a little less compared to the locals, due to the lack of certain skills such as the local language (the author used the USA as a reference for the destination). Once these migrants acquire these skills, the migrants' stock of human capital grows to the level of the natives, closing the gap in the wage gap between them and the natives (Borjas, 1994: 1672). After this explanation, the author himself wondered why migrants would

accumulate more human capital than natives. This would be due to the ability and motivation found in migrants and their preference for working longer and taking on harder jobs.

Some recent studies on the effects of migration have shown that in the perspective of grouping or accumulation of human capital, migratory movements could generate a significant increase in human capital formation (Castanho, 2013: 50).

Chiswick (2000) has shown through models that migrants tend to have high ability, ambition and strong entrepreneurial ideas compared to people who decide to remain in their country of origin. The author analysed human capital and alternative models, such as asymmetric information, differences in personal skills and non-economic migrants (Chiswick, 2000: 7-12). In this model, the author defined migrants as people with very weak economic resources and limited educational and professional levels. Important factors such as the lack of the host country's language, the lack of security in the workplace represent a difficulty in the integration of migrants in the host country. These factors place migrants at an inferior level to native workers. Considering these factors and others, migrants feel a significant need to acquire a method of adapting very quickly, which will allow them to leave the positions of unskilled employees. The author also argues that a higher level of investment in human capital allows migrants to obtain a greater capacity for adaptation, insertion and rapid integration into the society of the host country (Figueiredo, 2004: 24).

Based on the logic of this theory, Castles and Miller pointed out the possible existence of the phenomenon of brain drain in the countries of origin. A phenomenon that has been identified and analysed since the middle of the 20th century, generally referred to as the "brain drain", it is interpreted as "an international transfer of quality individuals in the form of human capital, in other words, the migratory movement of relatively highly educated people from developing countries to developed countries" (as cited in Beine et al., 2002: 2).

Under the assumptions of the human capital theory, migratory movements are linked to an investment that increases the level of production of human resources, an investment that has guaranteed beneficial results in terms of economic production. "[...] Considering migration as an investment puts an end to the great difficulties inherent in the first approach, there is a method of analysing the benefits of migration

in reducing income differences between places, and this method is clearly the rate of return on the resources put into migration [...]" (Sjaastad, 1962: 83). It is obvious that costs and benefits are associated with factors such as education, professional training, and experience; these are the factors that make up human capital. In relation to human capital, migration states that individuals should use their professional qualifications so that they can earn a high income in the future, which should benefit not only the migrant, but also the future potential of the household and other opportunities such as the education of their children.

The migratory movements of individuals moving from countries with low incomes to countries with higher incomes (more developed countries), especially those with a certain degree of human capital, have a slightly higher expectation when it comes to recovering the investment made in human capital. This movement is seen by these people as an investment opportunity rather than an expense (Anastácio, 2019: 33).

The theory shows that the accumulation/concentration of human capital implies the continued growth of the most developed countries, so the human capital acquired through migrants also plays an impactful role as one of the resources of "social capital". Chiswick (2000) argued that the ease and capacity of adaptation, rapid integration and active contribution in destination countries is due to the investment made by migrants in human capital.

In other analyses, human capital is seen as an essential element of the productive factor of capital, in which its flow between countries is considered a very relevant tool in studies of migratory movements. On this basis, human capital flows are literally considered to be a contrasting movement to labour factor flows (a movement from developed countries to developing countries), in other words, capital factor flows (referring to human capital) are a movement from developing countries to more developed countries, while the labour factor is a movement in the opposite direction, moving from more developed countries to developing countries. In this way, the theoretical analysis shows the coherence of the logic of the movements, in which human capital moves from the countries with the smallest quantity (less developed), with more limited marginal productivity, to the countries with the largest quantity, in order to have higher productivity (Figueiredo, 2004: 25).

Indeed, human capital affects labour income in different ways:

✓ Human capital acts directly on income through the marginal productivity of labour, placing capital and technology in a constant mode.

✓ The amount of technology used in production is considered an indirect effect of human capital.

Many authors who have made significant contributions have focused on the direct influence of income to elucidate income disparities among countries. However, scholars like Romer (1986) have underscored the significance of this phenomenon in examining variations in productivity.

1.2. Theories of Migration on Macroeconomic Dimension

Macroeconomics emerged in response to the Great Depression of the 1930s, although many economists pinpoint the beginning of modern macroeconomics with the publication of John Maynard Keynes's "*The General Theory of Employment, Interest, and Money*" (1936) (Jiménez, 1999: 4). At that time, the unemployment rate in the labour market peaked at a staggering 25% in the United States of America (Chugh, 2014: 373). The economic downturn prompted economists to realize that neo-classical principles and microeconomic tools were inadequate in explaining significant economic phenomena such as severe unemployment and deep economic recessions.

Keynes (1936) brought an exceptional structural transformation in the economy after the publication of his work. He proposed that government intervention was essential to address unemployment and stabilize economic activities through policies that reduce taxes and boost public sector investment. In other words, the role of the state in the economy would be to pay close attention to the process of unemployment and act with some intervention policies just to balance the economic activities, reduce taxes and increase investment in the public sector. These interventions are considered as the mechanisms to keep sustaining economic activity during crises. Furthermore, his approach has had a positive effect both in the short-run and in the long-run (Câmpeanu, 2011: 53). Keynes advocated for immediate governmental action to mitigate private sector failures, utilizing monetary and fiscal policy tools to foster economic growth and prevent severe economic crises, including raising taxes to balance public accounts (Siami-Namini, 2015: 7). Despite not being a

joint idea, Keynes was considered the most influential economist of 20th century and recognized as the 'father of macroeconomics'.

To frame the dissertation within macroeconomic context, it is crucial to initially examine the countries from which migrants originate. The migration of individuals from their places of origin to their destinations is closely associated with the exportation of labour force (the labour factor). This phenomenon has macroeconomic implications as it generates revenue for the countries of origin, which serves as compensation and profit to offset the costs associated with migrants' participation in the production processes of their home countries.

1.2.1. Labor Market Segmentation (Dual)

A group of economists have tried to identify the unexplained issues concerning the functioning of the labour market, challenging the classical arguments using the segmented (dual) labor market theory, in which they believe that both the neo-classical and the classical contributions have not shown interest in explaining some issues such as wage division, income distribution and unemployment (Leontaridi, 1998: 63). This constructive criticism became the cornerstone of the segmentations/dualist theory, which describes the importance of the occupational structure or labour market.

The dual theory, or better known as the segmented labour market theory, analyses macro migrations between developing countries and developed countries. Doeringer and Piore (1970), a pioneering this theory, asserts that the labour market comprises two fundamental elements: native workers and migrant workers. These two groups function in separate markets, with native workers generally in the primary market and migrant workers in the secondary market.

In the first segment, i.e. the primary labour market, workers with the highest level of qualifications are generally hired, in order to obtain the results of massive capital production, quality of work and more opportunity for progress in the workplace. These positions are usually filled by native workers.

Since the secondary market is considered to be a lower-paying job, with massive labour production and a lower level of job quality. In this market, mobility is low, and it is filled by imported labour (referred to as migrants), with native workers unwilling to accept these job offers. The result of this duality has an important effect on international migration, which takes place between developing and developed

countries. And these attractions of labour from less developed countries to more developed countries certainly lead to an increase in informal and clandestine economies.

Pigou, a prominent classical economist, argued that the labour market often failed to achieve equilibrium as predicted by the classical comparative model. This failure resulted in workers not fully participating in market competition. The institutional nature of the labour market, particularly the availability of compensation, and other factors contributed to the shortcomings of the classical model (as cited in Leontaridi, 1998: 67).

Piore (1979), in his explanation of the dualist model of the labour market, suggested some possibilities and categorized them into four characteristics; one of them is optimistic, in which he believes that migratory flows are a response to fill the gap in the scarcity of labour in the countries of destination; another characteristic is pessimistic, in which migrants are seen as a response to the lowest gaps in the pyramid of the social hierarchy; and the others are seen as intermediate characteristics between the two classics.

The first category, linked to actors mediating labour shortages, are attractions that cause an increase in migratory movement, and this attraction occurs more in periods of economic prosperity. In other words, at a time of economic expansion, investments grow in both the private and public sectors, and this growth generates a high need for labour to respond to the speed of economic growth, however, a shortage of labour arises. At this point, companies and investors look for ways to improve the situation by increasing wages and improving working conditions. These conditions become attractive to foreign workers, so companies resort to these alternatives to recruit foreigners insofar as they can improve the labour shortage situation. A more concrete example is the process of attracting labour seen recently in the last decade, when in 2010 FIFA declared the 2022 World Cup match in Qatar, the focus of labour was imported from different countries such as India, Nepal, Bangladesh, and some Middle Eastern and African countries (Sonkar, 2023: 20).

The second category, the pyramid of social hierarchy, is also considered to be the main source of motivation for the flow of migratory movements. National workers refuse offers of jobs with lower social status after a certain level of economic

development, so the reactions of natives end up creating a gap in the lack of labour. The opening of this gap at the bottom of the pyramid can mean an opportunity for migrants to integrate into the labour market of the destination country. For them, the prestige associated with remuneration is not considered relevant or important.

Although the segmented (dualist) market theory tends to be economically based, the demographic decline in more developed countries is opening opportunities for migrants. For example, Europe is experiencing an ageing population, causing a reduction in the workforce (as indicated by demographic records between 1995 and 2020). Giuliani (2012) mentioned the case of Italy, where the country has seen a negative demographic evolution, through its persistent unemployment in different regions of the country and the need for additional labour in some sectors of production (construction, domestic work and some industrial services). In addition, the number of unemployed young people continued to rise and more than a quarter of young people were left without great expectations, some without studying and without the ambition to look for a job (Giuliani, 2012: 285). However, this scenario has increased the importance of migrants in the labour market and migrants currently represent a very large number of the labour force in the market.

The analysis of the theory shows the behaviour of some elements and attitudes of migrants in some countries, such as Türkiye in the last decades of the 20th century (Sirkeci et al., 2012), Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. Migrants from these regions are willing to take advantage of these opportunities to enter the secondary segmented labour market in developed countries in the Western world.

Several methods were implemented to protect workers, and the same policies served to reduce dualism in the labour market. Piore (1979) commented that rules imposed on the primary class of workers could not be imposed on the secondary class of workers. However, migrants who have just entered the labour market still experience a very deep separation from the primary class of workers in the segmented class.

Piore (1979) argues that the work of migrants is a complementary activity for national employees, insofar as they perform the most different functions, and did not fail to comment on the fact that there is competition between natives and migrants, meaning that if migrants enter the labour market in the host country, the unemployment

rate among natives would decrease. This theory is very relevant to explaining migrants' entry into the host country's labour market, their positions and attitudes within the market. The reality of migrants entering the secondary sector is seen in all host countries and can also be associated with the informal sector.

1.2.2. The Informal Economy and Ethnic Enclave

Immigrants are often drawn to the secondary market in the host country. Various factors attracting migratory flows have been examined, with the informal economy being a significant one. This term refers to activities conducted outside the established regulations and laws concerning working conditions, social security rights, and worker inspections. Recruiting workers outside these regulations accelerates the informal economy, attracting immigrants while deterring natives. Additionally, migrants from less developed countries with limited opportunities are frequently recruited; they accept these jobs, even under poor conditions, as they improve their previous standard of living (Peixoto, 2004: 23).

For these reasons, It can be mentioned mentioned that the existence of immigration is basically linked to the search for better economic conditions. It turns out that most of the attractions seen in international immigration, in particular the migratory flows seen between less developed countries and more developed countries, are directed towards the 'segmented' secondary market. Migrants gravitate more towards informal economy zones for certain reasons; the ease of integration into the labour market in the host country, to avoid having to resort to various bureaucratic processes to obtain their worker's rights (mostly work residency), and financial anxiety/insecurity or fear of becoming unemployed.

Peixoto (2004) once again commented on the fact that in informal economic zones, recruitment is carried out based on ethnic origin, disregarding qualifications and experience in the sector; nevertheless, these incidents in the informal economy cause a reduction in overall income in the labour market. Furthermore, it is very important to evaluate the effect of the informal sector on a country's economy, and its links to the formal sector of the economy, a point that is difficult to ascertain due to the confidentiality of the informal sector.

According to a report by the International Labor Office in 1972, actors in the informal sector are generally ignored by the authorities, and a large number of these

businesses are left outside government regulations (ILO, 1972: 504). The same report defines the term informal in economic activities as follows:

- ✓ A family business
- ✓ Own financing of the business
- ✓ Small increases in production and cost reduction
- ✓ Easy market integration
- ✓ Strong use of labour and technological adjustments
- ✓ Vocational training outside the school education system
- ✓ Involvement in competitive markets without government regulation

Amaral (2005), questioned the survival system of the urban population, considered the poor zone, and concluded that the "informal sector" has become a system or method of survival for residents in these areas, expanding illegal and unregulated economic activities.

During the last two decades of the twentieth century, economic activities in the informal sector grew rapidly. This growth was driven by factors such as economic crises, restrictions in the formal labour market, rising unemployment rates, and increasing disposable incomes in the informal sector to meet consumer demand for goods and services (Amaral, 2005: 60).

Table 2

Difference Between Informal and Formal Sector

	Formal Sector	*Informal Sector*
Beginning	Dependent on official authorisations	Only personal initiative counts
Organisation	Legally incorporated companies	Individual or family, free and flexible
Installations	Mandatory	Usually, non-existent
Investment capital	High	Weak
Reserve capital	Essential	Usually, non-existent
Technology	Imported from a high level or produced locally	Non-existent or permissive and adapted
Labour	Low according to the volume and value of production	Abundant without specialisation
Salary and employment relationship	Under an employment contract in accordance with the law	Agreed between people, not legally binding
Storage	High quantities or good quality	Small quantities and poor quality
Prices	Officially priced	Bargain items

Credit	Banking operations, state loans or subsidies, foreign investments	Individuals or family members, resources from traditional institutions (credit savings association, village banker)
Margin of profit	Small in terms of units but large in terms of turnover and capitalisation	High by units but small by turnover, rare capitalisation
Fixed costs	Substantial	Not accounted
Accounting and financial reporting	Both required by law	Nonexistent or the first in revenue moulds
Recycling of waste	Rarely	Very often
Advertisement	Important and intensive, by their own means or via the media	From person to person when it exists
Dependence on foreign countries	Large companies with contracts	Little or none at all

Source: Amaral (2005: 59)

Table 2 illustrates the differences between informal formal sectors. In many socio-economic studies of employment, the informal sector is ignored, because these individuals who work in this sector do not fit the profile of an employee and are often considered to be people from the unemployed class, without professional skills or 'inactive'.

1.2.3. The Structures of Capitalism and World Systems Theories

World systems theory was created in the 1970s by American sociologist Immanuel Maurice Wallerstein. This theory brought a macro-sociological expectation that, in its content, tried to explain the dynamism of economic activities in the capitalist world and the system of society in the world. Wallerstein (1974) developed his theory based on the concepts of the labour segmentation originated by the capitalist structure (Martins, 2015: 96). In one of his initial approaches to his theory, Wallerstein (1974) pointed to the capitalist world system as a separation of territories, which influenced the production, sale and purchase of the essential goods and raw materials.

In other theoretical perspectives, there are three main theories[1] within dynamic systems that have given rise to a socio-economic study of capitalist systems and their development over time, and one of these theories is world systems theory (Burns &

[1] Marxist theory, dynamic systems theory and world system theory are the three theoretical perspectives that have established the socio-economic analysis of capitalist systems (Burns & Deville, 2006).

Deville, 2006: 11). Also, according to Burns and Deville, the theory contextualises the methods that are connected in a global economic system, as well as influencing reciprocity, developing unequal exchanges and establishing a difference in territorial terms, for example:

- ✓ Core, which is considered to be the most developed countries with strong administrative powers.
- ✓ Semi-periphery, which includes countries with average development compared to the least developed countries.
- ✓ Periphery, which includes the least developed (poor) countries with weak administrative powers.

Certainly, the countries within the "core" category predominate over the "semi-periphery" and "periphery" countries (Martinez-Vela, 2001: 4). In general, economic wealth and other income are managed by core countries, while semi-periphery and periphery countries remain in a mode of systematic underdevelopment. The core countries are usually involved in competitions for economic power, which to some extent result in military conflicts between them. These military conflicts generate a scale of investment in defence and security forces as well as government spending, however these incidents force taxes to be raised to cover government expenses.

Martinez-Vela (2001) argues that the division of labour mentioned in the theory defines the forces of production in the global economy as a whole that guide the existence of two regions: core and periphery. The most influential structures in the current world system consist of the hierarchy of administrative power existing between the core and the periphery, in which the core countries (countries with richer and more powerful societies) predominate and strongly exploit the periphery countries (poor countries with weak administrative powers (Martinez-Vela, 2001: 4). Technological development is the fundamental factor in the division between two parts, core and periphery. However, then again define the two regions as the more developed countries with more advanced technological resources (core regions) and the countries without technological advances (periphery regions).

Goldfrank (2000), admits that the two regions "core and periphery" are totally different geographically and culturally, demonstrating a structural interrelationship: the countries within the core are countries with a labour-intensive focus and the

countries of the periphery determine their focus on capital-intensive production. Goldfrank (2000) continued his argument by claiming that if the relationship between core and periphery came from the dependent theorists, Wallerstein is the true ideologiser of the semi-periphery, in other words the concept of the semi-periphery originally belongs to him (Goldfrank, 2000: 169). The semi-periphery, like the core and periphery, also has some disagreements in the political and economic fields. In the political sphere, it can be explained that the countries of the semi-periphery develop a world system based on sub-imperial practices, demonstrating an opposition between the countries of the periphery and the core. However, in economic terms, the semi-periphery countries represent two incompatible aspects. The semi-periphery region is recognised as an intermediate region between the two sides (core and periphery), in terms of intensive capital, quality of production and wage income.

Skocpol (1977) characterised the regions of the semi-periphery as a mix and type of activities and actors that act as a diverter and absorber of the oppositions between the two regions "core and periphery". The power of the difference between the countries within the system is very important for preserving the system as a whole; this is due to the reinforcement of states to increase the difference between the two regions.

Ricketts (1987), based his opinion on the factors involved in migratory flows on a link with world systems theory, explaining that according to the theory, industrialisation and the advance in the agricultural sector are the main indicators of the development of the capitalist model, considering these indicators as factors influencing migratory movements, specifically when migratory flows are caused by economic conditions and demographic decline in the regions.

In analysing the theory of the world system, they identify that the system determines certain principles that are notable and discrete within the system, which have been established by administrative authors, production developments and technological advances. Whether the theories accept it or not explicitly, the world system consists of territorial distribution:

- ✓ Regional
- ✓ Core
- ✓ Periphery

These distributions are fundamental in driving and originating the migratory flows that occur between the core and periphery zones. According to Peixoto (2004), the main reason for population displacement (migratory flows) is the existence of differentials in wage zones. The specific methods of the core and periphery have led to the creation of surplus labour in the peripheral states, in a reality of low wages and insufficient human resources, actors who benefit from higher wages in the core zones "*more developed countries*" (Peixoto, 2004: 26). From these cases emerge the factors that drive migratory flows that theories such as push-pull theory have identified. However, it turns out that it is these structural forces of the world system that give rise to the economic differentials that somehow push migrants to leave their homes/countries and move to other places/countries.

Indeed, the authors who have dedicated their studies to this theory suggest that it has the most obvious consequences for the development process of states, connecting the theory with displacement and productivity factors, in which population displacement (labour migration) moves in the opposite direction to capital movements (Figueiredo, 2004: 36). In a nutshell, the authors believe that migratory movements create a branch of aid for obtaining additional information linked to the difference in economic performance between states, connecting this to the development process of the global economy.

The structural theories of capitalism and the world system theory have become the target of various criticisms from several authors who have also carried out their studies focusing on these theories. The first of these is the inadequacy of the explanation of the continuous movement of migrants to the regions/zones specified in the theory. Structural theories (of capitalism) are seen as unbalanced analyses, pitting the neo-classical school against each other, ignoring the individual causes of migration.

World systems theory has inspired a number of studies and research activities in different fields over the years, specifically research into the long-term business cycle. Adding to its importance, the theory is an approach often used to discuss the dynamics of economic development and to understand the differences between first world and third world countries. It has become famous for being a theory that fits into many disciplines, attracting the attention of authors and scholars in social science fields such as anthropology, cultural studies, economic development studies, history and economic history (Martinez-Vela, 2001: 5). The theory helps to understand the

historical relations between colonising and colonised countries and other relations between two or more administrative territories/countries.

In the initial phase of the development of the capitalist system, migratory movements could be strongly connected to the development of industrialization of the countries of that time, on the other hand 'structural theory of capitalism' and 'world systems theory' seek to find factors such as demographic growth. As the theories that fits into several disciplines (interdisciplinary), They are also considered the crucial theories in approaches and studies to better understand migratory flows.

1.2.4. The Migratory Network Theory

The migratory network theory refers to the cumulative causes of the migratory process that result in a reduction in possible social problems and risks, economic costs and emotions, formalising a connection between migratory networks (Light et al., 1989: 1). Despite having a sociological dimension, the migratory networks theory simplified the concept of the world systems and push-pull theories that previously predominated in the literature in terms of explaining the factors and causality of migratory flows. Light et al. (1989) believe that the current resolutions of migratory networks ignore the contributions made by migrants to the economic expansion of their host countries/places. These migratory networks play a fundamental role if they are aided in the entrepreneurial process of these authors (migrants).

Massey et al. (1993: 448) define the migratory network as "[…] the sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship, and share community origin".

Migratory flows continue normally as long as there is the first population movement (migrants). However, the relationship and frequent communication between migrants and non-migrants (who intend to migrate) influences an increase in migratory flows. In addition, both sides establish a network of communication, support and, to a certain extent, obligation between migrants and their families and friends. These networks create a bond between the two sides (migrants and non-migrants), those who are still in the place of origin and those who are already in the place of destination. Migration progresses automatically once the migrants have settled in the place/country of destination (de Haas, 2010: 1588).

The main focus on migratory networks presents a noble line of enquiry into migratory movements, which had previously been covered by political and economic explanations until the late 1980s (Garip & Asad, 2015: 1). Various theories have put forward the arguments of wage differentials between places of origin and destination, as well as linking migration to insurance and credit market failures in the places of origin, the opportunities and structure of professions in the place of destination and the reality of poverty in the place of origin.

According to Light et al. (1989), networks sometimes try to promote the independence of migratory movements for two main reasons: firstly, if the connections between migrants and non-migrants reach a certain level, they create a social structure that influences the continuity of migratory flows. Migrants who have benefited from these networks don't run the same risks as those who haven't been able to take advantage of these opportunities. These benefits facilitate decision-making, encourage those who want to migrate and those who don't even think about migrating. Unless these (migrants) are refugees who are forced to move from their places of origin and seek shelter in order to protect themselves.

The second reason is that Massey's arguments are in favour of migratory networks based on the assumptions of a method of varying or reducing risks. When we look at this model, we see evidence that, in third world countries, if family members don't intend to migrate, they may run a high risk of having problems with prosperity. We can also mention that development and modernisation lead to population displacement, which can cause droughts and natural disasters. Therefore, if there are no protection methods (in this case, insurance), changing the place where family members live “varying the living spaces” can serve as a method of reducing the risk of the family losing all its properties (Massey, 1989 as cited in Light et al., 1989).

Recent studies have contextualised the topic by reporting on how migratory networks encompass the ‘international immigration’ space and positively impact social, political and economic activities across national borders. However, some studies have maintained their focus, challenging previous studies that have centred their research solely on host countries, instead focusing their studies on the link between the two sides (countries of origin and destination) in order to better understand the encouraging and motivating factors involved in the relocation of these elements. While it is important to study the positive impacts on the countries of destination,

investigating the motives and connections between the two sides is crucial to understanding and formalising migration policies.

Garip and Asad (2015) argued in one of their articles that establishing an investigation of migratory networks between places/countries of origin and countries of destination is fundamental to studying the reasons, causes and consequences of migratory movements. The studies carried out to understand the economic and political causes between the countries of origin and the host countries are still not enough to comprehend the factors and implications of migratory movements, furthermore the interconnections and transnational networks can be considered essential factors in the decision-making process that results in migration (Garip & Asad, 2015: 2).

The studies concluded that migratory networks facilitate the immigration process and the social, political and economic integration of migrants in the countries of destination. On the other hand, studies with empirical evidence have shown that new arrivals through migratory networks or who, after arriving, have tried to create links with more experienced migrants, are likely to integrate and become employed as quickly as possible, starting to earn high incomes to finance their own businesses in the host country. Scholars, in other words academics, have also concluded that newly arrived migrants are more likely to find a place to settle and to be employed.

Eventually, the first individuals to move from their places/countries of origin to immigrate obviously don't manage to create a bond through migratory or social networks, because they don't exist or don't know the migrants in the country of destination and they consider themselves to be the first, however, for them the costs can be higher, especially if these individuals resort to illegal ‘undocumented’ ways. Besides, if the first migrants arrive at the destination, i.e. after the arrival of the first migrants, the experiences of these migrants are used to reduce the large ‘declining costs’ by friends and families who have not yet migrated. By the nature of family and friendship structures and connections, each individual who has moved to the place/country of destination tends to create a set of social connections with the host country (Massey et al., 1993: 449). These individuals (migrants) are in some way connected to those who have not yet immigrated. Nowadays, it can be considered easier with technological developments; before the existence of the means of communication, contacts were made via the post office and telegrams ‘by sending a letter’.

These migratory networks can influence everything from the decision to migrate in the country of origin to the integration of migrants in the country of destination. For some migrants, these influences can have a negative effect (according to the general opinion of other family members) as they cut off contact with their countries of origin. Of course, there are some of them who continue to create a range of impacts on economic activities through migratory networks.

Boyd and Nowak (2012), who also addressed social networks and international migration, described that these networks connect people (migrants) across time and space, making the theory of these networks a definite fit in population displacement studies (migratory movements). They suggest that in all studies related to migratory movements, groups should be analysed rather than individuals, and scholars can examine the active conceptions between migrants and non-migrants (Boyd & Nowak, 2012: 78), considering the social, economic and political realities, and the contributions and utilities of these actors (migrants) in both the families and communities of the countries 'origin and host'.

1.2.5. Social Networks Approachs

The concept of social networks consists of a network created by the contacts between people through instruments or space, the contacts that are within the small structures that support the increase in migration flows over the years. In addition to the calculations of costs and income made by people before they migrate, within these networks there are people who help to clarify doubts about the differences of migration and the lasting aspects within the process (Portes & Böröcz, 1989: 612; Boyd & Nowak, 2012: 78; Granovetter, 1973: 1360). These approaches consist of a microstructural aspect of studying migratory movements that introduces the existence of migratory systems, based on the information gathered from the experiences shared by the first migrants (Castanho, 2013: 80).

Granovetter (1973), in his approaches of strong and weak ties between people, emphasises that small interactions, small contacts and considerably weak ties can turn into large-scale and strong ties.

These prominences of the links between people can describe a connection of a wider community or go beyond border levels, since these communities are comprehensive in terms of the networks and links and not by certain/limited territories.

The main aim of social network approaches is to emphasise the links and contacts between people through the means used to communicate, these instruments varying in time and space depending on the conditions of these individuals.

Fawcett (1989) explains that in the in-depth analyses of the influence of inter-family networks and individuals, there is a connection between network studies and an analytical interest in the migration system. According to him, based on Boyd's words, the author reports that in the 1980s scholars considered the term migration as a dynamic phenomenon that represented a continuous movement based on the existing connections between migrants and non-migrants. In evaluating these connections, Fawcett (1989) reinforces Boyd's idea, suggesting analyses using empirical and conceptual tests in evaluations of migratory movement systems, considering the links between the two parties (migrants and non-migrants) in order to understand possible changes (Fawcett, 1989: 671).

Social networks can be defined as all the factors that help and facilitate the integration of migrants into the society of the destination countries. These networks connect people in places of host and origin in a very dynamic way, based on the contacts and communications developed between the two parties. Furthermore, the aim of the study is to see how these tools can be used to influence migratory movements, emphasising the approaches of some authors who point to the migratory process as a line between the systems of adaptation within the host countries and the departure of migrants from their places/countries of origin.

Massey et al. (1993) reported that social networks increase the likelihood of migratory flows due to their impact on reducing costs and risks during the migration process and, in the other hand, they increase income according to the expectations created by migrants. These networks created between migrants and non-migrants build up a bond between people that forms a set of social capital that applicants (who are interested) can draw on to gather information that will help them get a job in the destination countries. Moreover, if the number of these individuals reaches a certain considerably critical threshold, there is a reduction in the possible costs and risks within the process of displacement (migration), which results in a frequent increase in migratory flows, these factors also cause a successive expansion of social networks (Massey et al., 1993: 449).

From the moment the first movements begin, international migration tends to continue, with the number of migrants growing steadily over the years. This process continues until the networks created have been facilitated and all those wishing to migrate can move without any difficulty. At that point, the flow of people from place of origin to destination begins to decline.

Gurak and Caces (1992) defined the social network as a structure developed through relationships between people, considering the concept as an abstract descriptive that bears a resemblance to the term "field" in the context of physics. Emphasising the role of adaptations (in this case integrations), the authors refer to adaptations to difficult environments and conditions at the beginning of the integration process (a temporary process), as well as in the structures of the destination society. As such, the authors believe that migration studies have focused on the role of networks in providing support during short-term adaptation, and we can list some relevant points such as: accommodation as a primary factor, general information (survival system), money to finance basic needs and the process of legalising documents (e.g. residency), emotional support, and etc. (Gurak & Caces, 1992:153).

CHAPTER TWO

POPULATION MOBILITY FROM WEST AFRICAN COUNTRIES TO TÜRKİYE: ASSESSING THE CAUSES OF IMMIGRATION BY USING THE SDG INDICATORS

Around the middle of the 20th century, the countries of West Africa began a revolution against French, English and Portuguese colonialism, and by the 1980s most of the countries in the region had achieved their independence and were recognised by the United Nations (UN) community. The reality is that the marks left by colonialism have negatively affected the development of the countries in this region of Africa. This has also caused extreme poverty, and in some ways, it is believed that these stains continue to be one of the factors that have led to population mobility (migration) from Africa to other places on the planet. Economic, political and social causes are always present when it comes to population displacement (migratory movements).

This chapter will assess the causes of population mobility (migratory flows) from West Africa to Türkiye over the last 20 years, based on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators and the push-pull factors. The aim is to use push and pull model to study and analyse the causality of migratory flows between the two regions 'Türkiye and the countries of the west coast of Africa'.

The 16 West African countries can be listed as follows: Benin, Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, Ivory Coast, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Guinea Bissau, Liberia, Mali, Mauritania, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Sierra Leone and Togo. 30% of the total population of the African continent lives in this region, including the most populous country with the greatest economic potential on the continent, Nigeria. According to population growth forecasts, by 2030 the population will increase by 46.6% reaching 510.6 million inhabitants in the region. The Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS)[2] with 15 member countries (including Mauritania[3]) and the West African Economic and Monetary Union (WAEMU)[4] commonly known as UEMOA with a majority of French-speaking member countries, are the two most important sub-

[2] ECOWAS, the Economic Community of West African States, was founded based on a treaty on 28 May 1975 in Lagos, Nigeria (Fortes, 2012: 28).
[3] Mauritania, which was also considered a member of this sub-regional organisation, left in 2000 (Fortes, 2012: 28).
[4] WAEMU (UEMOA), the West African Economic and Monetary Union, was created on 10 January 1994 in Dakar, Senegal, with the aim of creating an economic space within the harmony and communitarian integrity of the West African countries (Fortes, 2012: 26).

regional organisations (economic blocs) (Sustainable Development Goals Center for Africa, 2017: 123).

According to statistical data from the World Bank in 2014, Sierra Leone, with an average rate of 10%, was considered the country in the region with the fastest economic growth, followed by Ghana with 8.5% and Niger with 6.8% between 2010 and 2014. The same data showed that Cabo Verde with 2.1%, followed by Guinea with 2.5% were also considered the countries with the lowest economic growth in the region between 2010 and 2014 (World Bank, 2014 as cited in Sustainable Development Goals Center for Africa, 2017: 124).

2.1. Assessment of Migration Flows Within and from West African Countries to Türkiye

Migratory flows from Africa, including West African countries, to other countries on the planet have opened up a field of research in different disciplines and sociological, political and economic studies, both in the countries of destination and in the countries of origin. In recent years, even with limited studies on migration flows from Africa to Türkiye, it is clear that the movement is already attracting the attention of many scholars. Population mobility from West Africa to Türkiye is related to a number of reasons, however, these reasons can be listed as follows:

- ❖ The Türkiye's foreign policies towards Africa and the diplomatic relations developed in recent years are considered to be one of the main factors that have accelerated migratory movements between the two regions (Türkiye and the countries of West Africa).

- ❖ Due to the limited number of opportunities for young people in West Africa, this has repelled young Africans and turned them into migrants in search of jobs and better conditions. However, this and other similar factors are repelling young people from this region, and Türkiye is seen as a driving force in this case.

- ❖ The limited number of opportunities for young people in West Africa has pushed young Africans to become migrants in search of jobs opportunities and better living conditions. However, this and other similar factors are pushing young people from this region, and Türkiye is seen as a pull country with pull factors in this case.

❖ In recent years, Türkiye has ranked among the countries that provide scholarships for students from Africa, including West African countries, a factor that has opened up the opportunity to learn the Turkish language. The dominance of the Turkish language has further influenced the migratory flow between the two regions, through this factor a **migratory network** has been created between the students or speakers of the Turkish language and those interested in migrating to Türkiye.

❖ Production in the industrial sector has grown considerably in Türkiye and there is a great deal of interest from African entrepreneurs (including West African entrepreneurs) in Turkish products, and entrepreneurs contact friends or family through the **migratory network** to build a line of business between the two regions, which somehow can originate a migratory flow between them.

❖ Another important factor that has received a lot of attention in academic research is the geographical system that has made Türkiye as a '**transit country**'. This factor has already greatly influenced the migratory flow of Africans to Türkiye. Migrants from West Africa generally use this route to reach their destination countries, usually the western countries of Europe and the USA.

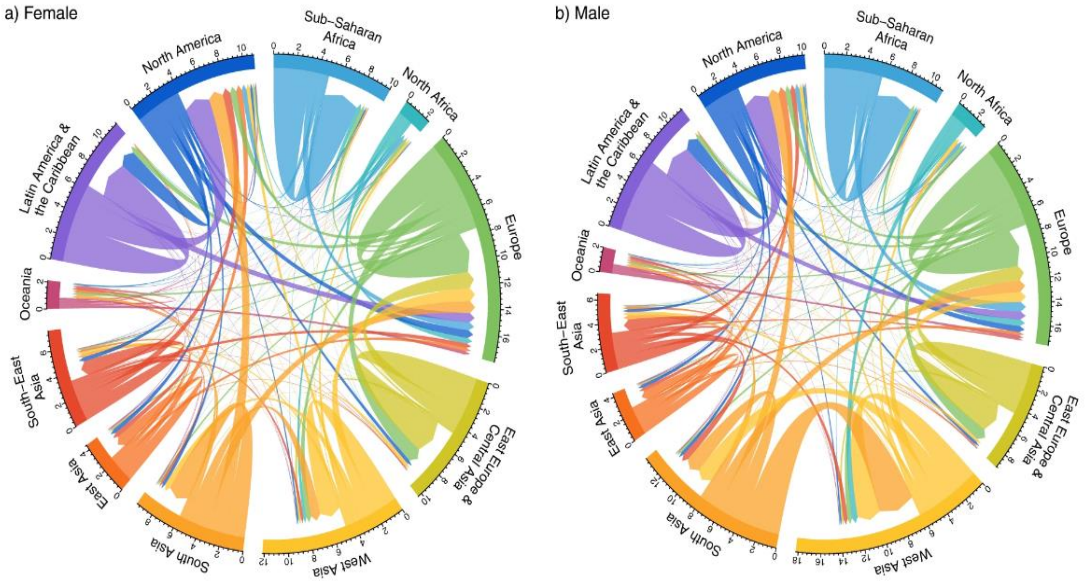
Eventually, Türkiye through its geographical system began to be considered a transit country after the change of government regime in Iran in 1979, followed by the Soviet Union's territorial occupation of Afghanistan, the Iran and Iraq war that took place between 1980 and 1988, the Gulf War and the destruction of the Soviet Union in the early 1990s, the arrival of the United States Army in Iraq in 2003, the human mobility known as the "Arab Spring" in 2010 and the beginning of the civil war in Syria in 2011 (Kaya & Çaglayan, 2023: 164; Şişman & Balun, 2020: 63). These and other historical incidents have turned Türkiye into a transit country, as most migrants arrive in Türkiye with the intention of reaching their destinations.

Figure 4 shows a diagram presenting the patterns of migratory movements for both women and men between 2015 and 2020, based on the methods of estimating demographic counts used in closed terms and pseudo-Bayesian probability analyses. The estimates of migratory flows are made from country to country and the migratory flow from one zone to another is collected by relating it to the regional geographic

system of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations (UN-DESA). The margin lines represent the maximum value for each zone within the given period '2015-2020', creating a separation between the male and female genders.

Figure 5

Chord Diagrams of Estimated Male and Female Migration Flows 2015-2020



Source: Abel & Cohen (2022: 4)

Analysing Figure 5[5], we can see that migration on the African continent is very widespread and is separated into two parts, North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa, both for the migratory movements indicated in the female diagram (a) and in the male diagram (b). Migratory movements in Sub-Saharan Africa are very large and notable, while in North Africa migratory movements are less frequent, due to various factors. North Africa, which is home to countries such as Algeria, Egypt, Sudan, Morocco, Libya and Tunisia, is considered to be the region of Africa with the highest economic growth and is constantly growing. According to the Africa Development Bank's 2024 report, in 2024 the countries of North Africa forecast economic growth of up to 3.9% and for 2025 the countries forecast growth of a further 0.2% to reach 4.1% (African Development Bank Group, 2024: 16).

[5] Figure 5 shows the line diagram of the migratory movements of an estimate signalling the male gender (b) on the right and the female gender (a) on the left for a given period from 2015 to 2020. The calculation was based on a closed demographic pseudo-Bayesian model.

The diagram in Figure 4 provides a concrete analysis of migratory movements in two regions of Africa (North Africa and Sub-Saharan Africa). Although in North African region we have Sudan (North Sudan), which is still facing civil war regimes that have caused the forced displacement of millions of people since the country's armed forces began fighting for control of the territory in 2023, and Libya, which still bears the marks of its second civil war that involved different armed groups and forced the displacement of thousands of the country's citizens, the countries of North Africa are considered to be the countries with the most advanced economic development compared to the countries of Sub-Saharan Africa. This is due to the implementation of the appropriate economic policies and good suitable administration. The level of education and professional training is high and the level of job opportunities, working conditions and livelihoods are basically better than in Sub-Saharan Africa. These and other factors are explained in the reasons for the migratory flow shown in Figure 4.

Figure 4 also shows Sub-Saharan Africa, where there is a high level of migratory flows. The economic difference between the countries in this region, and the ease of both the migration process and the integration of African migrants in these regions may be the most explanatory factors in the causes of the migratory flows seen in the region.

The migration flows from West Africa to Türkiye are notable for the distribution of international migrants. According to Table 3, 7.2% of Türkiye’s total population and habitants are represented by international migrants.

Based on statistical data from UN research, 6,052,652 people have migrated to Türkiye for different reasons, some refugees, some to reach their destinations and some in search of better living conditions. Among the countries mentioned are only three West African countries, Nigeria, Senegal and Ghana, because of the limited number of migrants from this region living in Türkiye, compared to other sub-regional countries of Türkiye: Syrian Arab Republic, Iraq, North Macedonia, Bulgaria, etc. (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division, 2020). And 'Other' represents the total number of migrants from other countries who reside in Türkiye, because of the very limited number of people who have migrated from these countries.

Table 3

Türkiye's 2020 International Immigration Stocks

Total	**6052652**
% of migrants	**%7.2**
International Migrant Stock by Country	
1.Syrian Arab Republic	3792505
2. Bulgaria	661438
3. Germany	376288
4. Iraq	233288
5. North Macedonia	198004
49. Nigeria	1204
83. Ghana	196
90. Senegal	88

Source: Created by the author using United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2020) data.[6]

Table 4 lists the countries of the ECOWAS and Mauritania and divides them into two main categories; low-income countries (LIC) and low-middle-income countries (LMIC), based on the economic performance and income of each country. In the category of the LIC there are Burkina Faso, The Gambia, Guinea, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mali Niger, Sierra Leone and Togo; while the LMIC can be listed as follows: Benin, Cabo Verde, Cote d'Ivoire, Ghana, Mauritania, Nigeria and Senegal. Countries such as Benin, Senegal and Mauritania, despite being categorised as middle-income countries, are still considered less developed in other respects, such as in the assessment of the Human Assets Index, Economic and Environmental Vulnerability Index and other United Nations development indicators (United Nations, 2022: 109).

Table 4 shows the corridor of migratory movements of West African countries in 2020, based on the reports of the international migrant stock of the UN-DESA. The migratory movement between West African countries is due to the treaty on the free movement of goods, people and services between the sub-regional countries of the ECOWAS. The treaty on the free movement of people, goods and services was established at one of the meetings of the heads of state of the member countries of the

[6] In Table 3, only people who were born in foreign countries are included, and the total number of refugees or individuals with the same situations as refugees living in Türkiye are included.

organisation (ECOWAS) in May 1979 in Dakar, Senegal (Devillard et al., 2016: 31). It was an agreement that greatly influenced migratory movements in the region.

Table 4

Top 5 Migration 'Corridors' of West African Countries in 2020

From	To	Migrant Stock	From	To	Migrant Stock
Benin* (LMIC)	*Nigeria*	377169	Burkina Faso* (LIC)	*Côte d'Ivoire*	1376350
	Togo	72330		*Ghana*	67431
	Côte d'Ivoire	70576		*Mali*	62291
	Gabon	52460		*Niger*	24683
	France	23352		*Togo*	13765
Cabo Verde (LMIC)	Portugal	68299	Côte d'Ivoire (LMIC)	*Burkina Faso*	562117
	United States of America	36082		*Mali*	195271
	France	25501		France	102889
	Netherlands	12091		*Ghana*	74228
	Angola	9215		United States of America	41873
Gambia, the* (LIC)	United States of America	33653	Ghana (LMIC)	*Nigeria*	238284
	Italy	23086		United States of America	201086
	Spain	19489		United Kingdom	131095
	Germany	17200		*Côte d'Ivoire*	111708
	United Kingdom	10015		Italy	54680
Guinea* (LIC)	*Côte d'Ivoire*	167516	Guinea-Bissau* (LIC)	Portugal	32607
	Senegal	53430		*Senegal*	30550
	Gambia, The	45215		*Gambia, The*	13808
	Mali	41960		Spain	7246
	Sierra Leone	36058		*Cabo Verde*	5330
Liberia* (LIC)	United States of America	105233	Mali* (LIC)	*Côte d'Ivoire*	522146
	Ghana	34940		*Nigeria*	172481
	Côte d'Ivoire	28134		*Mauritania*	114379
	Nigeria	22009		*Niger*	108802
	Sierra Leone	9097		France	86437
Mauritania* (LMIC)	*Senegal*	46376	Niger* (LIC)	*Nigeria*	120797
	Mali	24197		*Benin*	78124
	France	20324		*Côte d'Ivoire*	68184
	Côte d'Ivoire	12739		*Togo*	66332
	Spain	8879		*Mali*	13340
Nigeria (LMIC)	United States of America	402186	Senegal* (LMIC)	France	134848
	United Kingdom	205773		*Gambia, The*	132678
	Cameroon	169602		Italy	113444
	Niger	154739		United States of America	61497
	Italy	103462		Spain	59549
Sierra Leone* (LIC)	United States of America	44384	Togo* (LIC)	*Nigeria*	158262
	United Kingdom	26657		*Benin*	113502
	Liberia	16853		*Ghana*	103799
	Senegal	15453		*Côte d'Ivoire*	41508
	Guinea	8342		France	27183

Source: Created by the author using United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2020) data.

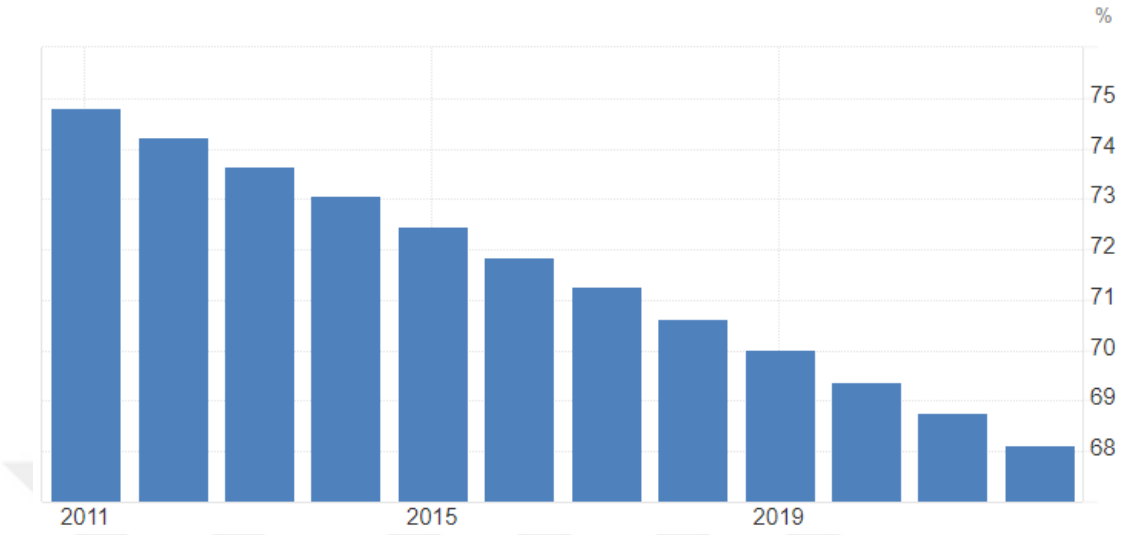
Benin, Burkina Faso, Cote D'Ivoire, Mali and Nigeria have the largest number of people living outside their countries. In this respect, the geographical relationship between the countries in this region has its particular impact and influence on migratory movements within the West African region. Table 4 shows that countries stock more migrants from neighbouring countries. In this case, Nigeria received a total of 377,169 Beninese migrants, Togo 72,330 and Gabon received 52,460 of Benin's population.

When we look at Cabo Verde, we can see that 68,299 Cabo Verdeans live in Portugal, 36,082 in the United States, due to Cabo Verde's geographical position. Guinea, with 167,516 Guineans living in Cote D'Ivoire, 53,430 in Senegal and over 40,000 in Gambia and Mali and 36,058 in Sierra Leone. Nigeria with 169,602 citizens living in Cameroon, 154,739 residing in Niger. For Ghana, 238,284 of the Ghanaian population reside in Nigeria and 111,708 of the population live in Cote D'Ivoire. Senegal still stocks 30,550 migrants from Guinea-Bissau, Gambia with 13,808 Bissau-Guineans. The total population of Mali migrating to Cote D'Ivoire is 522,146, Nigeria 172,481, Mauritania 114,379 and Niger 108,802. Niger has 120,797 of its population living in Nigeria, 78,124 of its population live in Benin, 68,184 live in Cote D'Ivoire, 66,332 in Togo and 13,340 live in Mali. 132,678 of Senegal's population lives in Gambia. 158,262 of Togo's population live in Nigeria, 103,799 live in Ghana and 41,508 live in Cote D'Ivoire.

The most important thing in this table, and the most interesting, is the stock of Burkina Faso's population in Cote D'Ivoire, with 1,376,350 Burkinabés residing there. The main factor in this migratory flow is the difference in economic production between the two countries. The majority of migrants from Burkina Faso move to Cote D'Ivoire to work in the fields producing cocoa. However, these individuals migrate to Cote d'Ivoire in search of employment.

Figure 6

Burkina Faso Rural Population



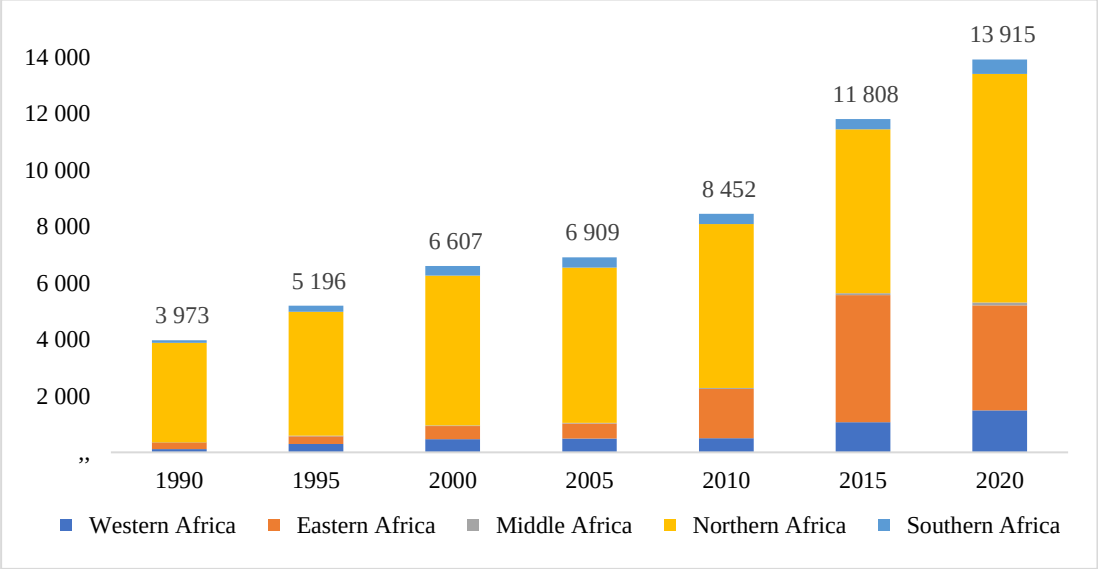
Source: Created by the author using World Bank (2022) data.

According to Figure 6, an important factor can be identified: in 2011, 74% of Burkina Faso's population lived in the subsistence zone (rural area), without access to major employment opportunities. This figure has continued to fall over the years and by 2022 the total population living in rural areas will have dropped to 68%. The people who live in these areas generally migrate to Cote D'Ivoire in search of work and a livelihood for the family members they have left behind.

Another important factor is language proficiency, which also facilitates the migrant's integration into the country of destination. This ends up influencing the migratory flow. In this case, we can see that countries colonised by France and with a French language generally migrate to France, those colonised by England generally migrate to the United Kingdom and the United States of America, in the case of Liberia, Gambia and others. And countries colonised by the Portuguese migrate to Portugal. The people of Guinea-Bissau migrate to Cabo Verde because they speak the same national language (Creole). CaboVerde and Guinea-Bissau have had a brotherly relationship since the beginning of the liberation struggle against the Portuguese. We can also see that the diplomatic relations developed between the countries (mainly between the European countries and the West African countries) have greatly influenced the evolution of the migratory flow.

Figure 7

Distribution of African Immigrants from Different Region to Türkiye, 1995-2020



Source: Created by the author using United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2020) data.

We can see from Table 3 and 4 that Türkiye is not a favoured destination country for West African migrants, due to the limited number of migrants from this region residing in Türkiye. However, migration between Africa and Türkiye, a movement that stretches back to the time of the Ottoman Empire, marks a history of diplomatic relations between the countries of Africa and the Ottoman Empire, especially the countries located in North Africa. The flow of migrants from Africa to Türkiye has increased over the last twenty years. Türkiye has become a target for African migrants in recent years due to its economic growth since the beginning of the 21st century. Despite the high inflation that the country is facing at the moment, Türkiye still remains a destination country for African migrants. Figure 7 shows that the number of migrants in Türkiye has been growing over the years, in 30 years the number of migrants has grown three times (3x) more reaching 13,915 in 2020, and it can be seen that among them the number of migrants coming from West Africa is much smaller than the number of migrants coming from the other regions of Africa (Eastern, Middle, Northern and Southern of Africa).

The continent of Africa has become famous for its geostrategy and its sources of natural wealth that are in the eyes of Western countries, and Türkiye has been no different in expressing its interests in the struggle to exploit these resources. In this

context, Türkiye has developed its foreign policies in African countries, while African migrants living in Türkiye play an important role in the development of a healthy relationship between Türkiye and Africa.

2.2. Assess of SDG Indicators on the Population Mobility from West African Countries to Türkiye

In this study, it was selected some of the 17 Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators to carry out our evaluation. The indicators will be used to understand the reasons and causes for the continued growth in population mobility between West African countries and Türkiye. Although migration is part of the history, culture and daily life of the West African community, Türkiye has only become a target of this history in the last 20 years. It is extremely important to emphasise that there is a push by West African countries to implement migration policies in the states of this region. This phenomenon demonstrates that the states and governments of West African countries are merely aware of the need to valorise studies and approaches relating to migratory movements and their causes.

In West Africa, population growth and urbanisation, among other factors, are constantly on the rise. These causes obviously affect migratory movements both within the region and outside it, giving rise to the need for the states of this region to work collectively in search of a solution, which they started approximately 50 years ago through the creation of the ECOWAS.

Recently, the governments of the West African states have shown that they are ready to meet the challenges posed by migratory flows in the region, while at the same time harnessing the potential of this existing population mobility in the region. Based on this demonstration, several official ECOWAS documents have accepted the free movement of people, goods and services within the region (Devillard et al., 2016: 10). Nevertheless, population movements and integration within the region continue to be affected and hampered by various economic problems, migration laws and customs and monetary policies. There are no official records or sufficient information to report on the case with a broader overview of current migration policies and practices in West African countries.

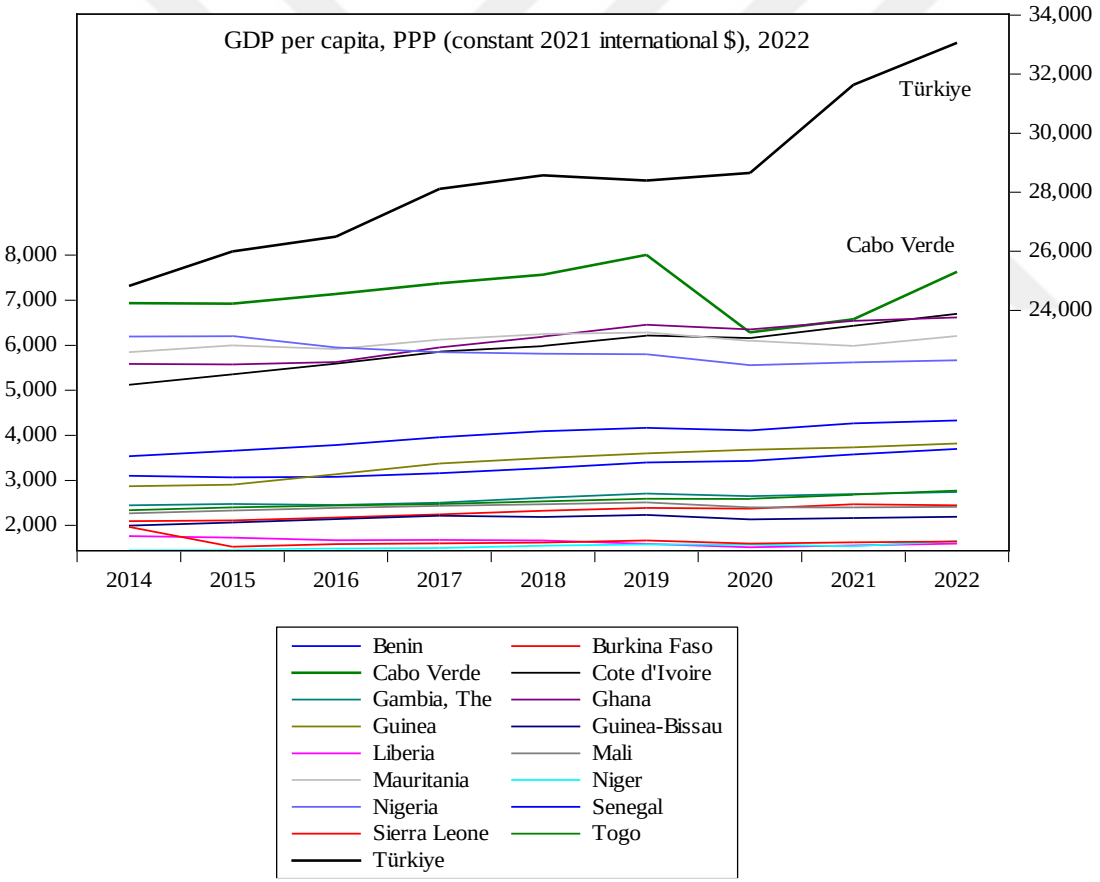
For these and other reasons, the population (mainly young people) in this region still feels the need to move away from the region in order to find something

better for their survival. That's why we can mention Türkiye as a target for escape opportunities.

An evaluation of Türkiye's economic growth since the year 2000 shows that the country has had a strong dynamic since then. According to the 2015 price parity, the domestic product of the Turkish economy was 167 billion Turkish lira (TL) at the end of 2000 and approximately 15 years later, in 2014, the country's gross domestic product (GDP) was 1.7 trillion TL (Sungur, 2015: 247). In the period 2000-2014, the country's economy (gross domestic product) grew by 75 per cent more than the GDP of the initial year mentioned above.

Figure 8

GDP Per Capita of Türkiye and West African Countries



Source: Created by the author using World Bank (2022) data[7].

[7]In Figure 8, right axis represents Türkiye's GDP per capita. West African Countries' GDP per capita is on the left axis.

Figure 8 shows that economic causes may be the key factor in the movement of people from West Africa to Türkiye. The level of the difference in GDP per capita between West African countries and Türkiye shows the primary factor influencing the migratory flow. In this case, we can consider Cabo Verde as a key country among the countries in the region for our comparisons with Türkiye. As a country with similar geographical characteristics to Türkiye, Cabo Verde is also considered a destination country among West African countries.

Cabo Verde, with its 'geographical and demographic' characteristics, is an island country located 500 kilometres off the west coast of Africa, a country made up of a total of 10 islands, of which only one is not yet inhabited by humans, and only 10% of its territory is made up of arable land. The country has very limited natural resources. Demographically, the country is considered to have a total imbalance between the inhabited islands, Santiago with 55.8%, São Vicente 15.5% and Santo Antão with 8.9% of the country's total population, and these are the islands where most of the population is concentrated. In other words, 80.2% of the country's population live on these islands (Anastácio, 2019: 83). According to the population and housing registers carried out in the 2010 census, the total population was 491,875 and according to World Bank total of the population indicator, the country would have a population of 593,149 in 2022.

During the evaluation of the level of poverty in the country, Cabo Verde reduced the level of poverty significantly from 58% to 35% between 2001 and 2015. And what is considered extreme poverty was also reduced from 30% to 10% (Anastácio, 2019: 83). This positive evolution shows that the country is constantly growing economically, due to its economic activities developed in the tourism sector. Other fundamental factors that have contributed to this development are the increase in salaries and investments in urban and rural infrastructure.

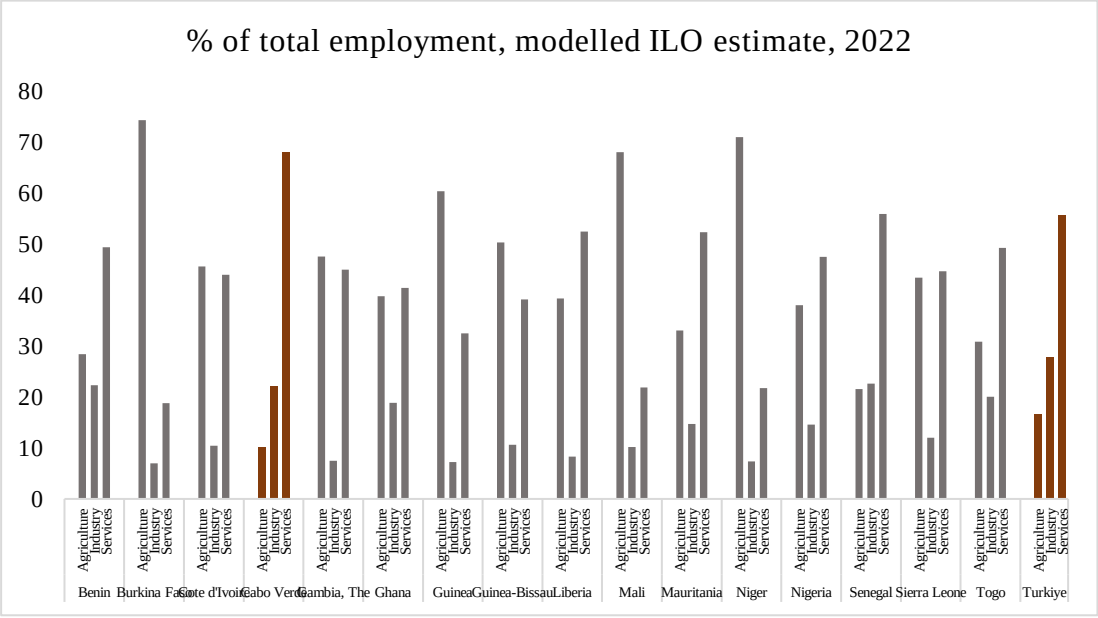
Figure 8 shows that apart from Cabo Verde, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Mauritania and Nigeria, the rest of the West African countries would be under 5,000 US dollars of per capita GDP between 2014 and 2022. According to price parity and international purchasing power, Türkiye is four times (4x) higher than Cabo Verde, and among the West African countries, the Cabo Verde is the country with the highest per capita GDP level of all. In this case, Cabo Verde has the potential to be the destination centre for West African countries. Cabo Verde also has similar geographical characteristics to

Türkiye: Cabo Verde lies between the African, European and Latin American continents, while Türkiye lies between the African, Asian and European continents. This geographical similarity can be a strategic point for migrants, especially for migrants who want to use these countries to reach their destinations.

However, even though the statistics show that Cabo Verde has the potential to be a destination for West African countries, it is not on the list of the top 10 destination countries for migrants in West Africa, due to the geographical situation of Cabo Verde itself, which has no land connection with other countries in the sub-region (an island country) and also because income plays a crucial role in this context. According to the Migration Data Portal, Côte d'Ivoire is the country with the highest number of migrants with 2,564,857, followed by Nigeria with 1,308,568 resident migrants, and by mid-2020 approximately 90% of the migrants (7.4 million migrants) residing in West African countries came from countries in the same region (Migration Data Portal, 2023).

Figure 9

Employment in Agriculture, Industry and Services in West African Countries



Source: Created by the author using World Bank (2022) data.

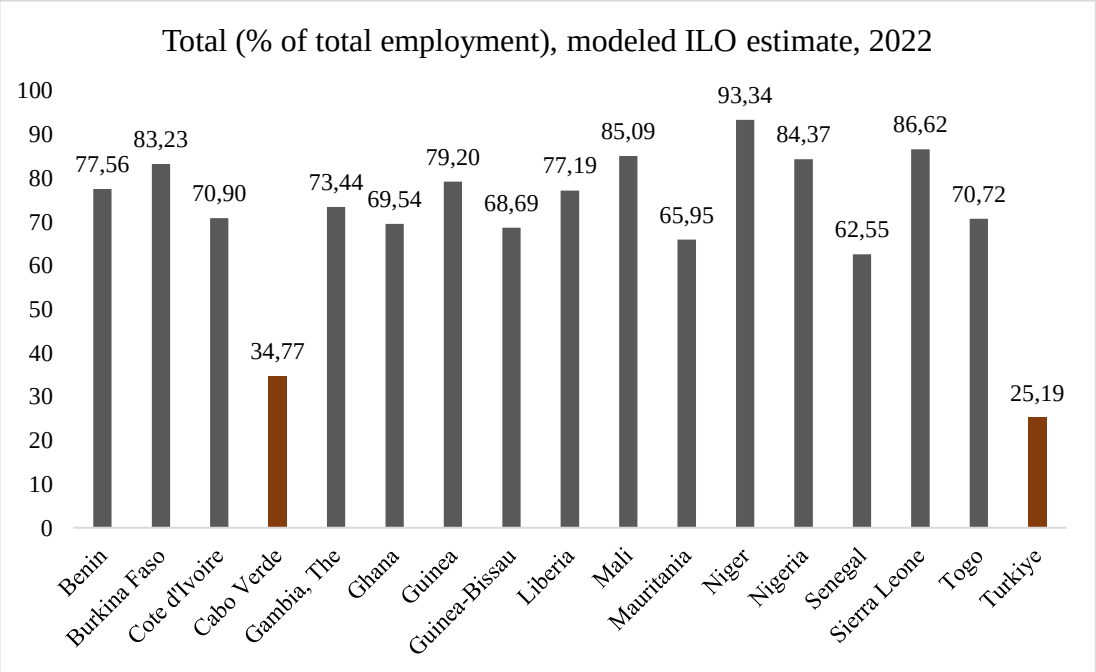
The agricultural sector makes a substantial contribution in most West African countries. An analysis of Figure 9 shows that agriculture is one of the main sources of employment in the countries of this region. Also, the agricultural sector is the most predominant in this region, for example Burkina Faso, Guinea, Mali and Niger have

the highest proportion of labour in agricultural fields (agricultural sector), and the highest percentage of the GDP of these countries is made up of economic activities in the agricultural sector. However, informality in the labour market is considered high in this sector. In countries with a large scale of economic development in the region, the level of employment in the agricultural sector is very low, and economic expansion and modernisation mean that the workforce is growing in urban areas (in the service and industrial sectors).

In Côte d'Ivoire and Nigeria, the industrial and service sectors are alternative employment sectors. Cabo Verde is a leading country in the comparison between West African countries and Türkiye, and the industrial sector is the most predominant among the other employment sectors. It is the only country on the west coast of Africa to reach a higher level of employees in the industrial sector among other employment sectors. However, the country has a similar profile to Türkiye in terms of the distribution of jobs between sectors.

Figure 10

Vulnerable Employment Rate (%)



Source: Created by the author using World Bank (2022) data.

The World Bank defines the indicator of vulnerable employment as family work or self-employment, the type of employment often seen in developing countries. The evidence in Figure 10 proves the impact that the informal labour market has on

migratory movements. Informal jobs are the factors that push individuals to migrate in search of more secure jobs with legal status and labour protection. Cabo Verde, with a 34% level of vulnerable employment, still has the potential to become a destination country, compared to Türkiye with 25%, a figure almost 10% lower than Cabo Verde, which has the potential to be a destination country due to the low level of informality in the labour market. However, labour protection rights are also attractive factors for migrants.

2.2.1. Working Poverty Rate

At the beginning of the 21st century, the UN organisation unveiled its plans for development called the Millennium Development Goals (MDG), a plan to challenge the major global problems affecting humanity. The goals hoped to solve the problems of humidity or reduce the poor conditions of human life. The goals aim to extend the responsibility of states to improve the conditions for human survival. The studies stated that the MDG indicated at the beginning registered a significant reduction, especially in the first twenty-five years. In the period from 1990 to 2015, the level of extreme poverty fell by 33% in the least developed and developing countries (UNDP, 2015: 1; Küfeoglu, 2022: 192).

Sub-Saharan Africa is one of the regions harbouring the highest level of individuals living in extreme poverty, usually caused by various conflicts, poor public administration and low levels of employment opportunities. Records show that one out of every 8 individuals in the world was living in extreme poverty by the year 2012, furthermore, 40% of the total population are living in extremely low conditions in Sub-Saharan Africa, marking 1.90 US dollars (US$) as a daily consumption by these individuals, in other words, almost half of the population of this region lived on 1.9 US$ per day in 2012.

Despite the MDGs being dynamic in reducing extreme poverty over the given 15-year period, the UN organisation wanted to move forward with new actions that bring new updates to the development method, which resulted in the emergence of the SDGs, the goals that aim to end poverty in all its aspects, including the level of high poverty (extreme poverty) by 2030, starting in 2015. All individuals in all parts of the world, including people with extreme poverty and high vulnerability, will benefit from

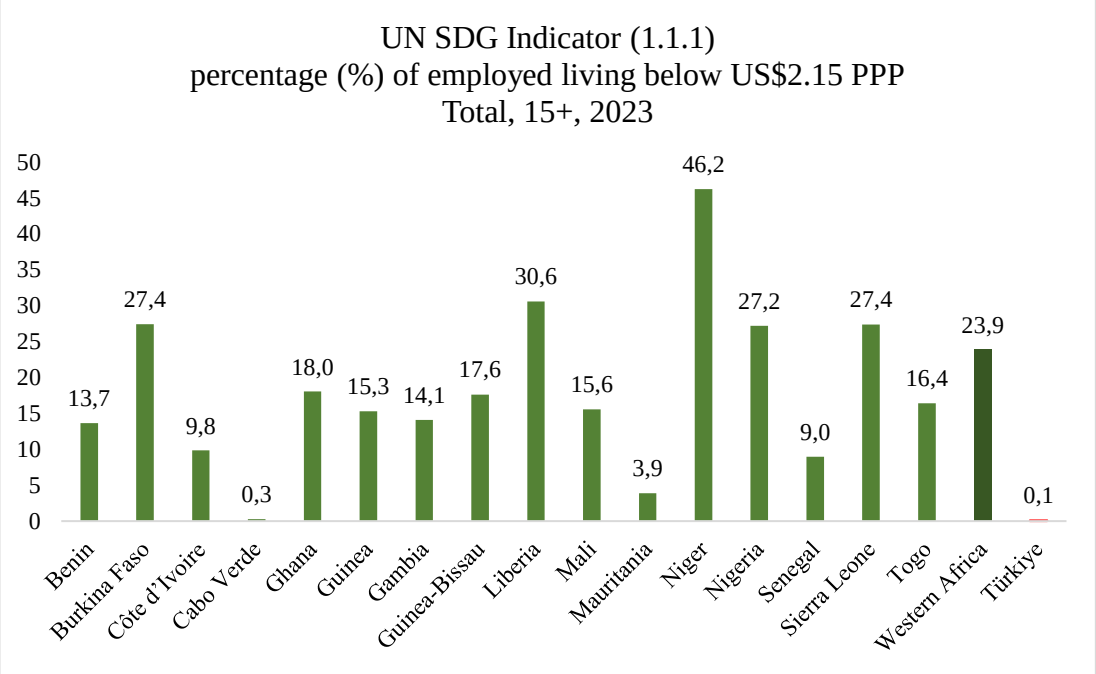
a more basic standard of living, basic needs and protection. This goal (SDG 1: No Poverty) is the first on list of the Sustainable Development Goals.

According to the SDG agreement, after adopting (signing) the 2030 SDG agenda, the governments of all states have committed themselves to ending poverty worldwide, especially the extreme poverty experienced in the world, including in sub-Saharan Africa, by the end of 2030. Without exception, even those affected by conflicts and natural disasters will benefit from support to balance basic living standards and social protection.

To put the SDGs into context, let's start with the working poverty rate, the first target of goal number 1 on the list of SDG, which plays an important role in understanding the level of the working poor, whose incomes are at the very bottom of the poverty line, because of low-paying jobs or family income.

Figure 11

Working Poverty Rate of West African Countries and Türkiye (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 11 shows that Cabo Verde (with 0.3%) is the country with the lowest level of working poverty of all the West African countries. Located 500 kilometres off the west coast of Africa, the Cabo Verdean government has adopted ambitious goals, considering itself to be the first country in West Africa that has planned to completely

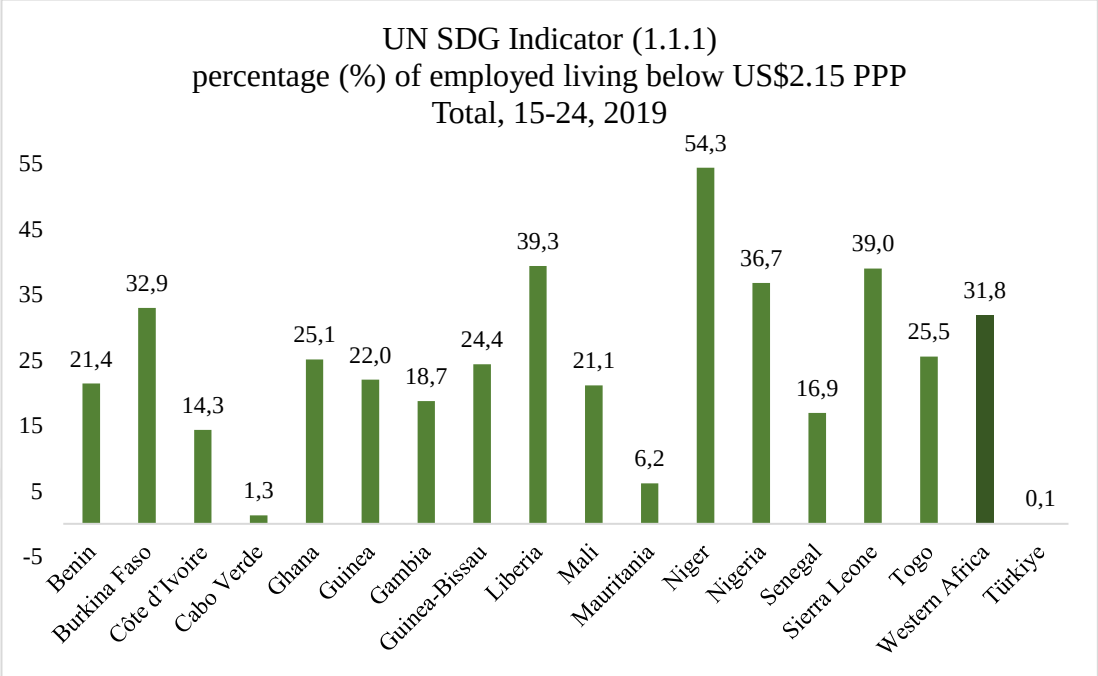
eliminate extreme poverty in its administrative territory by the end of 2026. While Niger with 46.2 per cent is considered the country with the highest level of working poverty in the West African region. The average working poverty rate on the west coast of Africa is 23.9 per cent, which means that one in four workers in this region live in poverty.

Cabo Verde is known for being an exemplary country in its democratic structuring, but it is still considered a frontrunner in reducing the level of poverty on the African continent. The level of its population facing extreme poverty (daily consumption of less than 1.90 US$ fell significantly between 2015 and 2022, from 22.6% in 2015 to 11.1% in 2022, thanks to a major investment in social protection policies in the country. However, this advance in the challenges against extreme poverty in the country has been stunted and interrupted by the economic stagnation caused by the COVID-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2023).

Although Cabo Verde has a very low level of working poverty (0.3% working poverty 15+ in 2023), Türkiye (with 0.1%) has a lower level than Cabo Verde (including all West African countries). Türkiye's position in comparison to the West African countries in terms of working poverty explicitly demonstrates that this could be a potential factor in pushing the population of this region to migrate to Türkiye.

Figure 12

Youth Working Poverty Rate of West African Countries and Türkiye (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 12 analyses working poverty among young people aged between 15 and 25. This figure shows that the working poverty rate among young people (15–25-year-olds) can be considered a key factor and plays as a motivating role in the migratory flows identified in recent years between West African countries and Türkiye. In other words, the working poverty indicator has a potential impact on the movement of young people from this region to Türkiye. Also in this figure, we can see that Cabo Verde, with 1.3 per cent, continues to be an exemplary country in reducing working poverty in West African countries. Türkiye With 1.3% youth working poverty rate, as a driving force, is 1.2 percentage points lower than Cabo Verde, which is also considered one of the countries with the lowest levels of working poverty on the west coast of Africa. Migratory movements between the two sides are inevitable due to the pull factor of Türkiye and the push factor of the West African countries.

2.2.2. Proportion of Population Covered by Social Protection Floors/Systems

In the list of target of the first goal of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG 1-No Poverty), implement social protection systems occupies the 3rd target position. This target aims to guide countries that have adopted the SDG's objectives to implement strategic systems and well-defined social protection measures at the level

of national territories and for all residents of that country, with the aim of achieving a substantial level for the population living in extreme poverty.

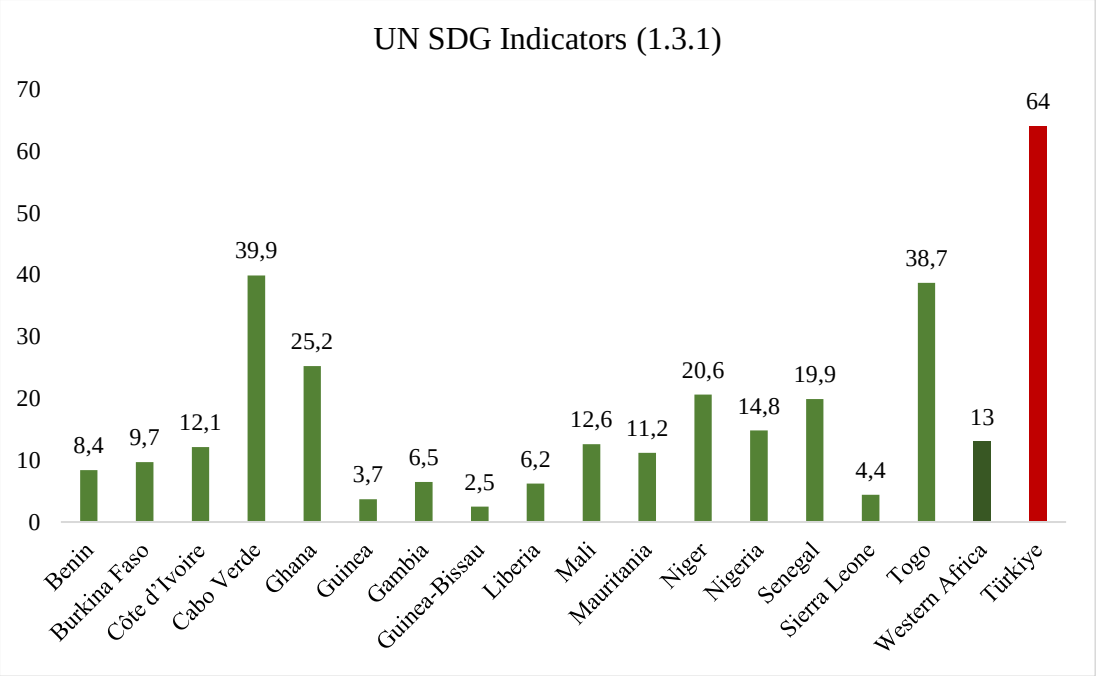
It is believed that in order to reduce poverty in general, it is necessary to improve or implement social protection programmes, basic guidelines and benefits for the most vulnerable or poor people. We can list the programmes and supports that provide social protection as follows:

- ✓ Social assistance for the most vulnerable
- ✓ Monetary support
- ✓ Food products for public and community schools
- ✓ Finally, more specific food assistance for the needy

Developing social security activities and programmes that can increase opportunities for employment are consequently considered social protection, including retirement pensions (old age), exclusive parental allowance for mothers (maternity allowance), unemployment insurance, wage subsidies and other subsidies based on social security. In general, the poorest people are excluded from this social protection system, especially in less developed or developing countries.

Figure 13

Proportion of Population Covered by Social Protection Floors/Systems (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 13 shows the level of social protection in West Africa and Türkiye. The figure shows that among the countries of the West African sub-region, Cabo Verde (39.9 per cent) still has the highest level of social protection, followed by Togo (38.7 per cent). In a brief analysis of the characteristics of social protection in the two countries (Cabo Verde and Togo), we can see that in Cabo Verde, through the system laid down in its Basic Law, the social protection system implemented in the country covers the health sector, education, housing, food, nutrition, labour market insurance, social pensions, protection for the disabled and so on, covering all social structures. According to the ILO, Cabo Verde's GDP grew by 13.3% between 2005 and 2010, and spending or investment in the social protection sector accounted for 5% of the country's GDP (Projeto STEP/Portugal & Bureau Internacional do Trabalho, 2012: 56).

However, in Togo, social protection is characterised as a set of methods implemented by public or private institutions in order to protect the lives of the population against social crises and vulnerability (Organisation internationale du Travail & Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Économiques, 2018: 7). With this definition in mind, the Togolese state acquired the social protection system by developing guidelines and group work (workshops) for stakeholders, which led to the start of the Social Protection Policy Options Tools process. The process was centred more on the social security system such as: old age and disability pensions, compulsory labour and health insurance and allowances.

According to an analysis of Togo's social protection data by the ILO, it was found that the country's social protection system is really well organised in parts based on the evolution of human life, this organisation can be listed as follows:

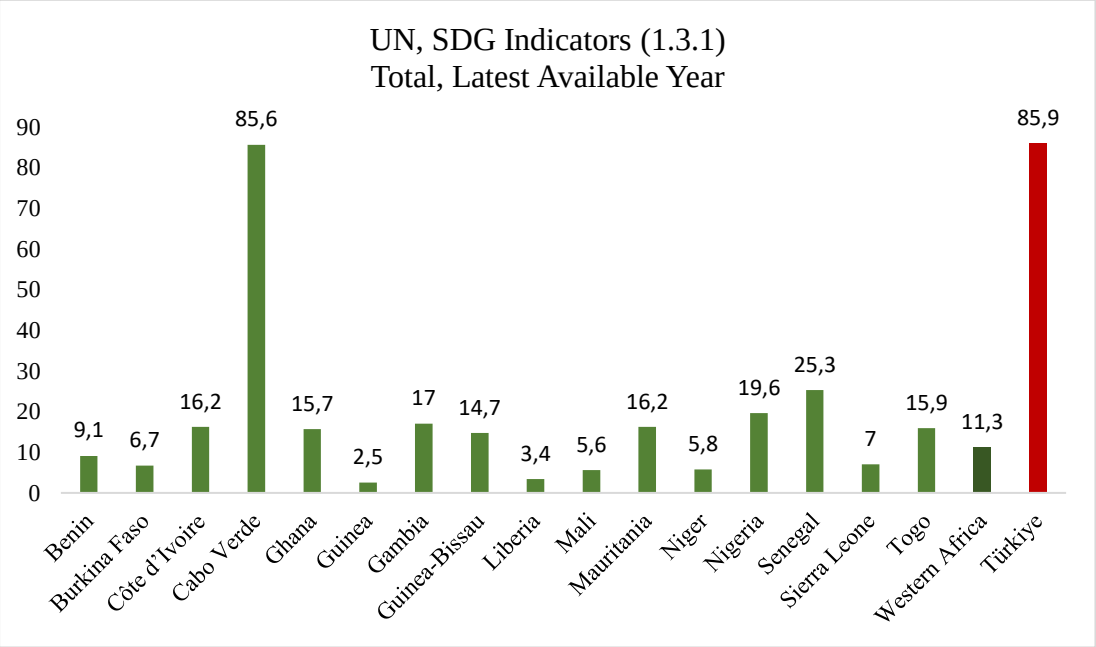
- ❖ The possible accidents that affect the lives of the population are included in the social risks provided for in Covention 102: old age, health care, maternity, high survival risks, accidents caused by work, etc. Unemployment is not one of these risks (not included).
- ❖ The following is a list of expected benefits: Assistance for medical care, old age pensions, benefits for accidents caused by work, invalidity pensions and pensions for survival.
- ❖ The vulnerability caused by extreme poverty and exclusion from social benefits, for which social safety net activities are being developed to reduce it

and meet the needs of people on this category (Organisation internationale du Travail, & Organisation de Coopération et de Développement Économiques, 2018: 8).

However, if we look again at the statistics provided in Figure 13, we see that even though Cabo Verde (39.9%) and Togo (38.7%) have the highest social protection percentages among West African countries, there is still a huge difference between these countries and Türkiye (with 64%). The factor that could possibly be considered one of the factors driving (attracting) people to migrate from these countries to Türkiye. Türkiye in this case has demonstrated its willingness to provide all services equally to the migrants as their citizens as soon as these individuals (migrants) legally have their residences and pay the necessary taxes and social security premiums, except for old age pensions. Türkiye doesn't provide old age pensions for migrants, probably because it's a new country on welcoming a large number of migrants in its history. No social security policy based on old-age pensions has yet been established for migrants living in Türkiye.

Figure 14

Persons Above Retirement Age Receiving a Pension (%)



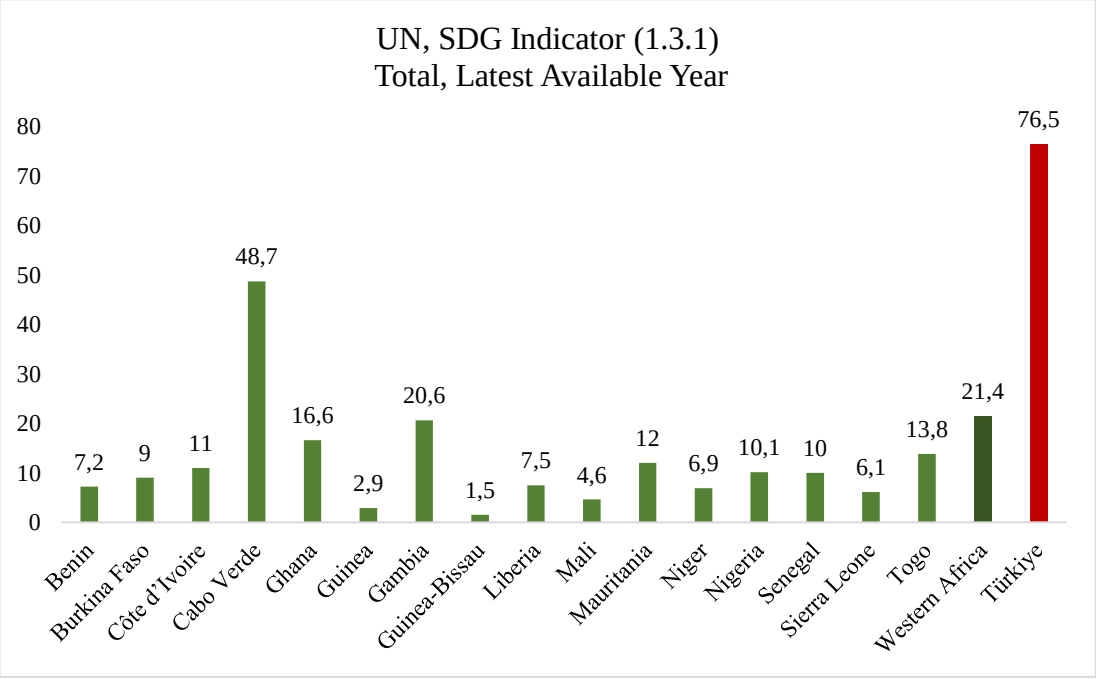
Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data[8].

[8]2019 for Gambia, and Niger; 2020 for Benin, Guinea-Bissau, Liberia, Mauritania, Sierra Leone, and Western Africa; 2021 for Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, and Guinea; 2022 for others countries.

Generally, Cabo Verde is a country that has already adopted social protection policies in the term of pensioner remuneration or old age pensions for individuals of retirement age, following the model of the colonising country (Portugal) since the 1990s. In Figure 14, Cabo Verde has 85.6 per cent of the population of retirement age receiving pensions, making it the only country in West Africa to reach this percentage. All the other countries on the West African coast have a very low level of social security care in terms of pensions for people of retirement age. Türkiye, meanwhile, registers 85.9 per cent of its elderly population receiving pensions in the context of social support and protection. Cabo Verde is competitive with Türkiye, but Türkiye is an attractive (pull) country for migrants from West African countries in this regard. According to the percentages on Figure 14, in West African countries there is only one in ten people of retirement age is benefiting from old-age pensions or retirement pay (is on social protection in the context of retirement).

Figure 15

Employed Covered in the Event of Work Injury



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data[9].

[9]2019 for Ghana, Gambia, Liberia, Niger, Senegal, and Sierra Leone; 2020 for Benin, Guinea-Bissau, Mauritania, and Western Africa; 2021 for Burkina Faso, Cabo Verde, and Guinea; 2022 for others.

As for the protection of workers' rights (social protection), accidents caused by work are covered by the employer under normal conditions. However, in West African countries, only Cabo Verde (48.7%) achieves almost half of the accidents caused by work that are covered by the employers of these workers. The rest of the countries have a very low level of cases covered by employers. However, if we compare these countries with Türkiye, we can see in the Figure 15 that Türkiye has 76.5 per cent of all workers who are able to benefit from these rights provided by social protection. The lack of coverage for employees in cases of accidents caused by work can be considered one of the factors that is driving young people from West Africa to migrate to Türkiye. The absence of this factor has already caused the human capital flight and labour force in all sub-Saharan African countries to other more developed countries (in this case, it refers more to countries on the European and American continent).

2.2.3. Annual Growth Rate of Output per Worker

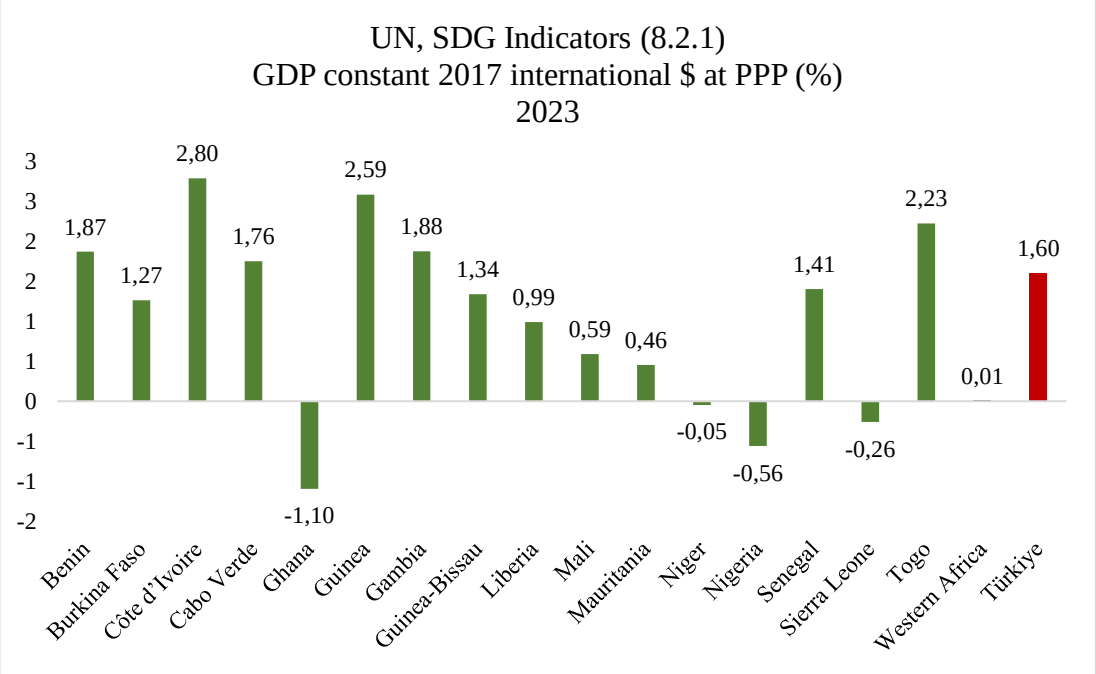
The annual growth rate of output per worker refers to the annual labour productivity within a given economy (country), the second target of the eighth indicator (8th-Decent Work and Economic Growth) among the SDG. A crucial indicator that is deeply connected to a country's economic growth. The labour productivity factor is the total size of production within an economy (a given administrative territory or a country), which is calculated by the GDP and total workers or total hours worked within a given period of time; three months, six months, a year or more. Data analysts use this indicator to assess the value and quantity of the GDP input of a given economy (country) in relation to labour and the level of growth over a given reference time. The results of the analysis make it possible to provide information on the quality of human capital and the labour force used during the reference period.

Landmann (2004) identified the connections between employment, productivity and production growth in a given economy and illustrated the nature of these connections over time. Obviously, these connections include the reduction of poverty. He emphasised in his words, based on the phrase of the author "Paul Krugman", that ‘productivity, income distribution and unemployment’, if people are satisfied with these three elements, nothing is considered to be going wrong, but if not, nothing can go right (Krugman, 1990 as cited in Landmann, 2004: 1). These words connect with the basic principles of poverty reduction mentioned in the previous paragraphs. In

order to combat poverty in general, it is crucial to maintain full employment, the growth of workers' production and to be fair in the distribution of income.

Figure 16

Annual Growth Rate of Output Per Worker



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 16 shows the annual growth of labour productivity rates per worker, and it can be seen that in some West African countries, for example Cote d'Ivoire and Guinea, the level of growth in annual labour productivity per worker is higher than in other West African countries. What is most striking is Ghana (-1.10%) and Nigeria (-0.56%), which recorded high negativity. In the same figure, it can be seen that Türkiye with 1.6% and Cabo Verde with 1.76% of annual growth rates in productivity per worker still show similar characteristics in this indicator. This indicator has a major influence on the annual growth of a country's GDP. The factors that attract the West African population to migrate to Türkiye (population mobility) are not identified through this indicator, apart from the quantity of the employed population, it is commented that Türkiye's GDP estimate is higher than all the West African countries.

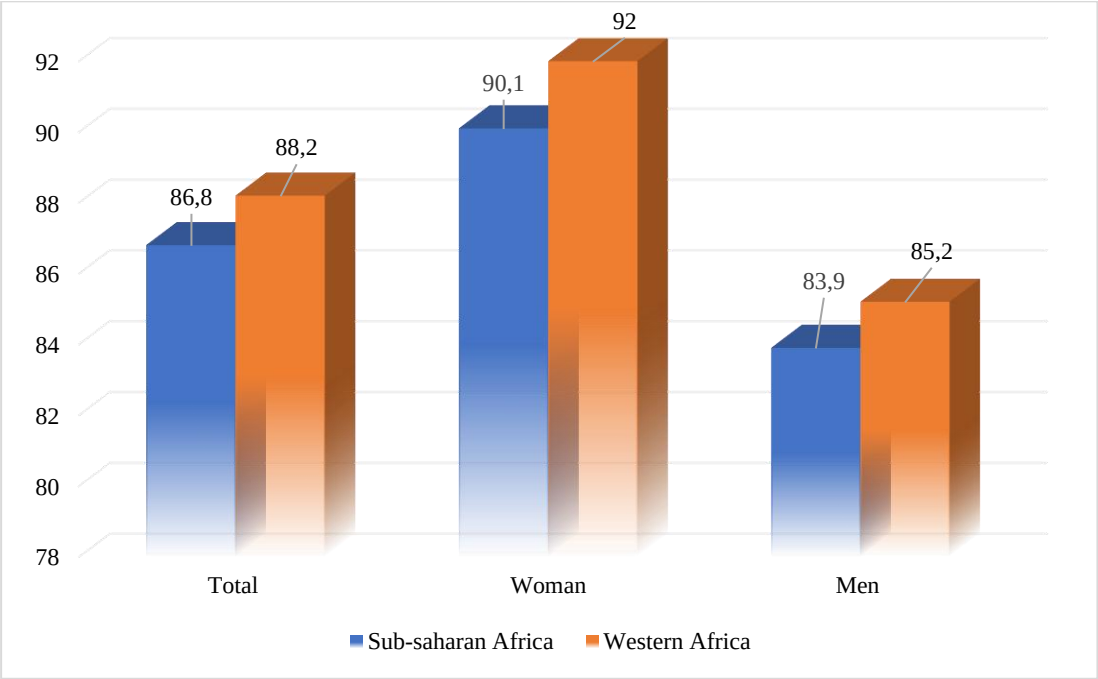
2.2.4. Proportion of Informal Employment in Total Employment

According to ILO, 84% of workers on the African continent are employed in the informal sector. Although the main source of employment on the African continent

is the informal sector, there is a huge difference between sub-Saharan Africa and the North African sub-region in terms of socio-economic development. The total rate of those employed in the informal sector in sub-Saharan Africa is 87 per cent, while in the North African sub-region the total number of those employed in the informal sector is 67 per cent. However, if we exclude the agricultural sector, this level of employees in the informal sector drops to 77 per cent for the countries of the Sub-Saharan Africa sub-region and 65 per cent for the countries of the North Africa sub-region (ILO, 2023: 81).

Figure 17

Informal Employment in Africa Sub-Saharan and West Africa (%), 2019



Source: ILO (2023).

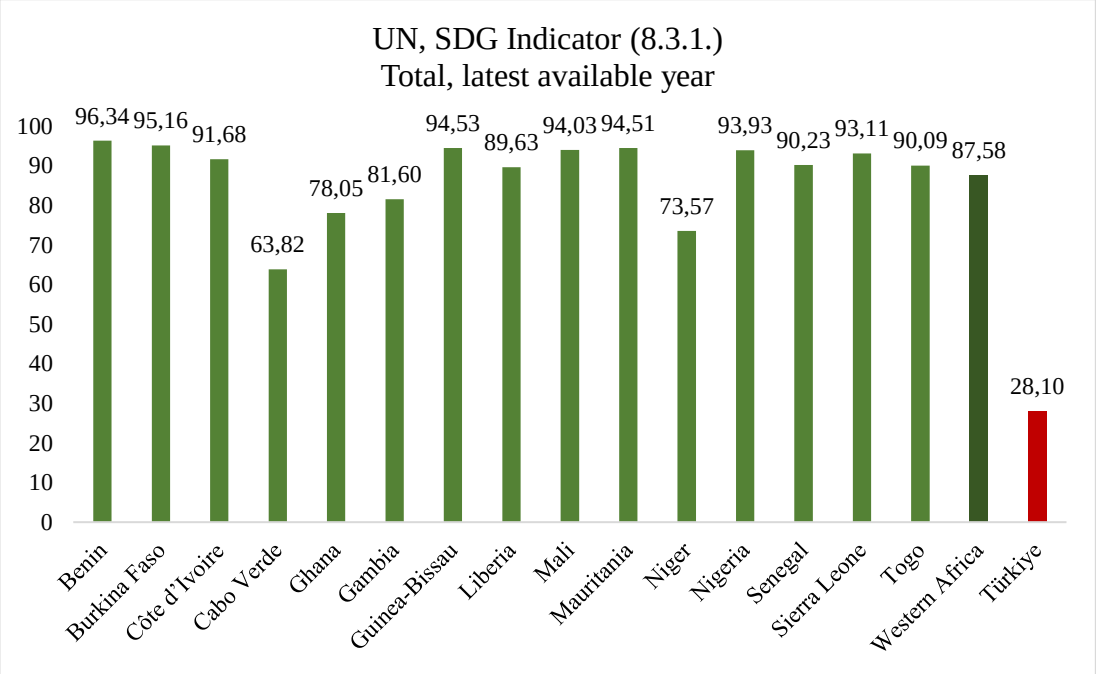
Figure 17 shows that this sector is considered one of the main sources of labour for women in sub-Saharan Africa, meaning that 90.1% of women are employed in the informal sector, while only 83.9% of men are employed in this sector. And if we analyse Figure 17 again, we see that 88.2% are employed in the informal sector in the West African sub-region, in which 92% of the women and 85% of the men are employed in this sector.

The proportion of informal employment in total employment is the third target of the eighth indicator (8th-Decent Work and Economic Growth) of the SDG. This target helps us to understand the level of implementation of social protection policies

in a country. Figures 17 and 18 show that the level of informality in the African labour market is still high, which implies the consequences of a worker's lack of protection and signals the level of absence of social protection within African nations.

Figure 18

Informal Employment in Total Employment in West Africa and Türkiye (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data [10].

The informal employment sector is the most predominant sector in West African countries. Figure 18 shows that the total percentage of workers in the informal sector is over 70% in all West African countries, except for Cabo Verde with 63.82% of employees in the informal sector, which is the only country in this sub-region with a low level of informal employment among all the other countries. If we compare Türkiye with the other countries, we can see that there is a huge difference between the two regions, so Türkiye is still a country of attraction for the citizens of West African countries. Figure 18 shows that 28.10 per cent of all employees in Türkiye are working in the informal sector. This can be considered one of the factors in the migratory flow experienced in recent years between Türkiye and West Africa.

[10] For 2015 we have Cabo Verde, and Ghana; For 2017 we have Liberia, Mauritania, Niger, and Togo; for 2018 we have Sierre Leone; for 2019 we have Côte d'Ivoire, and Senegal; for 2020 we have Mali; for 2022 we have Benin, Guinea-Bissau, Nigeria, and Türkiye, for 2023 we have for other countries. Data for Guinea is not available on the source.

2.2.5. Unemployment Rate

To better understand the eighth SDG goal and the second indicator of its fifth target (8.5.2. Unemployment Rate), we will explain the following: Goal 8 aims to develop sustainable economic growth by achieving labour productivity and full and fair employment for all people; the fifth target of this goal (8.5) is focused on achieving full employment, labour productivity and fair employment for all people, both men and women, without excluding young people with disabilities, with the wage rate equal to the value of labour; and the second indicator of this target 8.5.2 unemployment rate by gender, age, and people with disabilities' (United Nations, 2024).

Generally, an unemployed person is defined as a person aged 15 or over who is not employed somewhere for profit (usually an agreed salary), i.e. an individual who has been involved in job-seeking activities for a certain period of time, ready to be employed and paid (usually monetary benefits). On the other hand, the labour force is defined as the total number of people of working age (15+) in employment and those who for some reason have lost their jobs in search of another job or those who don't want to work for personal pleasure (these individuals generally don't get involved in looking for work).

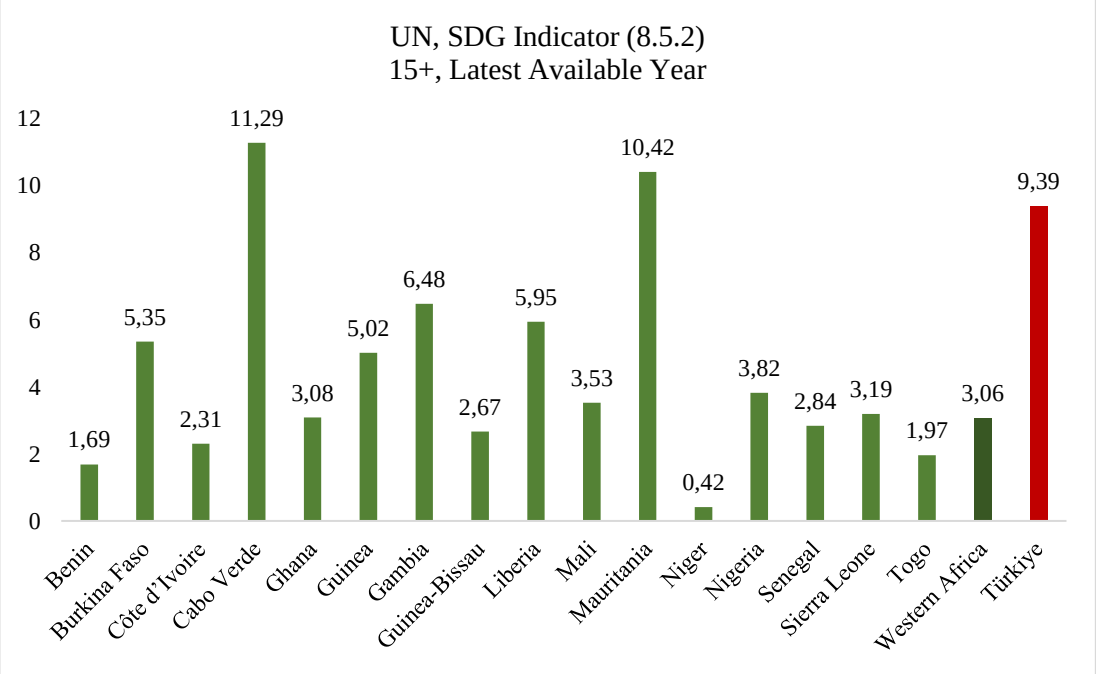
According to the ILO (2020), there is a rapid growth of the labour force on the African continent. In 2020, the total number of young people of working age between 15 and 25 made up 23.6% of the world's youth population. In various regions of the world, the labour force between the ages of 15 and 25 has remained the same, in some regions it has declined, while on the African continent the number of people in the labour force has doubled from 61.8 million in 1990 to 115.8 million in 2020. Unfortunately, the African continent is the only area where the labour force is spreading to other regions of the planet (migration caused by limited employment opportunities), which has meant a decline in recent years (ILO, 2020: 20). And the labour force on the African continent is expected to grow enormously by 2050.

In West Africa, the total percentage of working-age people participating in the labour market is higher than the average participation rate in sub-Saharan Africa. In 2016, Burkina Faso registered an estimated 83% of the total labour force participating in the labour market. The fact is that these percentages are decreasing, and sub-Saharan

Africa is experiencing a slight decline in terms of youth labour force participation, including West Africa (Mbaye & Gueye, 2018: 3).

Figure 19

Total of Unemployment Rate (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.[11]

In Figure 19, the data used pertains to different years. In this figure, we can see that unemployment rates in West African countries are at a low level, resulting in 3.06%, an average unemployment rate for the entire sub-region. For some countries in the sub-region, in the case of Niger with 0.42%, this is a very low rate compared to the rest of the countries. What is striking in the graph are the unemployment rates for Cabo Verde 11.29% and Mauritania 10.42%, both countries having unemployment levels very close to each other. However, Türkiye's unemployment rate is estimated at 9.39% according to Figure 19, a level slightly lower than the two countries (Cabo Verde and Mauritania).

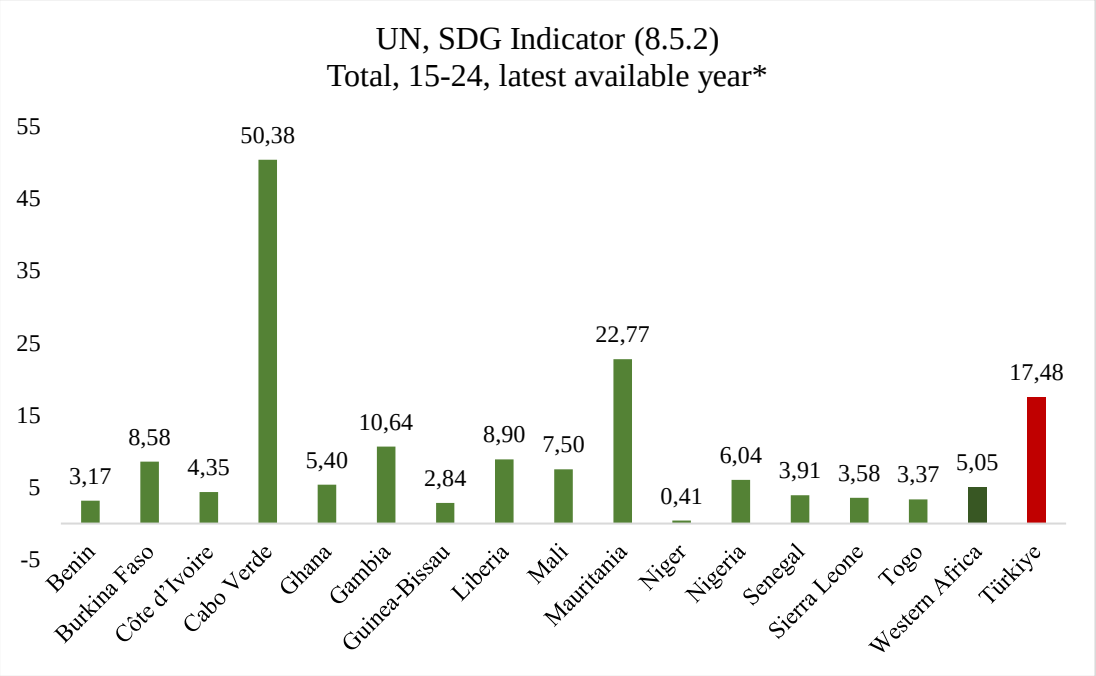
From the data provided in Figure 19, we can see that the total number of working-age people looking for a job in these countries is very low. If we compare the other West African countries (with the exception of Cabo Verde and Mauritania) with

[11] Actually, for 2017 we have Liberia; for 2018 we have Sierra Leone; for 2019 we have Cabo Verde, Guinea, and Mauritania; for 2020 we have Mali; for 2022 we have Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, and Togo; and for 2023 we have other countries.

Türkiye, it is possible to realise that working-age people already have very low hopes of getting their dream job, which motivates them to stop looking for work. However, this situation incentivizes many individuals to engage in the informal sector, resulting in a significant number turning to such economic activities. Low hopes of getting their dream job have motivated many young people in this sub-region to migrate to other countries (including Türkiye) where they hope to get their dream job. Also, in Cabo Verde and Mauritania, the number of people of working age looking for work is higher than in other West African countries. This indicates the level of expectation of young people in their countries and how much they intend to migrate to other countries. So, we can consider this to be one of the motivating factors for migratory movements from West Africa to Türkiye.

Figure 20

Unemployment Rate (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 20[12] illustrates the unemployment rate of young people of working age between 15 and 25 in West African countries and Türkiye. The figure shows that Cabo

[12] 2017 for Liberia; 2018 for Sierra Leone; 2019 for Cabo Verde, and Mauritania; 2020 for Mali; 2022 for Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, and Togo; 2023 for others. Data for Guinea is not available.)

Verde, with 50.38% of the population unemployed and looking for work, has a very ambitious youth population, a motivation inspired by the country's own governmental administration. Cabo Verde, with half of its population of active young people looking for work, is seen as a country with the highest rate of unemployed active young people. The rest of the West African countries have very low rates of unemployed active young people looking for work. You can see that the young people of this West African sub-region have totally exhausted their hope due to limited employment opportunities, which led some of them to work in the informal sector. If we compare these countries with Türkiye (17.48%), we can identify the motivating factor for migratory movement from West Africa to Türkiye.

2.2.6. Proportion of Youth not in Education, Employment or Training

To specify the number of young people who are no longer attending school, working or participating in training in order to become employed, governments use the formula established for the proportion of youth not in education, employment or training (NEET) to calculate the total number of young people with these characteristics in their countries. The method or formula used to calculate the proportion of youth (15-24) not in education, employment or training generally identified as NEET rate is as follows:

Formula 1.

$$\frac{\text{Youth} - \text{Youth in employment} - \text{Youth not in employment but in education or training}}{\text{Youth} * 100} = NEET\ Rate$$

It should be noted that young people with jobs and others still studying or acquiring some training at the same time cannot be included twice after being removed (subtracted) from the total number of young people during the calculation. It is possible to express the equation in another way:

Formula 2.

$$NEET\ rate = \frac{((\text{Unemployed youth} + \text{Youth outside the labour force}) - (\text{Unemployed youth in education or training} + \text{Youth outside the labour force in education or training}))}{\text{Youth} * 100}$$

This indicator (8.6.1 - Proportion of Youth (aged 15-24 years) Not in Education, Employment or Training) is one of the indicators of the sixth target of the

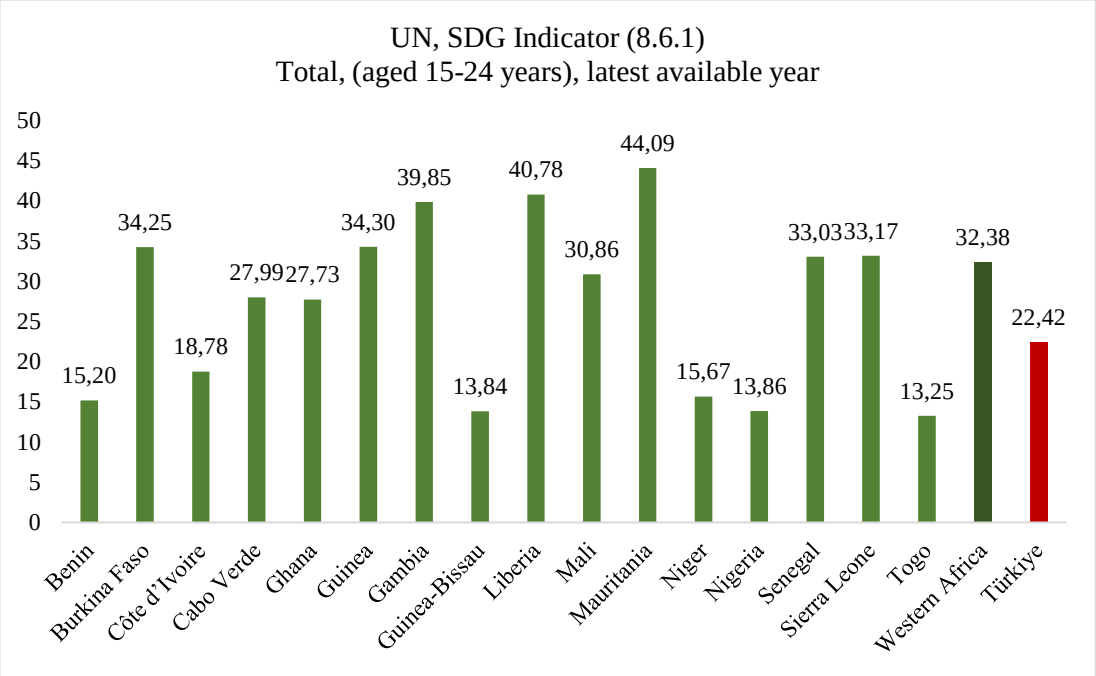
eighth goal of the SDG. The eighth goal (8th-Decent Work and Economic Growth) consists of developing continuous (sustained) economic growth, full employment and productivity and fair employment for the whole world. Within this goal there is the sixth target, which is to reduce the number of young people who are not studying, not working and not taking part in any personal or professional training by 2030.

In order to carry out a more comprehensive assessment, it is necessary to know more about the factors that define the proportion of youth NEET, and it is also crucial to assess the perspectives of young people in various fields.

The large number of young people included in the NEET category - those who don't go to school, don't work or don't take part in training - in Africa have abandoned the search for work due to the desperation seen on the continent, the majority of young people remain without knowing what to do or where to go, these individuals are automatically excluded because they are no longer actively looking for work. And there is another group of young people who are still looking for a job and can't find one. These two groups have made it possible to divide the two groups of young people into two categories: active young people and non-active (inactive) young people (Mbaye & Gueye, 2018: 9).

Figure 21

Proportion of Youth Not in Education, Employment or Training (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data[13].

Figure 21 illustrates the proportion of young people aged between 15 and 24 who do not attend school, do not work and do not even take part in any vocational training in West African countries and Türkiye. This figure shows that Guinea-Bissau (13.84 per cent), Nigeria (13.86 per cent) and Togo (13.25 per cent) are the West African countries with the lowest NEET rates; these countries have around 13 per cent of the young population not studying, not working and much less taking part in vocational training. On the other hand, you can see that Gambia with 39.85%, Liberia with 40.78% and Mauritania with 44.09% of the young population not attending school, not in employment and not attending any training. These three countries are the highest among West African countries in terms of the proportion of youth NEET indicator. Therefore, in this case, Türkiye has 22.42 per cent of its young population with NEET status.

Countries such as Guinea, Gambia, Liberia, Mauritania and others that have high NEET rates, are the countries where parents and guardians often take their

[13]Years: 2017 for Liberia; 2018 for Sierra Leone; 2019 for Cabo Verde, Guinea, and Mauritania; 2020 for Mali; 2022 for Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, and Togo; 2023 for other countries.

children to study in traditional schools, these schools are usually Koranic schools, and the largest number of students are admitted to these schools. The governments of West African countries have yet to officially recognise these schools in their education systems and they continue to be excluded from the education system. These factors are still having a negative effect on evaluations as it is, and NEET education rates are still high for these reasons.

2.2.7. Level of National Compliance with Labour Rights

While assessing a country's social protection in relation to issues linked to workers' rights, they use the SDG indicator - Level of National Compliance with Labour Rights - to measure the level of a worker's fundamental rights. This indicator is directly linked to the freedom of association and collective bargaining (FACB), an association whose principles are based on the supervision of ILO to protect workers' rights in its member countries.

Level of national compliance with labour rights indicator (8.8.2) is in the second position of the eighth target of goal number 8 of the SDG, a target which consists of promoting the protection of workers' rights and safety in the workplace for all employees, without excluding migrant employees, especially female migrants, even in precarious jobs. This indicator is among the indicators of this eighth target of the goal. As the second indicator of this target, its function is to assess the level of a nation's compliance with basic labour rights for all countries that are part of the ILO.

According to the description of the Statistics Department of the International Labour Organization (ILOSTAT), a solution for this indicator was adopted at the 20th International Conference of Labour Statisticians organised in 2018, suggesting that the ILO must be the organisation to monitor this indicator, proposing new evaluation methods for this indicator. The implementation and success of this indicator is assessed between the numbers 0 and 10, with the number zero (0) representing the highest level of labour rights compliance and the number 10 being assessed as the lowest level of labour rights compliance. The calculation for this indicator is based on the following, where x is equal to the non-normalised score for a country and year and is limited to 95:

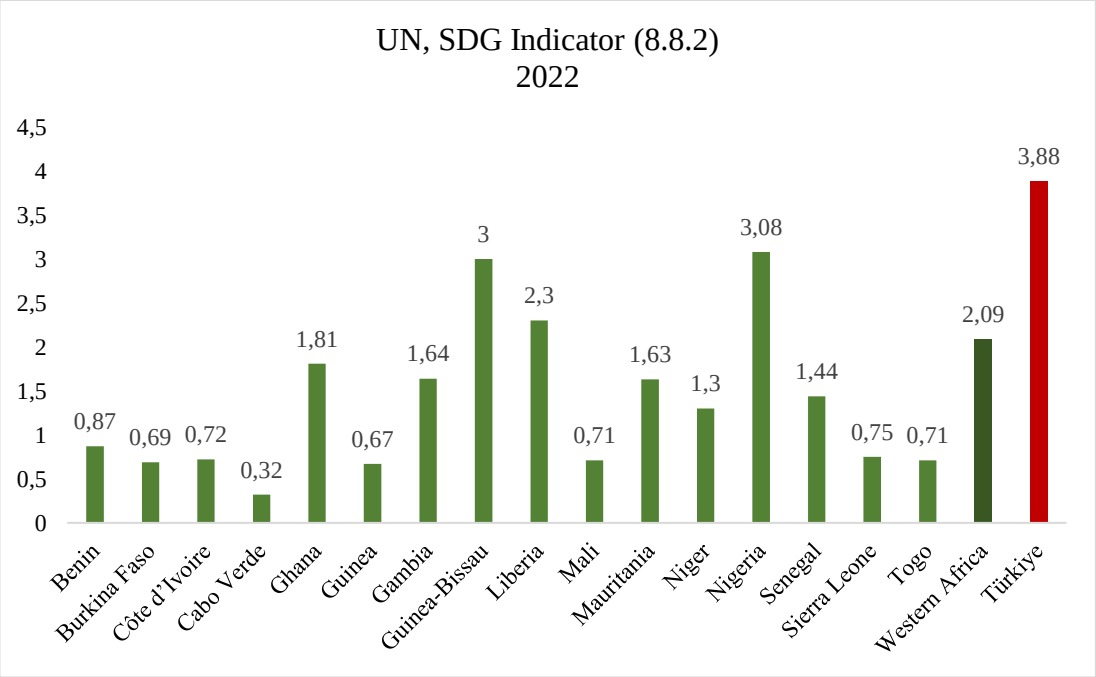
Formula 3.

$$\frac{x * 10}{95}$$

In this case the x is equal to the non-normalised score for a country and year and is limited to 95.

Figure 22

Level of National Compliance with Labour Rights (FACB)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 22 shows the level of national compliance with labour rights of the West African countries, the average of the West African sub-regions and Türkiye. This figure 22 shows that Cabo Verde, Guinea, Mali Sierra Leone and Togo have an adequate level of compliance with labour rights. Other countries such as Guinea-Bissau, Liberia and Nigeria have a lower level of compliance with labour rights. And if we look at the average of the West African countries, we see that the sub-region has a value of between 1-3, which explicitly shows that the sub-region is in a normal situation with regard to the social protection of workers' rights, but this figure still needs to be improved so that it can at least approach zero. However, if we compare Türkiye (3.5-4) with the countries of the West African sub-region, it is possible to say that Türkiye scores considerably higher than the various countries in the region. These results that Türkiye has in terms of labour rights compliance need to be improved.

Just as we mentioned that the West African countries, despite demonstrating positivity in terms of the national level of compliance with labour rights, still need to improve the figures by bringing them closer to zero. In this context, the Organisation of Trade Unions of West Africa (OTUWA), an organisation that aims to work as the workers' union in this sub-region, has developed a cooperation link with one of the most influential organisations in the sub-region (ECOWAS), putting forward proposals that aim to develop a review of the policies that focus on labour rights already established by the organisation (OTUWA, 2016: 19).

2.2.8. Manufacturing Employment as a Proportion of Total Employment

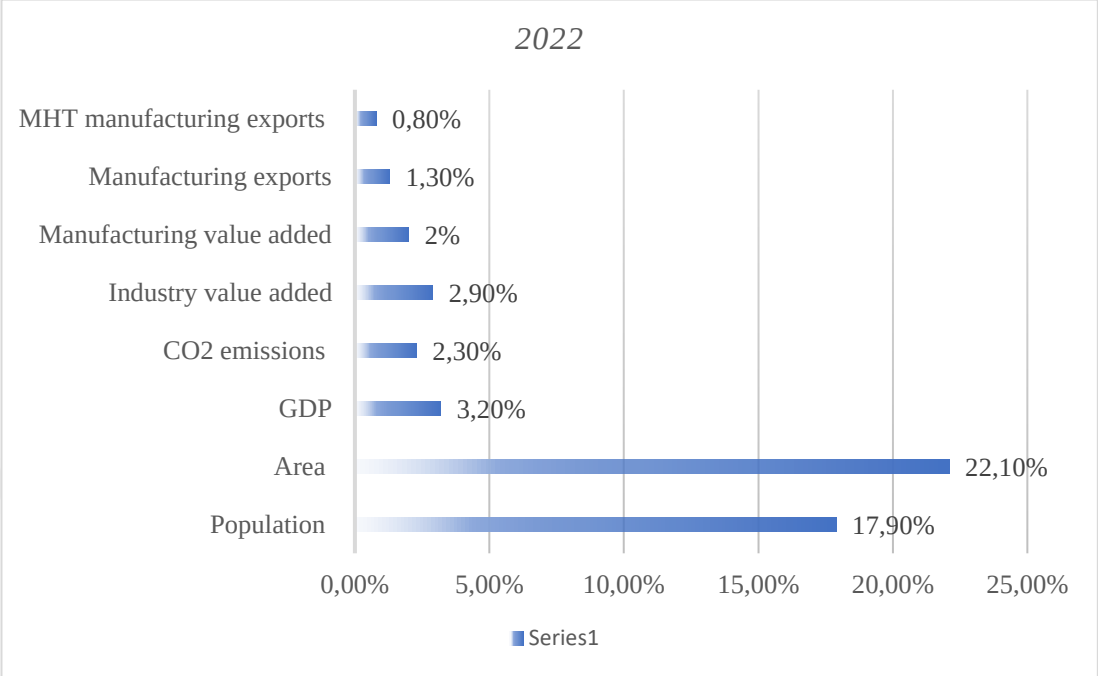
The Manufacturing Employment as a Proportion of Total Employment indicator (indicator 9.9.2) is the second indicator of the ninth target of the SDG. The ninth goal is designed to develop resilient infrastructure, industrialise and promote innovation. Meanwhile, the second target of this goal consists of developing the industrialisation sector in a sustainable way and greatly increasing the share of industry jobs and GDP, in line with the circumstances in the country.

The African continent is home to one fifth of the world's population and also has one fifth of the world's land space. Despite this size, its contribution to productivity in the industrial sector (in this case only manufacturing value added (MVA)) is calculated at 2% of the world's gross domestic product. If we include all other sectors based on industry production, Africa still has a percentage contribution to the world's GDP, which is calculated at 3% of the world's total GDP. Regarding this percentage, the countries of North Africa have the highest contribution in the MVA sector. This is followed by the West African sub-region (there has been an improvement in this region in the last 10 years), accompanied by a reduction in productivity in the Southern sub-region, and the other sub-regions of Africa (Eastern and Central) have the lowest percentages of all the sub-regions of Africa (UNIDO, 2023: 1).

Although there have been crises on the African continent in recent years, the manufacturing sector has continued to show significant performance in its sustained growth. Most importantly, women's participation in the sector has surpassed that of men in general. Only in the Southern Africa sub-region is there a decline in the growth of the manufacturing industry.

Figure 23

Share of Africa in the World Economy



Source: UNIDO (2023)[14].

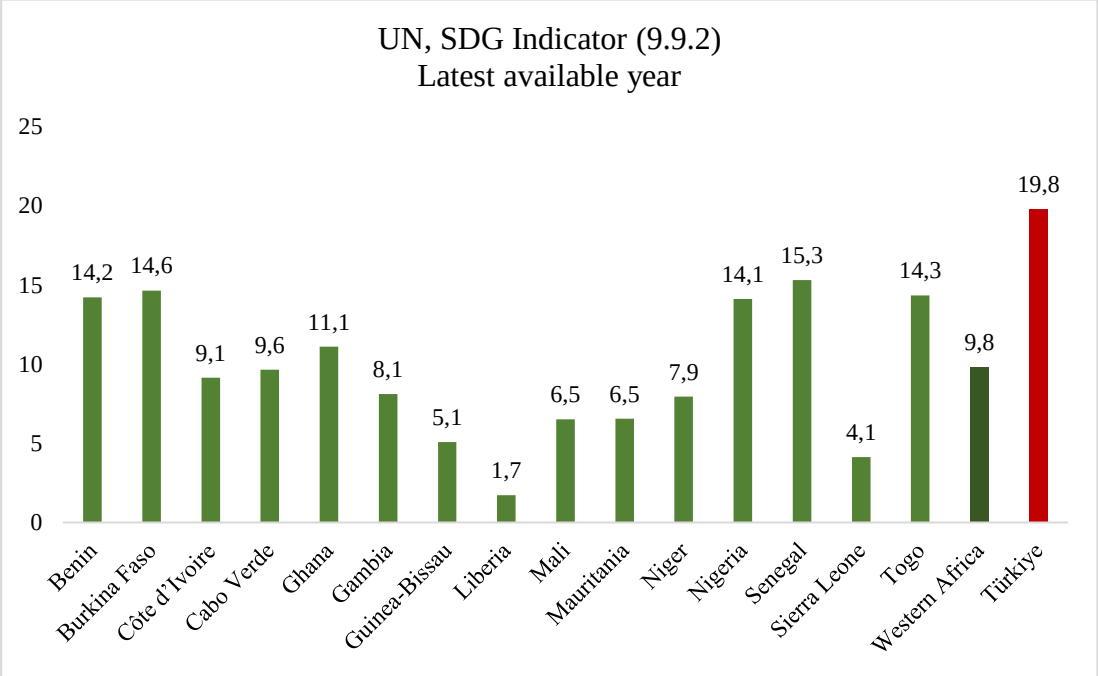
Figure 23 shows that 17% of the world's population lives on the African continent, and the continent occupies 22.10% of the world's territory. And if we evaluate the African continent's economic contribution to the world's GDP through industrial production, we can see that Africa has a 3% contribution to the world's GDP. And if we look at manufacturing value added in particular, we can see that the impact is just 2%, a level that needs to be increased to meet the needs of the population living on the continent.

According to Statista data, the industrial sector will account for around 14.7% of total employment on the African continent in 2021. This percentage of the population employed in the industrial sector has grown slightly in recent years, if we compare this percentage with the growth recorded in 2010, which reached 13.6% of the total population employed in this sector, as this was considered the percentage of total employment in the secondary industrial sector.

[14] Figures for CO2 emissions are for 2020. CO2 = carbon dioxide; MHT = medium-high and high technology industries.

Figure 24

Manufacturing Employment as a Proportion of Total Employment (%)



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.[15]

Figure 24 shows the level of manufacturing employment as a proportion of total employment in the countries of West Africa and Türkiye. The figure shows that Benin, Burkina Faso, Nigeria, Senegal and Togo have slightly higher manufacturining employment/total employment ratio compared to other countries in the sub-region. It is important to note that Benin and Burkina Faso are among the countries with the highest cotton production on the African continent. Nigeria is in fifteenth position among the countries with the highest oil production in the world and if we consider the number of Nigeria's population and analyse the rate shown in Figure 24, we can see that for a country like Nigeria this would mean great success. Manufacturing is currently considered one of the main forces behind the country's economic progress, even when world oil prices fell in 2014. Nigeria is certainly considered the largest economy on the continent. Senegal is the fourth largest economy in the West African sub-region, and one of the largest economic activities consists of the service sector, while the influence of the agricultural sector and the industrial sector does not reach the level of the service sector. Despite being a newly independent country (1960) like

[15] 2017 for Liberia; 2018 for Sierra Leone; 2019 for Cabo Verde, and Mauritania; 2020 for Mali; 2022 for Benin, Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana, Guinea-Bissau, Niger, Nigeria, Senegal, Togo, and Western Africa; 2023 for others. Data for Guinea is not available.

the other countries on the west coast of Africa, the country has managed to implement import policies for industrialisation in the country, all industries benefit from protection, these policies were implemented shortly after independence to protect the industrial zones built by the French colony at the time. Today the country has a high manufacturing employment rate compared to other countries in the sub-region.

In Togo, agriculture is the most predominant sector and employer, accounting for the majority of the country's economy. Meanwhile, the country is focussing on developing the industrial sector (lighter manufacturing) with the manufacture of products such as textiles, basic foodstuffs, assemblies and so on. The country aims to develop the sector to promote the greatest number of jobs in the country.

So, if we compare the West African countries with Türkiye in terms of manufacturing employment in Figure 24, we can see that Türkiye is far ahead of the countries in this sub-region. Türkiye has grown significantly in the industrial sector, adding to the volume of industrial zones in recent years, and aims to increase the number of industrial zones further. However, if we look at this factor, we can conclude that the migratory movement between West African countries and Türkiye is also due to this factor of employment in the industrial sector (manufacturing).

2.2.9. Labour Income Share as a Percent of GDP

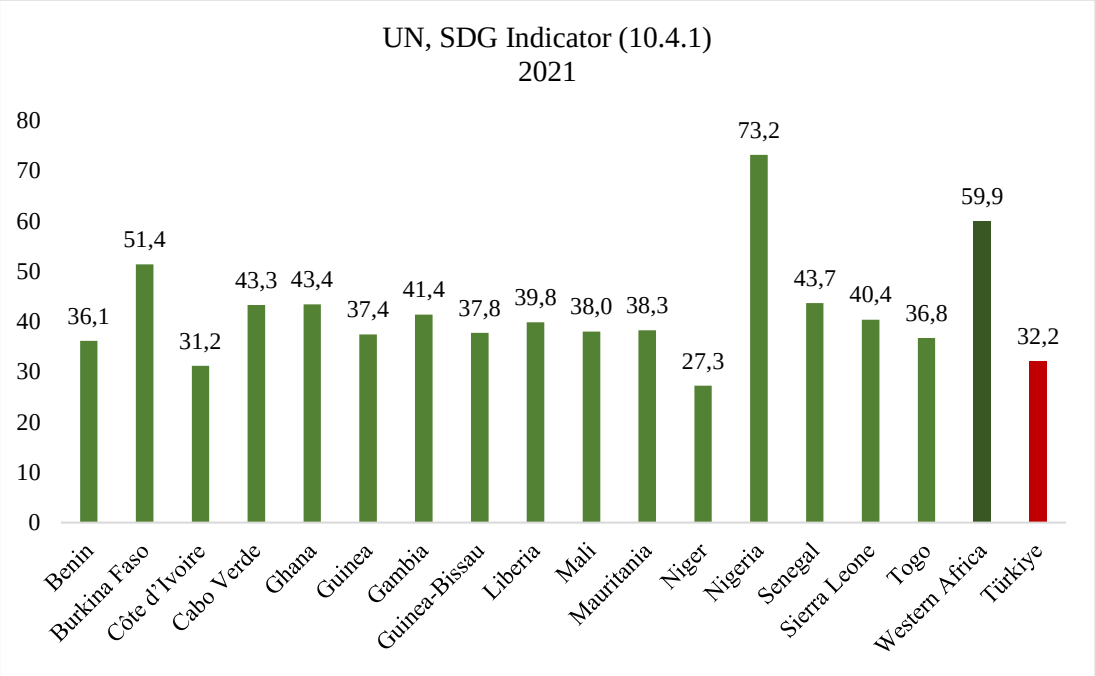
The labour income share as a percent of GDP indicator is the first indicator of the fourth target of the tenth goal of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG). The tenth SDG goal is to promote the reduction of inequality, which can occur within a country or even between countries. However, in this goal we have the fourth target, which aims to adopt policies on supervision on the remuneration and social protection and achieve progress in equality within and between countries. The first indicator of this target (10.4.1) assesses the contribution of labour to GDP, including wages. Furthermore, the indicator highlights information on the share of wages paid by productivity to workers compared to the income gained by the production process (capital income) an indicated period.

Labour income is the income earned by people who are paid for the work they have done. Scholars (in this case economists) use the term to differentiate it from capital income. Owners of active property absorb capital income through the property they own, for example: an apartment or house, a machine, an instrument to rent out,

etc. Whereas labour income is the income earned through the use of labour force. And there are still some people who earn their income from both; these individuals are considered self-employed. Most people earn their income by working; capital income is more for the rich, according to the results of various studies carried out in this context.

Figure 25

Labour Income Share as a Percent of GDP



Source: Created by the author using ILO (2024) data.

Figure 25 shows the labour income share as a percent of GDP for West African countries and Turkey. This indicator assesses the total remuneration of workers and self-employed income, based on GDP percentages, which shows the measure of the total output of a country's economic activiti es in given periods. This indicator is the first indicator of the fourth target of the tenth goal of the SDG. The figure shows that, apart from Niger and Cote d'Ivoire, Turkey has a low value compared to the other East African countries. However, this indicates that Turkey's average percentage of labour income share of GDP is better than that of West African countries in general.

CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL EVALUATION OF AFRICA-TÜRKİYE IMMIGRATION

3.1. Literature Review

While it is feasible to focus a literature review on migratory patterns from African nations to Türkiye, doing such a review is a challenge due to the constraints of existing studies in this content. Nevertheless, this review will utilize researches that pertains not only to African immigration, but also emphasize the circumstances of immigrants residing in Türkiye as a whole, as well as the characteristics of African migratory movements. This will be based on the findings and empirical evidence from multiple investigations.

The concept of migration and its associated processes have undergone various interpretations and developments throughout the years. Reflecting on the 18th century, the word migration obtained its genuine significance as a result of the simultaneous expansion of migration movements and the industrial revolution.

Bedir Eristi & Baltaci (2022) examined the perspectives of refugee families and minors in Türkiye, who can also be classified as migrants. The study focused on the migration process and the living conditions of these individuals in the country. The authors restricted their analysis to refugees living in the city of Isparta[16]. The study reveals through its approach that there have been huge obstacles, some of which have passed over time, but some of which remain. This study concluded that the issues of family, home, nation, protection and social cohesiveness for refugees/migrants are not adequately structured in Türkiye. They highlighted other challenges encountered throughout the process of adaptation, underscoring the significance of language proficiency in this endeavour. The education of adults is a good aspect in the adjustment process, i.e. integrating the culture (in this example, Turkish culture) and the socio-cultural rules of the country.

Most of the participants in the study stated a wish to return to their countries of origin or relocate to Western countries. Consequently, it has been proven that it is

[16] Isparta is a city and district in southwestern Türkiye, the center of the province and located in the Mediterranean region.

possible to classify Türkiye as a transit country for immigrants, even though some have already demonstrated a wish to remain in Türkiye.

Konneh (2023), investigated the immigration of Africans from the sub-Saharan region to Türkiye, he centred his study on the trafficking of human beings from that region to Türkiye. The research examined the case of 8 women from sub-Saharan Africa who were victims of human trafficking and reinforced her analysis by drawing on migration theories, using Van Hear's ideologies[17].

The article revealed the origins of these nefarious practices and the factors that support their permanence in the sub-Saharan African region, and the evidence demonstrated the vulnerability of women in this region as targets of these practices, both internationally and transnationally. It was concluded that women in sub-Saharan Africa are deceived by the illusions of a luxurious life and adequate employment opportunities. In order to put an end to this modern slavery, he recommended various measures such as: establishing a strict legal framework, promoting an awareness-raising campaign, addressing the causes and effects in a more in-depth manner, empowering the populations targeted by this practice and developing international cooperation in the fight against trafficking in human beings.

Gamawa (2017), went on to observe the opportunities and challenges generated by the relationship between Türkiye and Africa. A relationship that is motivating the migratory flows from Africa and Türkiye, which have been increasing in recent years. The author emphasized that the Republic of Türkiye is no different from other countries that are already showing an interest in the African continent. The African continent has been the target of various forms of exploitation - from the slave trade to natural resources - transforming its population into a people who seek what belongs to them elsewhere on the planet. Although this relationship has a background in the relationship between Africa and the former Ottoman Empire, but it has taken on a stronger character in the last 20 years. The development of this relationship has gone hand in hand with the migration of Africans to Türkiye.

There was also talk of the disengagement of some Turkish businessmen from their activities in Nigeria, due to a mission that was cancelled because of tensions in

[17] Van Hear believes that migration and its impacts consist of resources including relevant information that migrants gather, which are closely linked to socio-economic contexts (de Haas, 2021: 7).

the eastern part of the country. The problem was largely caused by ideologies based on Pan-Africanism. Some extremely strict Pan-Africanist ideologies consist of discarding any relationship with Western countries and developing great opportunities for Africans. Something that will somehow reduce the migratory movements of Africans to other countries, including Türkiye.

Whitaker & Giersch (2015) emphasized the importance of competition in shaping immigration policies, highlighting ethnic diversity and economic advancement as elements in the opposing position of migratory flows. In an article based on survey data from 11 selective African countries, they raised issues of extreme importance for future inter-regional studies, concluding that research of this kind (particularly for countries on the African continent) requires a more comprehensive and broader comparative analysis of migration processes, while remaining focused on the effectiveness of political actors and their competition in shaping public opinion.

In his master's thesis, Adıgüzel (2020) highlighted Türkiye's push and pull factors and the characteristics of migratory movements in Türkiye as a destination country for migrants, using available information from the years 1979 to 2019 to carry out his study. The research only covered countries such as Bulgaria, Iran, Iraq and Syria. On the other hand, it reported on the sending of labour forces to European countries. However, this migratory characteristic consisted of different push factors that forced population mobility between these countries and Türkiye, a movement that began in the early 80s.

Contextualizing the issue, we discovered that, although the reality of living situation on the African continent is somehow different to these selective countries in his thesis, the push factors that led to the migratory movements are identical. In addition, the push factors are caused not only by civil wars, terrorism, political pressure/persecution and unemployment, but also by factors such as extreme poverty, lack of opportunities (e.g. qualitative health services), insecurity and the desire to migrate (all Africans have a strong desire to immigrate despite the good living conditions for some).

Udelsmann Rodrigues (2015), described population mobility that includes crossing African borders to reach final destinations. In his article, he presented an overview of African border studies, linking them to the migratory movements that take

place in these regions. He characterized the population mobility seen on African borders, specifically population movements with the aim of reaching European countries, such as crossing the borders between Mexico and the USA (he refers to a similarity that exists between the two regions). The population movements involved in crossing African borders generated by the regulations have leveraged new national and international strategies with regard to citizenship and identity aspects.

Migratory movements in and out of the African continent develop the social, political and economic dynamics of daily life in border regions. They concluded that various scientific studies have described population movements on the African continent caused by labour, forced displacement and conflicts. For these reasons, they characterized population movements (migration) across the respective regions. Although each country has its own specific characteristics, it is possible to categorize migration as follows: in Central and West Africa it is identified by the attraction of job opportunities, in East Africa migration is forced by conflict. The countries of Central and West Africa are targets of transitional migration (migrants seeking to move on to international routes), which has led to these countries also being characterized as transition countries (Udelsmann Rodrigues, 2015: 17).

Corra (2023), emphasized the growth in migratory movements of Africans to the United States over the last three decades, highlighting the beginning of a remarkable demographic process that continues to grow. Firstly, the Africans who have migrated to the US come from countries and sub-regions that are economically, culturally, linguistically and politically well-off. It was concluded that it is considerably complex to gather African immigrants into one group for both theoretical and empirical analyses. In other words, grouping all African immigrants into a homogenous group for the purposes of analysis could lead to questionable and problematic results.

Shaw (2007) investigated the economic literature on international migration, selecting 10 African countries (which Burkina Faso, Ghana, Mali and Nigeria were included) with enormous contributions to studies on national and international migration of Africans. The author explained his reasons for selecting these countries, saying that they serve as important illustrations in terms of the experiences of migratory movements on the African continent. Some of them are classified as the most developed countries and others as the least developed among the countries of

sub-Saharan Africa. The article focused its analysis on the economic implications, although migrants can have political and social impacts in both the country of destination and the country of origin. After a broader investigation of economic studies on migration in Africa, there is a scarcity of information, which shows that official data on the number of individuals who migrate and their incomes are extremely underestimated. Meanwhile, analyses of the impact of migration on host countries and countries of origin are extremely speculative. The countries selected in this article have shown that the aspect of immigration is poorly addressed/understood in sub-Saharan African countries and the contributions of the governments of these countries to influencing population movements (migration) for stability and well-being have been a failure.

Tolentino (2009) stressed how crucial it is to comprehend the correlation between immigration and economic development. A significant percentage of the migratory movements of Africans take place within the African continent, while the total number of migrants moving outside the African continent corresponds to only 9% of the total world population. The migrations that occur within the continent, despite being inter-regional, are unstable and prompted in most cases by military conflicts. The factors that led this author to tie African migration to the growth of the continent itself, analysing migratory patterns and income/benefits in a synthetic fashion. On the other hand, the author has not given up on expressing the facts and the scarcity of this information in the academic sector.

At the beginning of the research, three typically crucial questions were asked:

- The first question, was whether to consider immigration as a "natural" or "unnatural" phenomenon. Is immigration a constituent factor of the behaviour of a living being (specifically human), or is it a movement that uproots individuals from their places of birth and forces them to adapt to a different place (area, region or country)?
- The second question covers the problematic content, asking that if immigration can be considered as a process that establishes and strengthens or weakens a country?
- The last question is about the effectiveness and impact that immigration has on the country of origin. Whether these movements enrich the countries of origin through monetary transfers, technological competences, or whether they

simply impoverish the countries of origin, through the loss of great staff, talent or the reduction of basic elements for economic development and job opportunities in the country of origin?

Then concluded that West Africa (the specific case study for our dissertation) has major migratory corridors for African migrants, and these corridors are between Burkina Faso and Côte d'Ivoire, Ghana and Mali, and on the other hand there are Burkina Faso and Mali, and he have characterised - general data on immigration in West Africa - as a contemporary movement, lined up on the borders of neighbouring countries "farmers, women entrepreneurs, irregular migrants and refugees". In North Africa, the corridors are used for inter-continental migration (Algeria-France, Egypt-Saudi Arabia, Morocco to France and Spain). In East Africa, migration corridors link Ethiopia, Sudan and Eritrea. In Southern Africa, the crucial one is South Africa (considered one of the most developed countries in Africa), with corridors linking Mozambique, Lesotho and Zimbabwe (Tolentino, 2009: 12).

3.2. Evaluation in Theoretical Context

The African continent possesses a significant history of immigration, shaped by a multitude of variables including the impact of colonization and the corruption within African governments. These factors have contributed to the prevalence of extreme poverty and violence on the continent. The investigation of the theoretical framework underlying migration patterns in the African continent, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), poses significant challenges due to the lack of concrete data on migrants who have been drawn to the informal labor market in different countries within and outside Africa. Africa is recognized as the place where the push factor is most prominent.

All empirical research on African immigration consistently demonstrates that Africa serves as the primary source of immigrants rather than as a recipient from other continents. The investigations have revealed compelling evidence of the African people's strong inclination to move from Africa, a desire generated by various factors.

In this instance, Türkiye is designated as a hostage country for African immigrants, particularly those from the sub-Saharan Africa. While reviewing the migratory patterns between sub-Saharan African countries and Türkiye, it becomes apparent that Lewis' well-established theory of immigration is supported by the factors

that play a role in the immigration process. Türkiye in this context is believed to be in the capitalist zone, due to its industrialisation, and the SSA countries are classified to be in the subsistence zone (Lewis didn't exactly define the subsistence zone, but it is believed to be the rural areas or areas dominated by the agricultural sector). The economy of several sub-Saharan African countries is predominantly made up of the agricultural sector, and income, i.e., the marginal product of labour in agricultural sector, is less than or equal to zero (MPL≤0). The crucial component in all assessments of African migration investigations is the reality of inadequate income, which encourages migrants to relocate from their places of origin in pursuit of higher incomes to support their familial requirements and other.

CHAPTER FOUR

SURVEY RESULTS: PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND DISCUSSION

> Even if it is possible to draw conclusions by looking at the data, in order to understand the depth of the matter, examining the structure, history, sociology, political and cultural tendencies of the society in which the economic event took place can facilitate reaching more accurate conclusions by analysing the available data correctly. (Eğilmez[18],2016: 96)

This chapter presents a descriptive statistical analysis of the data collected from the survey questionnaires. The purpose of this research is to get insights into the effects of migration movements on Türkiye's economic activity. The study implemented a limited methodology, focusing exclusively on the migration patterns of African individuals to Türkiye. The West African group residing in Türkiye was selected as the focal point of investigation, as they were the sole participants that completed the survey questionnaire.

The survey form consists of two sections. The initial section focuses on demographic information related to immigrants, i.e. the community from West African countries living in different provinces of Türkiye. This section includes an assessment of variables such as the age group of participants, their gender, level of education, marital status, nationality, reasons for leaving their countries of origin, prior residency in another country, year of entry into Türkiye, the provinces in which they currently reside and etc.

The subsequent section of the survey questionnaires encompassed the employment status of the participants in both their countries of origin and in Türkiye, as well as their working conditions, income, job correspondence, qualifications

[18] Mahfi Eğilmez, a Turkish economist and considered one of the most influential economic analysts in Turkiye, has so far written more than 15 books on economic science and analysis, among which the book entitled '*Ekonomide Analiz, Örnek Olaylar ve Çözümler*' translation '*Economic Analysis, Case Studies and Solutions*' is included.

(including education, experience, skills, and other qualifications possessed by the participants), and their assessment of job security.

Following the analysis of the data collected during the survey process, a descriptive analysis was carried out, namely an analysis of absolute frequencies. Based on the statistical results, we analysed the reasons for this population mobility between the two regions, the level of education (schooling), the level of employment opportunities, and the impact that the participants have on Türkiye's economic activities. Meanwhile, to carry out our descriptive analysis, we used two tools, one of which was Microsoft Office, namely Excel, and the other was SPSS[19] statistical software.

4.1. Descriptive Statistic Analyses

The findings obtained from the process of collecting survey data are displayed in table and graphical formats. Additionally, an examination is conducted on the distributions of demographic variables, explanatory factor analysis, and comparative outcomes between the place of origin and site of destination. The survey questionnaire was created using a Google form and subsequently distributed to individuals (in this case, to the West African community living in Türkiye). However, the findings of the survey reveal that 353 individuals took part, despite featuring options such as 'I don't want to answer', in certain questions we allow alternatives to opt out if the participants don't want to took part in the question, due to the sensitivity.

4.1.1. Demographic Distribution of the Participants

Among the 353 respondents to the survey, the distribution of the variable indicating participants' gender, as shown in Table 5, revealed that 263 males participated, constituting the majority at 74.5% of the total. Additionally, 86 females responded, accounting for 24.4% of the participants. A small fraction, 0.8%, representing three individuals, chose not to disclose their gender by selecting 'I don't want to answer,' and one participant opted out of this question entirely.

[19] *SPSS is statistical software that allows you to use data in various formats to generate reports, calculate descriptive statistics, conduct complex statistical analyses and draw up graphs. Link: https://www.ibm.com/spss

Table 5

Gender Distribution of the Participants

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	1	.3	.3
Male	263	74.5	74.5
Female	86	24.4	24.4
I don't want to answer	3	.8	.8
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 6 shows the frequency of the age range of the participants in the survey. A total of 353 people took part in this variable, 185 of whom were aged between 18 and 24, representing 52.4% of total of the participants. 156 participants are between 25-34 age group, representing 44.2 per cent of all participants. Participants aged between 45 and 54 are 2 representing 0,8% and making it the age group with the fewest participants.

Table 6

The Age Group Distribution

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Between 18-24	185	52.4	52.4
Between 25-34	156	44.2	44.2
Between 35-44	10	2.8	2.8
Between 45-54	2	.6	.6
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 7 presents the educational attainment levels, a key variable in assessing the qualifications of immigrants in the host country. The data shows that 5 participants, representing 1.4% of the total, have not received formal education. Those with a primary education level comprise 4 individuals, or 1.1% of the participants. Six (6) participants, accounting for 1.7% of the total, have completed middle school. A significant portion, 97 participants (27.5%), have graduated from high school. Additionally, 23 participants, or 6.5%, hold an associate degree, while the largest group, consisting of 175 participants (49.6%), have obtained a university degree (bachelor's degree). The survey also recorded 40 participants (11.3%) with master's/doctoral degrees. Finally, 3 individuals (0.8%) chose not to disclose their educational level.

Table 7

The Distribution of Education Level (Schooling)

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
I did not participate in formal education	5	1.4	1.4
Primary School	4	1.1	1.1
Middle School	6	1.7	1.7
High School	97	27.5	27.5
Associate degree	23	6.5	6.5
Licence	175	49.6	49.6
Master's degree/doctorate	40	11.3	11.3
I don't want to answer	3	0.8	0.8
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 8 shows the marital status of the participants, and shows that 303 (85.8%) of the participants are single, 34 (9.6%) of the participants are married, 8 (2.3%) of the participants are divorced and 8 (2.3%) of those who took part in the survey chose not to answer.

Table 8

Participants' Marital Status

Status	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent. (%)
Single	303	85.8	85.8
Married	34	9.6	9.6
Divorced	8	2.3	2.3
I don't want to answer	8	2.3	2.3
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 9 details the countries of origin of the survey participants. The data reveals that 11 participants, representing 3.1% of the total of the participants, are from Benin. Burkina Faso is represented by 15 participants (4.2%), while Cabo Verde has 3 participants, accounting for 0.8% of the total of the participants. The Ivory Coast with 21 participants (5.9%), and 12 participants (3.4%) are from The Gambia. 8 participants (2.3%) are from Ghana, and 12 participants (3.4%) are from Guinea. The largest group, with 102 participants (28.9%), hails from Guinea-Bissau. Liberia has 4 participants (1.1%), while Mali is represented by 26 participants (7.4%). 11 participants (3.1%) are from Mauritania, 19 participants (5.4%) are from Niger, and 16 participants (4.5%) are from Nigeria. Senegal and Mali both have 26 participants (7.4%), Sierra Leone has 4 participants (1.1%), and Togo is represented by 10 participants, making up 2.8% of the total of the participants.

Table 9

Participants' Countries of Origin

West African Countries	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Benin	11	3.1	3.1
Burkina Faso	15	4.2	4.2
Cabo Verde	3	0.8	0.8
Ivory Coast	21	5.9	5.9
Gambia	12	3.4	3.4
Ghana	8	2.3	2.3
Guinea	12	3.4	3.4
Guinea-Bissau	102	28.9	28.9
Liberia	4	1.1	1.1
Mali	26	7.4	7.4
Mauritania	11	3.1	3.1
Niger	19	5.4	5.4
Nigeria	16	4.5	4.5
Senegal	26	7.4	7.4
Sierra Leone	4	1.1	1.1
Togo	10	2.8	2.8
From West African country, but I don't want to answer.	53	15.0	15.0
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Nevertheless, 53 participants (15% of the total participants), a relatively significant number, were from West African countries but chose not to disclose their specific country of origin. One participant who selected this option later communicated via WhatsApp, explaining that this choice was made due to concerns about residency status, as their residency permit had expired. It is plausible that other participants who chose this option might share similar concerns regarding their residency status.

The fact that Cabo Verde is a country with fewer people taking part in the survey may indicate the level of effectiveness of the various factors that influence migratory movements. Cabo Verde is one of the West African countries with the highest Human Development Index (HDI) and has been politically/economically stable since the 1990s. As we mentioned earlier, Cabo Verde is an island country off the west coast of Africa (a fact that can limit immigration), and it also has economic policies that encourage young people not to migrate to other countries. It's also worth pointing out that, in our approach to the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators, we used Cabo Verde among the West African countries to make a comparison between these countries and Türkiye.

The relatively low participation of individuals from Cabo Verde in the survey may reflect the effectiveness of various factors influencing migratory trends. Cabo Verde stands out among West African countries for its high Human Development Index (HDI) and has maintained political and economic stability since the 1990s. As previously noted, Cabo Verde's geographic position as an island nation off the west coast of Africa may limit emigration. Additionally, the country's economic policies are designed to discourage young people from migrating abroad. It is also important to highlight that, in our analysis of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators, we used Cabo Verde as a point of comparison between West African countries and Türkiye.

Figure 26

The Reasons for Immigrating to Türkiye

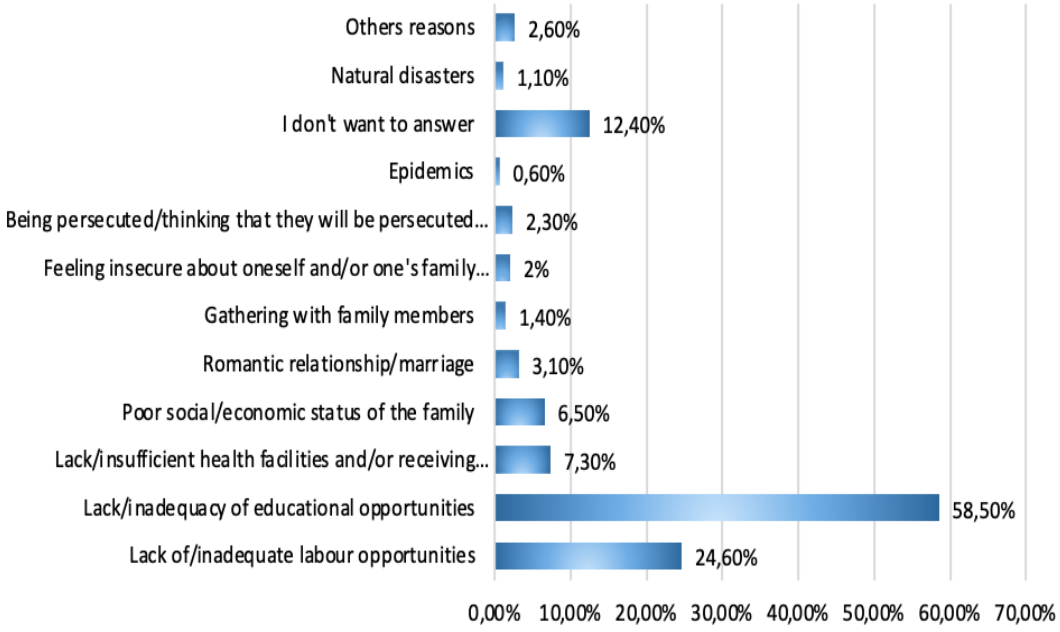


Figure 26 illustrates the various factors that m migratory movements between West African countries and Türkiye. According to the data presented on the Figure 26 shows that 24.60% of participants indicated that inadequate or unavailable labour opportunities motivated their migration to Türkiye. However, the most significant factor influencing this movement is the lack of or insufficient educational opportunities, which emerges as a critical determinant in the migration flow between Türkiye and Africa. Another noteworthy reason is the deficiency or inadequacy of healthcare facilities in Africa, with 7.30% of participants citing the absence of quality

health services in their home countries as the impetus for their migration to Türkiye. Additionally, 6.50% of respondents attributed their migration to poor socio-economic conditions within their families, while 3.10% migrated for marriage, and 1.40% migrated for family reunification.

Among the participants, 2% said they immigrated to Türkiye because they felt insecure about themselves, 2.30% of the participants immigrated because they were afraid of being persecuted, 0.60% because of epidemic diseases, 1.10% because of natural disasters. For reasons of natural disasters and the other 2.60 per cent came to Türkiye for other reasons. However, in this question we provided alternatives in case the participants didn't want to answer and 12.40 per cent preferred not to answer.

Among the respondents, 2% reported that they migrated to Türkiye due to personal feelings of insecurity, while 2.30% cited fear of persecution as their reason for migrating to Türkiye. Additionally, 0.60% indicated that they migrated due to epidemic diseases, and 1.10% cited natural disasters as their motivation. Furthermore, 2.60% of participants migrated for other reasons. Notably, 12.40% of the respondents opted not to disclose their reasons for migration, utilizing the provided alternative to refrain from answering this question.

Table 10

Participants Who Lived in Other Countries Before Moving to Türkiye

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	3	.8	.8
Yes	140	39.7	39.7
No	201	56.9	56.9
I don't want to answer	9	2.5	2.5
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

An analysis of the participants' prior residency in countries other than Türkiye reveals that, according to Table 10, 3 participants (0.8%) did not respond to this question. Among those who did respond, 140 participants (39.7%) confirmed that they had lived in countries other than their country of origin before migrating to Türkiye. Meanwhile, 201 participants (56.9%) indicated that Türkiye was the first country they had resided in outside their country of origin, and 9 participants (2.5%) chose not to provide a definitive answer.

Table 11

The Participants'Entry to Türkiye (Year)

Years	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	2	0.6	0.6
Before 2005	2	0.6	0.6
2005 - 2009	4	1.1	1.1
2010 - 2014	23	6.5	6.5
2015 - 2019	101	28.6	28.6
2020 - 2024	215	60.9	60.9
I don't want to answer	6	1.7	1.7
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

If we look at the years when the participants joined, we see that there was a huge migration movement after the Covid-19 pandemic. If we look again at Table 11, we see that 2 (0.6%) people did not take part in this question. Only 2 of the participants migrated before 2005, which represents 0.65 of the participants. This suggests that at the beginning of the 21st century, Africans migrated frequently to Türkiye. Among the migrants who came in the years 2005-2009, 4 people (1.1%) took part. Between 2010-2014, the number of migrants continued to rise, with 23 participants migrating in those years, representing 6.5% of the participants. However, in the years 2015-2019 the number of participants reached 101, representing 28.6 per cent, and the most crucial figure is that recorded for the years 2020-2024: 215 people among the participants entered Türkiye in these years. A total of 6 participants refused to answer the question.

Analysing the years in which participants migrated to Türkiye, a significant increase in migration is observed following the Covid-19 pandemic. As indicated in Table 11, 2 participants (0.6%) did not respond to this question. Notably, only 2 participants migrated before 2005, accounting for 0.6% of the total, suggesting that African migration to Türkiye began to increase in the early 21st century. During the 2005-2009 period, 4 participants (1.1%) migrated to Türkiye. The number of migrants continued to grow between 2010-2014, with 23 participants, representing 6.5% of the total. However, a substantial increase occurred during the 2015-2019 period, with 101 participants (28.6%) arriving in Türkiye. The most significant migration surge occurred between 2020-2024, with 215 participants entering Türkiye during this period. Additionally, 6 participants chose not to answer this question.

The increasing frequency of African immigrants in Türkiye over the past two decades, as shown in ascending order, highlights a significant rise in migration. The

most notable increase occurred in the years following the Covid-19 pandemic. This trend is likely attributable to various factors that have been identified and discussed in previous chapters.

Table 12

Residential Cities of Participants

Cities	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Ankara	10	2,83%
Bolu	5	1,41%
Eskişehir	48	13,6%
İstanbul	44	12,5%
İzmir	5	1,42%
Karabük	105	29,74%
Kastamonu	5	1,42%
Kayseri	11	3,12%
Kütahya	5	1,42%
Sakarya	5	1,42%
Other cities	48	13,6%
Number of non-determinants	62	17,56%
Total of participant	**353**	**100**

An analysis of Table 12, which displays the distribution of cities where participants reside, reveals that 10 participants (2.83%) live in Ankara, while 5 participants (1.41%) are located in Bolu. A total of 48 participants reside in Eskisehir, accounting for 13.6% of the total, and 44 participants (12.5%) live in Istanbul, making it the third most represented city in the survey. In Izmir, 5 participants (1.42%) were recorded. The city with the highest number of participants is Karabuk, with 105 individuals, representing 29.74% of the total. Additionally, 5 participants (1.42%) are from Kastamonu, 11 participants (3.12%) reside in Kayseri, and both Kutahya and Sakarya each have 5 participants (1.42%). The remaining 48 participants are from other provinces in Türkiye. Notably, 62 participants opted not to disclose their city of residence

At present, Karabuk province hosts the largest population of Africans among all provinces in Türkiye. The city has become notable for attracting a significant number of African nationals, primarily due to Karabuk University's strategic policy aimed at recruiting a large number of international students. Consequently, the high concentration of Africans in the city has sparked various controversies on social media,

with some conspiracy theories emerging regarding the clustering of Africans in this particular location.

Table 13

Participants Whose Families Lived in Türkiye Before Their Arrival

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Yes	73	20.7	20.7
No	262	74.2	74.2
I don't want to answer	18	5.1	5.1
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 13 presents data on the number of participants who had established a social network (immigration networks) prior to migrating, aimed at facilitating the immigration process. Among the participants, 20.7% (73 individuals) indicated that they had family members residing in Türkiye before their arrival. Conversely, 74.2% (262 participants) reported that they did not have any family members living in Türkiye. Additionally, 5.1% (18 participants) chose not to disclose this information.

Table 14

Participants with Caring Responsibilities in Türkiye (Family)

	Frequency	Percent (%)
0	186	52.7
1	69	19.5
2	44	12.5
3	27	7.6
4	14	4.0
Non-participants	13	3.7
Total	**353**	**100.0**

Table 14 illustrates the number of participants who have family responsibilities, including the number of dependents they support. Among the 353 participants in the survey, 52.7% (186 individuals) indicated that they do not have such responsibilities. Conversely, 19.5% (69 participants) reported that they are responsible for supporting at least one person. Additionally, 12.5% (44 participants) are responsible for caring for two individuals, 7.6% (27 participants) have three dependents, and 4.0% (14 participants) support at least four people. Notably, 3.7% (13 participants) chose not to respond to this question.

Figure 27

Participants' Migration Status

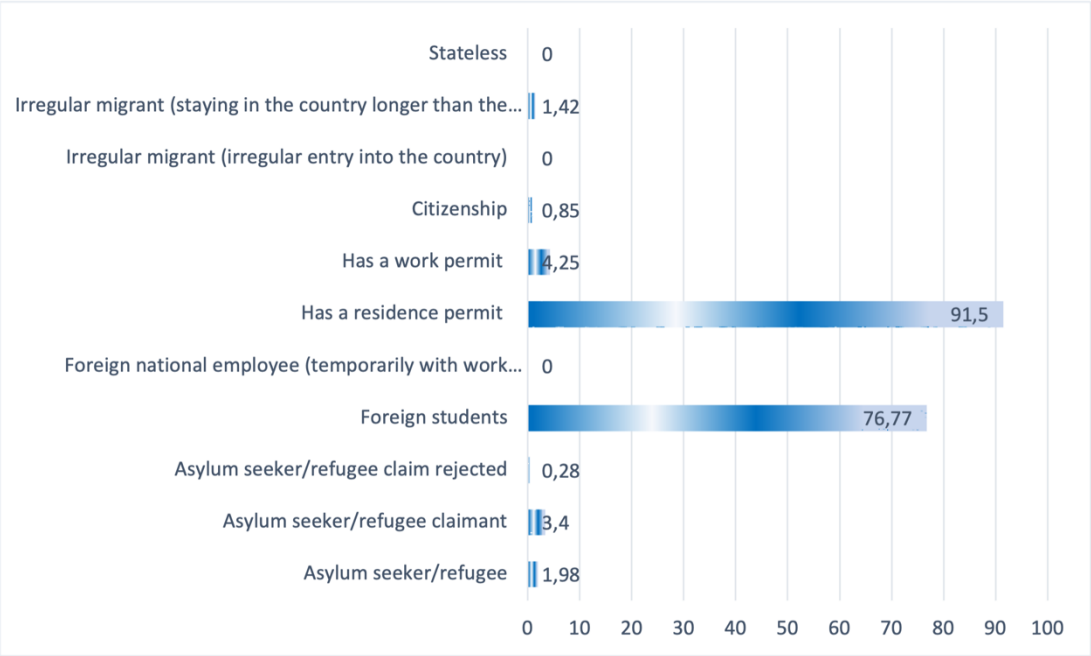


Figure 27 illustrates the legal status of the participants in Türkiye. It is observed that 1.42% of the participants are in the country irregularly, while 0.85% have successfully obtained Turkish citizenship. Additionally, 4.25% of participants hold a work permit. Notably, 91.5% of the participants possess a residence permit, with 76.77% of the total being students. Furthermore, 0.28% of the participants have had their applications for asylum or refugee status rejected, 0.40% are currently seeking asylum or refugee status, and 1.98% have already been recognized as asylum seekers or refugees.

The data presented in Figure 27 indicate that the majority of African immigrants in Türkiye aim to obtain legal status, even though the country enforces restrictive immigration policies that prevent all migrants from securing residency. A significant proportion of these immigrants are students. Conversely, the number of participants classified as irregular or illegal immigrants is notably small. The municipal councils, in coordination with the Ministry of the Interior, have been actively addressing illegal immigration. Notably, in the past three years, the Turkish government has deported the highest number of immigrants in its history.

Table 15

Participants with Intention of Returning/Living in Another Country

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Yes	185	52.4	52.4
No	137	38.8	38.8
Don't want to answer	31	8.8	8.8
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

An evaluation of the intentions of immigrants regarding returning or relocating, as shown in Table 15, reveals that 52.4% (185) of the participants plan to return to or live in another country. Conversely, 38.8% (137) of the participants do not have such intentions. Additionally, 8.8% (31) of the participants opted not to disclose their plans.

Table 16

Regions Where Participants Are Planning to Live in the Future

	Frequency	Percentages (%)
Country of origin	149	46,56
Another country in West Africa	215	67,19
Another African country apart from West Africa	232	72,5
A country in the American continent	309	96,56
A country in the European continent	287	89,69
A country in Asia	280	87,5
Türkiye	1	0,31
I don't know	2	0,63
I don't want to answer	34	10,63
Total of participant	**320**	

In the next question of the survey, we asked participants about their preferred regions if they were to leave Türkiye. As shown in Table 16, of the 320 respondents, 46.56% (146 individuals) expressed a desire to return to their countries of origin. Additionally, 67.19% (215 participants) indicated an interest in relocating to a West African country, while 72.5% (232 participants) expressed a preference for moving to another African country. A significant 96.56% (309 participants) expressed a desire to migrate to the American continent, and 89.69% (287 participants) expressed interest in moving to Europe. Furthermore, 87.5% (280 participants) showed an interest in living in an Asian country, while only 0.31% (1 participant) specified a preference to remain in Türkiye. Meanwhile, 0.63% (2 participants) were undecided, and 10.63% (34 participants) opted not to respond to this question.

It is important to note that for certain questions, such as this one, participants were allowed to select multiple options, with each response being independent of the others. This flexibility enabled participants to choose several answers. When examining Tables 15 and 16, it becomes evident that there is no direct correlation in the number of respondents who answered both questions. Generally, participants who selected 'No' in Table 15 were not required to respond to the questions in Table 16. Nevertheless, the data suggest a strong desire among Africans to emigrate from their countries of origin, a motivation driven by various factors.

4.1.2. Descriptive Analyses of the Participants' Employment Status

This subsection delineates the second phase of our survey. In this analytical segment, we aim to evaluate the extent of employment opportunities, the conditions under which employment is obtained, the industries in which participants have been employed both in their home countries and in Türkiye, their motivations for seeking employment in Türkiye, the roles they currently or previously occupied, income generation and its average, working hours, among other related factors.

Table 17

Participants' Employment Status in Their Country of Origin

	Frequency	**Percentages (%)**
Salaried employee	73	23,86%
Self-employed	59	19,28%
Unemployed	125	40,8%
Not in the labour force (not working and not looking for a job)	49	16,01
Total of participant	**306**	

Table 17 provides an analysis of the employment status of participants in their countries of origin. Out of the 353 individuals who completed the survey, 306 responded to this particular question. Among them, 23.86% (73 participants) reported having formal paid employment, while 19.28% (59 participants) identified as self-employed. A significant proportion, 40.8% (125 participants), were unemployed, indicating a notably high unemployment rate. Additionally, 16.01% (49 participants) were neither employed nor actively seeking employment, classifying them as outside the labor force.

The findings presented in this table demonstrate a strong correlation between the reasons for insufficient or inadequate employment opportunities and migratory

movements, as illustrated in Figure 26. This suggests that if employment opportunities were created for migrants within their countries of origin, it could potentially reduce the migratory movements of Africans observed over the years.

Table 18

Last Sector Participants Worked in Their Country of Origin

Sectors	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Education Services	17	6,42%
Electricity and Natural Gas Production and Distribution	11	4,15%
Construction	16	6,04%
Health Services	11	4,15%
Water Production and Distribution, Waste Management and Treatment Activities	10	3,77%
Other sectors	88	33,21%
I don't want to answer	80	30,19%

Table 18 provides an overview of the sectors in which participants were employed in their countries of origin. Specifically, 6.42% of respondents worked in the education sector, 4.15% in the electricity and natural gas production and distribution sector, and 6.04% in the construction sector. Additionally, 4.15% were employed in health services, while 3.77% worked in the water production and distribution, waste management, and treatment sector. A significant portion, 33.1%, were employed in various other sectors, and 30.1% chose not to disclose the sector in which they were employed prior to migrating to Türkiye.

Table 19

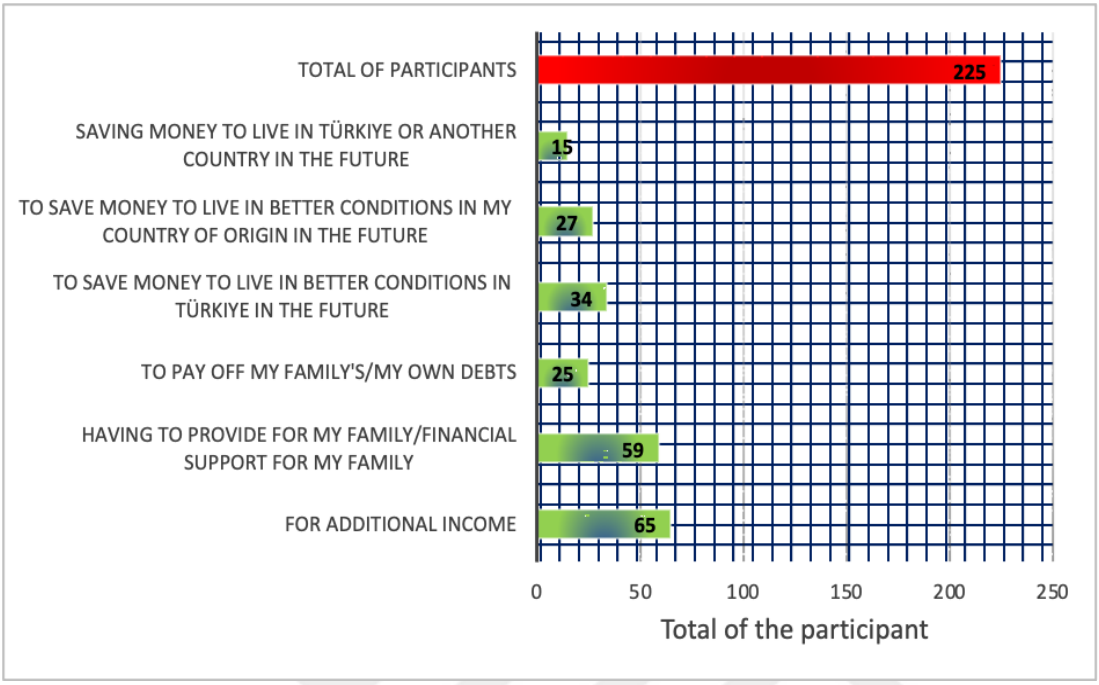
Participants' Employment Status in Türkiye

Working Status	**Frequency**	**Percentage (%)**
Not in the labour force (not working and not looking for a job)	49	16,55%
Paid employee	84	28,38%
Self-employed	27	9,12%
Unemployed	136	45,95%
Total of participant	**296**	

Table 19 presents the employment status of participants in Türkiye, as their destination country. Out of 353 respondents, 296 provided answers to this question. Of these, 16.55% are categorized as not being in the labor force, meaning they are neither employed nor actively seeking employment. Additionally, 28.38% of respondents are gainfully employed, 9.12% are self-employed, and a notable 45.95% are unemployed.

Figure 28

Reason for Looking for a Job in Türkiye



An analysis was conducted to determine the factors that motivated participants to seek employment in Türkiye, with 225 individuals responding to this question. Figure 28 illustrates the primary reasons for their job search in Türkiye. Among the respondents, 15 indicated that their motivation was to save money for future living expenses in Türkiye or another country, while 27 participants aimed to save money to improve their living conditions in their countries of origin. Additionally, 34 participants sought employment in Türkiye to save money for better living conditions within Türkiye, and 25 cited the need to repay personal or family debts. Furthermore, 59 participants stated that their motivation was to provide financial support for their families, and 65 respondents indicated that their primary reason was to generate additional income.

Figure 29

The Sector that Participants Work in Türkiye

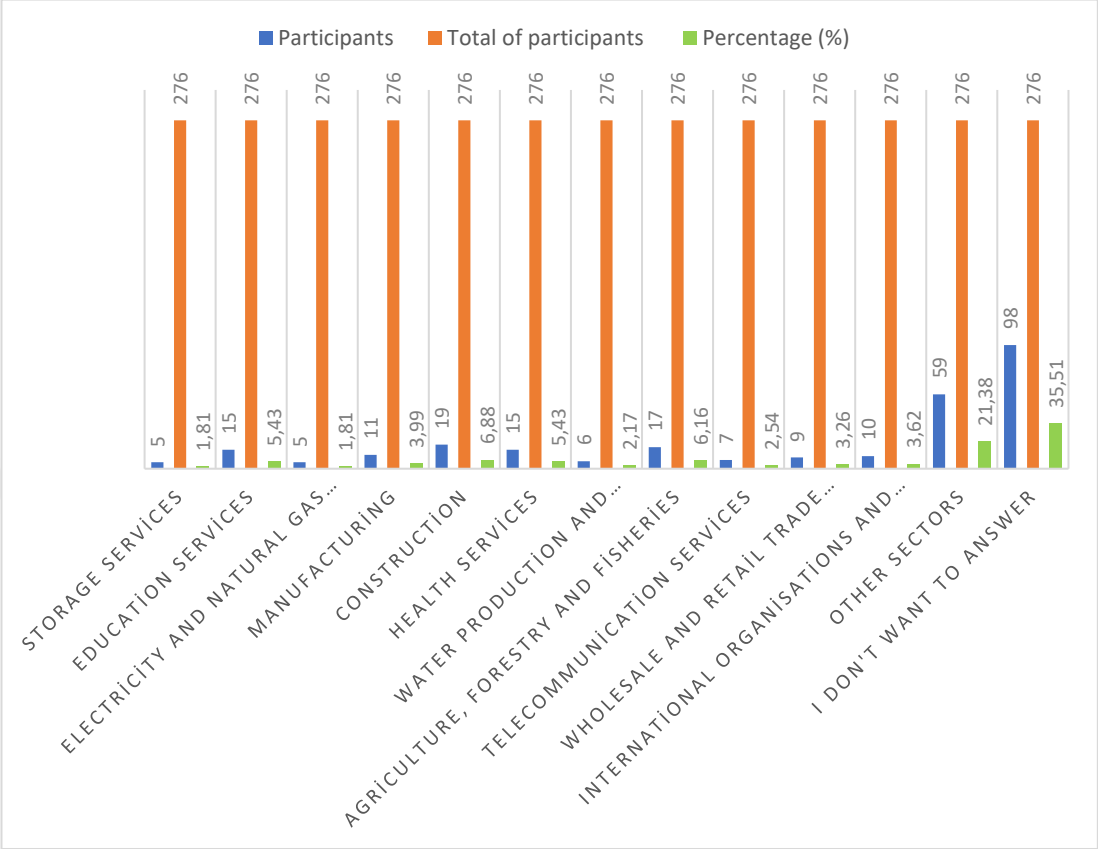


Figure 29 presents the sectors in which the participants are currently employed or have been employed. A total of 276 individuals responded to this question. Among them, 1.81% (5 participants) work in storage services, while 5.43% (15 participants) are employed in the education sector. Additionally, 1.81% (5 participants) work in the electricity and natural gas production and distribution sector, and 3.99% (11 participants) are employed in the manufacturing sector. The construction sector accounts for 6.88% (19 participants), and 5.43% (15 participants) are engaged in the health services sector. Furthermore, 2.17% (6 participants) work in water production and distribution, waste management, and treatment activities, while 6.16% (17 participants) are employed in this sector. The agriculture, forestry, and fisheries sector represent 16% (44 participants) of the respondents, 2.54% (7 participants) are in telecommunications, 3.26% (9 participants) are in wholesale and retail trade, and 3.62% (10 participants) work in international organizations. Additionally, 21.38% (59

participants) reported working in other sectors, while 35.51% (98 participants) chose not to disclose the sector in which they are or were employed.

Table 20

The Last Position the Participants Worked in Türkiye

Positions	**Frequency**	**Percetages (%)**
Tradesmen	6	2,19%
Service Worker	13	4,74%
Worker	38	13,87%
Officer	5	1,82%
Sales Representative	28	10,22%
Technician	11	4,01%
Expert	13	4,74%
Assistant Specialist	9	3,28%
Administrator	22	8,03%
I don't want to answer	97	35,40%
Others	32	11,68%
Total	**274**	

Table 20 outlines the job positions held by participants in Türkiye. Out of 353 survey respondents, 274 answered this question. Among them, 2.19% reported working as tradesmen, while 4.74% were employed as service workers. The most common position, held by 13.87% of respondents, was as laborers, a role that West African immigrants most easily integrate into, often without requiring official or professional qualifications. Additionally, 1.82% of participants indicated that their most recent position was as an officer. Sales representative was the second most common position, held by 10.22% of participants, likely due to the number of companies in the health tourism sector. Furthermore, 4.01% worked as technicians, 4.74% as specialists, 3.28% as assistant specialists, and 8.03% held managerial roles. Overall, 11.68% of participants worked in various other positions, and 35.40% chose not to disclose their job position.

Table 21

Participants' Income Generation in Türkiye

Income Generation	**Frequency**	**Percentages (%)**
I have a regular and monthly income	32	12,45%
I earn income on a regular basis and on the days I work	19	7,39%
I earn income on a regular basis and based on the hours I work	24	9,34%
I receive regular and weekly income	12	5,67%

I earn as much income as the day I work irregularly	16	6,23%
I earn income irregularly and for the number of hours I work	27	10,51%
I earn income irregularly and based on the number of products/services I produce or sell	31	12,06%
I don't want to answer	96	37,35%
Total of participant	**257**	

In examining the methods by which respondents (immigrants) generated income in Türkiye, 274 out of 353 survey participants responded to this question. Table 21 reveals that 12.45% of respondents reported earning a regular monthly income, while 7.39% earned their income on a daily basis through their jobs. Additionally, 9.34% earned income based on the hours worked, 5.67% on a weekly basis, and 6.23% were able to earn higher daily incomes when working irregularly. Moreover, 10.51% of respondents indicated that they earned higher incomes depending on irregular hours worked, and 12.06% stated that their income increased based on the quantity of products produced or sold, which represents an irregular income. However, 37.35% of participants chose not to disclose how they generated their income.

Analyzing the data presented in Table 21, it can be concluded that a significant proportion of West African immigrants earn their income irregularly. This observation suggests that the majority of these immigrants are employed in the informal sector, making it challenging to accurately assess their workplace circumstances and the conditions under which they are employed.

Table 22

The Average Level of Income from Working in Türkiye (Last 3 Months)

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Valid Percent**
0-10.000 TL	57	21,1%	21,1%
10.001-20.000 TL	53	19,62%	19,62%
20.001-30.000 TL	32	11,85%	11,85%
30.001-40.000 TL	17	6,3%	6,3%
40.001-50.000 TL	14	5,19%	5,19%
Over 50.000 TL	5	1,85%	1,85%
I don't want to answer	92	34,1%	34,1%
Total	**270**		

Table 22 illustrates the distribution of average income among West African immigrants employed in Türkiye, based on responses from 270 out of 353 respondents. According to the data, 21.1% of respondents report a monthly income ranging from 0-10,000 TL, while 19.62% earn between 10,001-20,000 TL. Additionally, 11.85% of

participants have an income of 20,001-30,000 TL per month, and 6.3% earn between 30,001-40,000 TL. A smaller proportion, 5.19%, earns between 40,001-50,000 TL, and 1.85% of respondents report earning over 50,000 TL. Notably, 34.1% of respondents chose not to disclose their monthly income.

The data in Table 22 reveals that the most significant proportion of West African immigrants earn between 10,001-20,000 Turkish Lira. It can be inferred that a considerable number of these immigrant workers receive the minimum wage mandated by the Turkish government, which is set at 17,002.12 TL, with the total gross income amounting to 20,001.50 TL.

Table 23

Average of Weekly Working Hours

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	78	22.1	22.1
1-10 Hours	60	17.0	17.0
11-20 Hours	28	7.9	7.9
21-30 Hours	18	5.1	5.1
31-40 Hours	32	9.1	9.1
41-50 Hours	29	8.2	8.2
51 Hours and over	15	4.2	4.2
Non-workers	93	26.3	26.3
Total of the participants	**353**	**100**	**100**

Table 23 presents the average weekly working hours of employed West African immigrants. It is noted that 22.1% of the survey participants (78 individuals) did not respond to this question, with 275 out of 353 participants providing answers. Among the respondents, 17.0% reported working 1-10 hours per week, 7.9% indicated working 11-20 hours per week, and 5.1% worked 21-30 hours per week. Additionally, 9.1% stated they worked 31-40 hours weekly, 8.2% worked 41-50 hours, and 4.2% reported working more than 50 hours per week. It is also noteworthy that 26.3% of all participants, despite not being employed, attempted to indicate that they do not work.

Table 24

Employment Contract and/or Registered (Insured) Employment Status

	Frequency	Percentages (%)
I am a paid and registered (insured) employee with a one-year employment contract	46	17,9%

I am a paid and registered (insured) employee with an employment contract of two years or more	17	6,61%
I work as an unregistered (uninsured) wage labourer	44	17,12%
I earn unregistered (uninsured) income from my own business/workplace	7	2,72%
I earn income from my own business / workplace as registered (insured)	13	5,1%
I am a paid and registered (insured) employee with an indefinite employment contract	16	6,22%
I don't want to answer	114	44,35%
Total of participants	**257**	

This research also aimed to identify West African immigrants with labour contracts who are employed under social security, in order to assess the extent of their involvement in the informal sector. Table 24 presents the findings from the survey, with 257 out of 353 participants responding to the question. The data reveals that 17.9% of respondents are paid, registered (insured) employees with a one-year employment contract, while 6.61% have similar contracts lasting two years or more. Additionally, 17.12% of participants indicated they work as unregistered (uninsured) wage laborers, and 2.72% earn unregistered (uninsured) income from their own businesses or workplaces. In contrast, 5.1% of respondents reported earning income from their own registered (insured) businesses, and 6.22% are paid, registered (insured) employees with indefinite employment contracts. Lastly, 44.35% of participants chose not to disclose whether they are formally employed in their current jobs.

Despite there is a considerable proportion of West African immigrants are paid and registered (insured) employees with one or more years of employment, the data also highlights a substantial presence of immigrants working in the informal sector. Although reducing this number may prove challenging, it is imperative to develop and implement effective policies aimed at addressing and minimizing the prevalence of informal employment among this population.

Table 25

Employed in the Field Participants Have Trained and/or Have Experience/Skills

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Valid Percent (%)**
Non-participant	73	20.7	20.7
Related	88	24.9	24.9
Not related	94	26.6	26.6

I don't want to answer	98	27.8	27.8
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

In Table 25, the aim was to determine whether the employment held by African immigrants aligns with their areas of training, experience, or skills. A total of 280 out of 353 survey participants responded to this question. According to the data, 20.7% of the respondents did not participate in this question, while 24.9% confirmed that their current jobs align with their training, experience, or skills. Conversely, 26.6% of participants indicated that their work does not correspond to their areas of expertise, and 27.8% chose not to respond to the question.

Table 26

Alignments of Participants' Qualifications (Education, Skills, Experience, etc.) with Current Job' Requirements (Necessary)

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Valid Percent (%)**
Non-participants	84	23.8	23.8
Similar	70	19.8	19.8
Fewer	50	14.2	14.2
More	55	15.6	15.6
I don't want to answer	94	26.6	26.6
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 26 evaluates the extent to which respondents perceive their current job as matching the qualifications (education, skills, experience) required for the position. Out of 353 participants, 269 responded to this question. The data reveals that 23.8% of survey participants did not respond, while 19.8% reported that their qualifications align with those required by their employer or the job they perform. Additionally, 14.2% indicated that their qualifications are somewhat similar to the job's requirements, and 15.6% stated that their qualifications exceed those necessary for their current role. Finally, 26.6% of participants declined to answer the question, expressing that they did not wish to respond.

The findings presented in Table 26 indicate that the majority of West African immigrants are employed in roles that align with their qualifications. This suggests that the competencies and skills of these immigrants can be effectively harnessed. A modest investment in vocational or additional training for these individuals could enhance the quality of the available human resources. Such initiatives have the

potential to produce a more skilled immigrant workforce, thereby increasing productivity and fostering economic growth within the host country.

Table 27

Assessments of Participants' Satisfaction Levels with Their Current Job

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	80	22.7	22.7
A little bit satisfied	47	13.3	13.3
No opinion/Idea	54	15.3	15.3
Satisfied	66	18.7	18.7
Not satisfied	36	10.2	10.2
I don't want to answer	70	19.8	19.8
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 27 examines the participants' level of satisfaction with their workplaces. Out of 353 participants, 80 did not respond to this question, leaving 273 respondents, representing 22.7% of the total participants. The data shows that 13.3% of respondents reported being somewhat satisfied with their jobs, while 15.3% stated they had no opinion on the matter. Additionally, 18.7% of participants expressed satisfaction with their current jobs, 10.2% confirmed they were not satisfied, and 19.8% chose not to disclose their level of satisfaction.

The results presented in Table 27 indicate that the majority of West African immigrants are satisfied with their jobs. However, it is noteworthy that some respondents, while expressing overall satisfaction, may not be entirely content with their employment situations.

Table 28

Participants Who Work with Turkish Citizens and Doing Similar Job

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	84	23.8	23.8
Yes	110	31.2	31.2
No.	80	22.7	22.7
I don't want to answer	79	22.4	22.4
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 28 illustrates the overall number of participants who share similar job responsibilities with Turkish citizens within their workplace. Out of the 353 survey respondents, 269 addressed this question, accounting for 76.2% of the total, while 23.8% chose not to respond. Among those who participated, 31.2% affirmed that they

work alongside Turkish citizens in equivalent roles. Conversely, 22.7% indicated that they do not work with Turkish citizens in similar capacities. Additionally, 22.4% of respondents neither confirmed nor denied whether they engage in similar work with Turkish citizens.

Table 29

Similarity on Working Conditions for the Participants and Turkish Citizens

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	96	27.2	27.2
Similar	83	23.5	23.5
Better	45	12.7	12.7
Worse	43	12.2	12.2
I don't want to answer	86	24.4	24.4
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

The findings presented in Table 29 are influenced by those in Table 28, though they do not align directly with the results. Out of the total participants, 257 responded to this question. Among them, 23.5% indicated that their work is similar to that of Turkish citizens. Meanwhile, 12.7% confirmed that there is a difference in their work compared to that of Turkish citizens, noting that their working conditions are slightly better. Another 12.2% of participants reported that their conditions are slightly worse when compared to those provided to Turkish employees.

The findings presented in Tables 28 and 29 can be interpreted through the lens of labor market segmentation theory, which suggests a division within the labor market where migrants are typically employed in the secondary market, while natives predominantly occupy positions in the primary market, often rejecting secondary roles. The data in these tables reveal that in Türkiye, a significant proportion of immigrants from West Africa work under conditions similar to those of local workers, a situation likely influenced by their proficiency in the foreign language. However, it is also evident that, despite the substantial number of immigrants working under comparable conditions, a considerable portion of West African immigrants still engage in employment within the secondary market.

Table 30

Participants Who Work with Another Foreign Employee and Doing Similar Job

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	81	22.9	22.9

Yes	112	31.7	31.7
No.	72	20.4	20.4
I don't want to answer	88	24.9	24.9
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Table 30 provides data on participants who work alongside other immigrants and perform similar tasks. 353 survey respondents, 272 answered this question. Among them, 31.7% affirmed that they work with immigrants from other regions of the world. In contrast, 20.4% stated that they do not work with other foreigners. Additionally, 24.9% of respondents chose not to disclose whether they work with other foreigners in the same location and performing the same tasks.

Table 31

Similarity on Working Conditions for the Participants and Other Foreigner Employee

	Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Valid Percent (%)**
Non-participants	93	26.3	26.3
Similar	81	22.9	22.9
Better	53	15.0	15.0
Worse	38	10.8	10.8
I don't want to answer	88	24.9	24.9
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

In assessing the equality of workplace conditions, the results presented in Tables 30 and 31 offer insights, though there is no clear correlation between the findings in the two tables, despite the questions being interrelated. In Table 31, 260 participants responded, which indicates that 26.3% did not answer this question. Among those who did, 22.9% reported that they perform similar work as other immigrants from different countries. Additionally, 15.0% indicated that their work conditions are better compared to those of other immigrants, while 10.8% noted that their conditions are less favorable. Furthermore, 24.1% of participants opted not to respond to this question.

Table 32

Participants Who Worried About Losing Their Job

	Frequency	Percent (%)	Valid Percent (%)
Non-participants	79	22.4	22.4
Yes	74	21.0	21.0
No opinion/Idea	68	19.3	19.3
No	60	17.0	17.0
I don't want to answer	72	20.4	20.4
Total	**353**	**100.0**	**100.0**

Participants were asked to express their level of concern about losing their jobs. In response to this question, it was observed that 79 participants, representing 22.4%, did not provide an answer. Among those who did respond, 21% reported experiencing anxiety or fear of job loss. Meanwhile, 19.3% stated that they had no opinion or were unsure about the issue. Additionally, 17% indicated that they were not concerned about losing their jobs. The remaining 20.4% of participants chose not to answer the question.

The findings in Table 32 suggest that a significant proportion of West African immigrants experience fear or concern about losing their jobs, although there is also a notable number of West African immigrants who do not share this concern. These results highlight the varying levels of job satisfaction and ‘Professional Stress’ that West African immigrants encounter in their work environments.

CONCLUSION

The cause-and-effect link between migratory movements and their impact on Türkiye's economic development formalised the theme of this thesis. This research explores how the resources associated with the immigration process—including immigrants' social and human capital, labor forces, and language proficiency—can be effectively leveraged to contribute to Türkiye's economic growth, particularly through strategic investment in vocational training. On the other hand, the results have facilitated the discovery of the causes, in order to establish new policies in the respective countries to reduce the level of migratory flows registered in West African countries.

Evidently, in the study carried out on the basis of the collection of data from the Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators and the data obtained in the survey, it was possible to understand and identify the intentions and motives of the West African community to move from their countries of origin and migrate to Türkiye.

At the outset of our analysis, we observed that within the West African sub-region, economic disparities, political stability, and the free movement of people, goods, and services have significantly influenced migratory patterns. A subsequent comparative analysis between West African countries and Türkiye, utilizing Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) indicators, revealed that Türkiye's political, economic, social (as well as cultural framework) are considerably more structured compared to those of West African nations. This analysis led to the conclusion that these differences likely serve as a fundamental driver behind the migratory flow from West Africa to Türkiye.

The impact of the West African community on Türkiye's economic development has been substantiated by this study. The rapid increase in the mobility of this community toward Türkiye suggests that they are actively contributing to the country's gross domestic product (GDP). Specifically, between 2020 - 2024, in the aftermath of COVID-19, survey results indicate a significant influx of West African immigrants into Türkiye, with active participation across various economic sectors including agriculture, construction, education services, health services, manufacturing, telecommunications, international organizations, storage services, and others with

high concentrations of foreign workers. Notably, the construction, health services, and agriculture sectors have the highest concentration of West African immigrants. This is particularly evident in the health services sector, where their proficiency in foreign languages is an asset, and in the agriculture and construction sectors, which see lower participation of the Turkish natives (citizens).

The incorporation of West Africans into Türkiye's economic activities, as evaluated in this study, significantly highlights the substantial demand for foreign labor within the aforementioned sectors of economic activity. This demand is evidenced through Türkiye's labor market dynamics and has resulted in many foreigners, including West Africans, entering the informal labor market.

Upon reevaluating the survey questionnaires, it was concluded that the results align closely with Ravenstein's model, which identifies economic factors as the primary driver of West African immigration to Türkiye. Nearly half of the respondents (40.8 percent) reported being unemployed in their countries of origin. Although a considerable portion of respondents (37.35 percent) chose not to disclose the methods by which they earn their income, a significant majority (63.65 percent) indicated that they generate income through various means, including those who earn their income irregularly depending on the nature of their work. Additionally, almost half of the immigrants reported an average monthly income between 10,000 and 20,000 Turkish Lira (with the current minimum wage set at 17,002.12 Turkish lira and the total gross income amounting to 20,001.50 Turkish lira) or more.

When asked why they sought employment in Türkiye, the respondents did not hesitate to answer the question, with the majority of respondents stating that it was to financially support their families in the country of origin, business, an additional income, to set up conditions for a future life. Consequently, we can conclude once again that the causes of the migratory flow between West African countries and Türkiye consist of the differences between the two regions as reported by the Lewis model, in which West African countries are categorised as the subsistence zone and Türkiye as the capitalist zone, due to the economic characteristics presented by both sides.

When queried regarding their motivations for seeking employment in Turkey, respondents promptly articulated their reasons. The predominant rationale cited was

the necessity to provide financial support to their families in their country of origin, to supplement existing income, to establish future economic stability, or to fund their entrepreneurial business. These findings corroborate the hypothesis that the migratory movement between West African countries and Türkiye can be attributed to the economic disparities between the two regions, as conceptualized by the Lewis model. In this framework, West African countries are viewed as a subsistence economy, while Türkiye is positioned as a capitalist economy, reflecting the distinct economic characteristics inherent to each region.

There appears to be a weak correlation between the qualifications of immigrants and their current employment positions in Türkiye. The limited alignment that does exist is overshadowed by the fact that the majority of participants reported that their jobs do not correspond to their formal qualifications. This phenomenon clearly reflects the dynamics of a segmented (dual) labor market structure, wherein immigrants predominantly occupy roles within the secondary sectors of the economy—sectors that typically experience minimal participation from native workers. This pattern aligns with the principles of the Market Segmentation (Dual) Theory, which suggests that such employment conditions arise due to a shortage of labor in the secondary sectors. While Türkiye has experienced considerable economic growth and stability since the start of the 21st century, attracting many West African immigrants, despite the past five years have seen the country confront significant economic challenges, including high inflation and a substantial depreciation of its currency, the Turkish Lira.

The findings from the survey highlight the respondents' concerns regarding the limited formal employment opportunities, which have led to an increase in informal labor practices in Türkiye. It is evident that immigrants working legally under established regulations are entitled to social protection, whereas a substantial number of West African immigrants are employed outside the legal framework, without social insurance. These undocumented workers do not incur any tax obligations for their employers, and their wages are typically set through informal means, such as verbal agreements, rather than formal contracts. Additionally, there is a notable incidence of West African immigrants engaging in business activities without fulfilling their tax obligations, thereby contributing to tax evasion.

The descriptive analysis of the data ultimately revealed a strong correlation between immigration and economic development. Focusing on identifying the driving factors and consequences of migration in the host country, this study specifically examined the West African community residing in Türkiye. The findings indicate that the majority of migrants were motivated by economic considerations, employment opportunities, and access to education. These and other contributing factors, including the unemployment rate in the country of origin and the current income levels, align closely with the principles outlined in Ravenstein's immigration laws in 1885

The educational attainment reported by the participants, with 49.6% being university graduates, suggests that even highly educated individuals in West African countries encounter significant challenges in securing employment, prompting their decision to migrate. This phenomenon, which has been examined through political, academic, social, and cultural lenses, has resulted in a substantial 'brain drain,' whereby a considerable number of skilled professionals leave their countries of origin.

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