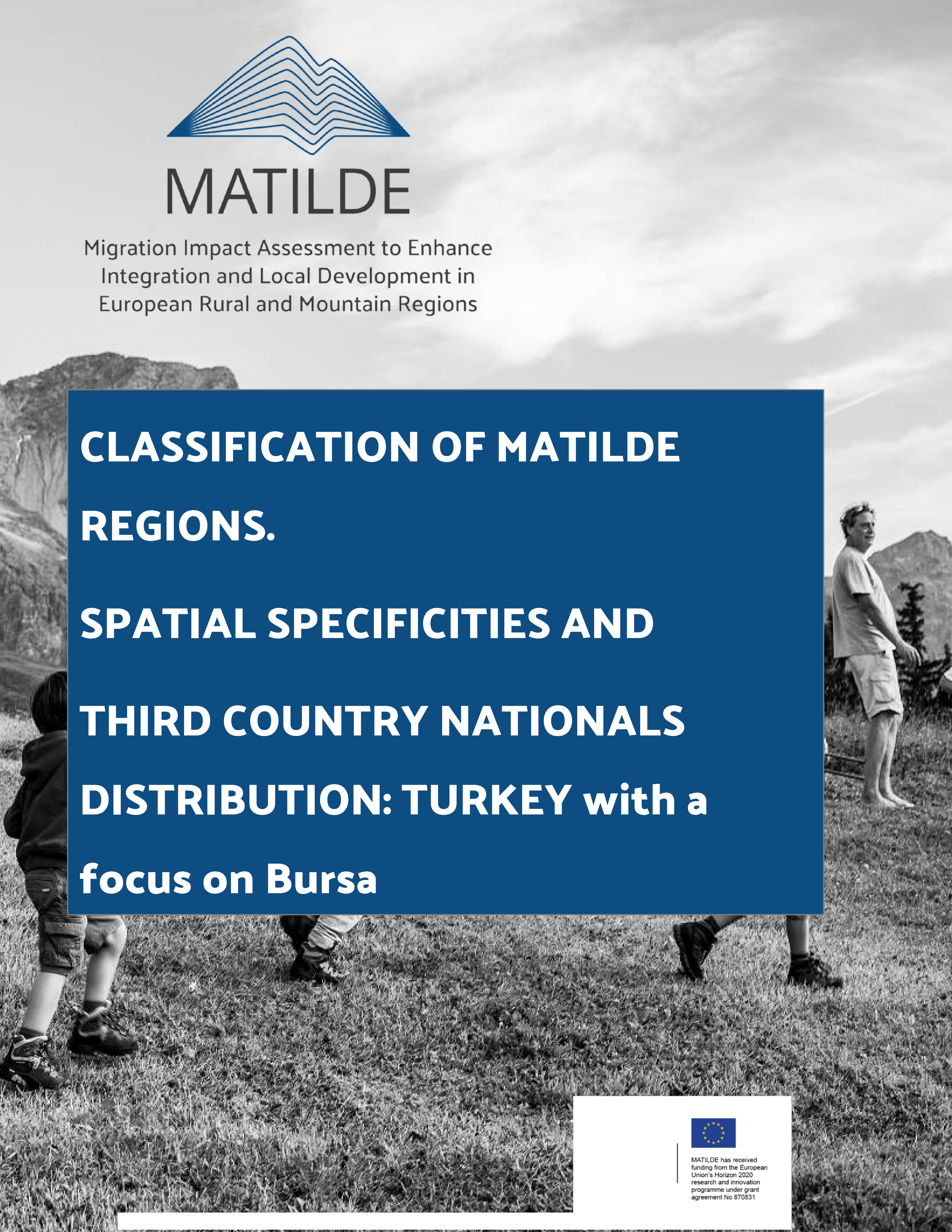

MATILDE

Migration Impact Assessment to Enhance Integration and Local Development in European Rural and Mountain Regions

# CLASSIFICATION OF MATILDE REGIONS.

# SPATIAL SPECIFICITIES AND THIRD COUNTRY NATIONALS DISTRIBUTION: TURKEY with a focus on Bursa

MATILDE has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 870831

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**DELIVERABLE 2.1 - CLASSIFICATION ON SPATIAL SPECIFICITIES AND THIRD COUNTRY NATIONALS DISTRIBUTION IN MATILDE REGIONS**

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**This is an extract of DELIVERABLE 2.1 - CLASSIFICATION ON SPATIAL SPECIFICITIES AND THIRD COUNTRY NATIONALS DISTRIBUTION IN MATILDE REGIONS, including the country report of Turkey and regional profiles of Bursa**

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# 9. COUNTRY REPORT TURKEY[113]

Authors: Tobias Weidinger, with contributions from Ayhan Kaya and Fatma Yilmaz-Elmas

Since World War II, rural areas in Turkey were characterised by out-migration to cities and abroad due to mechanization in agriculture, neo-liberal agricultural policies and investments in railway connections to urban centres as well as job opportunities there (Adaman & Kaya 2012; Öztürk et al. 2018; cf. Erman 1998; Guresci 2013, Ertürk 2020). In addition, starting from the second half of the 1980s, individuals of Kurdish origin as well as Christian Assyrians were displaced internally (IDP) by security forces or the PKK (Kurdish Workers Party) and had to leave their villages and towns in the Southeast as a result of the armed conflict (Adaman & Kaya 2012)[114]. Simultaneously, a growing number of asylum seekers arrived from non-European countries, especially from Iran and Iraq (Kirişçi and Karaca 2015), which were considered an additional security threat (Kirişçi 2004, 2014). During that time, the UNHCR oversaw Turkey's asylum policy, provided basic assistance and accommodation and ensured the resettlement of asylum seekers from Turkey. In 1998, the government fostered the reintegration of Kurdish IDPs and refugees with the "Return to Villages and Rehabilitation Project" (RVRP), which was supported by the UNHCR, the European Council and the European Commission (Adaman & Kaya 2012). The implementation, however, was severely hampered by the upsurge in violence between the Turkish army and Kurdish militants since 2004, the continuing presence of around 60,000 village guards, up to a million landmines in the border region to Syria and Iraq and a lacking development in the region (ibid.). In parallel, in the last years and not least fostered by the economic crisis after 2007, re-migration and multi-local living arrangements could be detected among the aforementioned groups as well as urban middle-classes (e.g. Öztürk et al. 2018; see also chapter on lifestyle migration). Today, 92.3% of Turkey's population lives in cities and towns, compared to only 7.7% in villages (Ertürk 2020).

It is important to notice that the Turkish immigration policy in the last 20 years followed the ideal to align Turkey with the EU acquis as part of the accession of Turkey to the European Union, e.g. when the country introduced visa requirements according to the EU negative visa list or the implementation of an Integrated Border Management Strategy to tackle irregular migration and trafficking in human beings (Sert 2013; Kaya 2017; Sonmez Efe 2017; Gökalp-Aras & Mencütek 2019). Due to the fact, that the country does not only focus on the EU, Turkey also has bilateral agreements and still maintains a rather liberal Visa regime in order to attract skilled and highly skilled

113 TCNs are not an applicable term in the Turkish context. Therefore, instead all foreign migrants are considered.

114 Assyrians also moved abroad, mostly to Sweden (Adaman & Kaya 2012).

international individuals (Bertan Tokuzlu 2007; Kaya 2017; Sonmez Efe 2017; Kaya 2019). With regard to Turkey's current asylum policy, in particular, the UNHCR plays an important and significant role.

In the Turkish context, integration is a contested term, since there is an ongoing debate about the dichotomy of two political and societal discourses with regard to the presence of high numbers of Syrian refugees in the country: integration versus return. The latter one, however, is prioritised by the ruling Justice and Development Party (AKP) government. It is hard to claim that there are officially formulated comprehensive integration policies aiming at the incorporation of migrants and refugees into the wider societal context of the country since the Turkish state does not formally recognize the fact that the country has turned into a country of immigration. Although the Ministry of Interior has already issued a Migrant Integration Strategy Document, which was shared with the relevant public bodies in 2019, it is not yet publicized due to the negative public perception of the term integration. However, a legal formulation of integration policies was first made in the Law on Foreigners and International Protection (LFIP) in 2014 drawing on the term "harmonization" (İçduygu 2016). The Law also addressed the foundation of the Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM) to be responsible for the integration of migrants.

## LABOUR MIGRATION

The legal background for labour migration is structured by the Law on Residence and Travel of Foreigners in Turkey (Law no. 5683/2012), which regulates that foreigners need a residence and work permit to work and live in the country. Before, it was common among migrants, e.g. from Armenia or Georgia, to illegally use a 90-day tourist visa for entering and working in Turkey and renew the visa by going to the closest border crossing point and re-entering the country after its expiry (Kaya 2017). However, with the new law, a suspension of 90 days was introduced, which led to the fact that many of them overstayed the period of legal stay and continued to work illegally (Rittersberger-Tılıç 2015; Kaya 2017)[115]. Likewise, the length of temporary work permits – that start from one year – do not correspond the duration of employment of these international seasonal workers (Sonmez Efe 2017). Following the aim of the Turkish state to attract highly skilled international work force (including descendants of Turkish origin migrants residing in the EU as well as individuals from the rest of the world; see also family and lifestyle migration),

115 A similar law was implemented in 2007 to keep away Bulgarians and Romanians that were active in different kinds of trading activities including suitcase trade. After the implementation of the suspension of 90 days, migrants from Armenia, Georgia and the Middle East started to fill in the gap in the informal market, e.g. in care taking, house-cleaning and suitcase trading (Kaya 2017).

the Law on International Work Force (Law. No. 6735/2017) eased work permit applications (Rittersberger-Tılıç 2015). With the "Turquoise card for qualified foreigners", applicants now can apply on their own, if they graduated with internationally accepted studies in the academic field, come to the forefront in a scientific, industrial and technological area that is considered to be strategic in terms of the country, or those who have made or are anticipated to make significant contribution to the national economy (Kaya 2017). EU citizens, furthermore, got granted certain privileges in the application process. Initially, the card is given for three years, while, subsequently, an application for the permanent card is possible (ibid.).

Today, one-fourth of the employment in Turkey is in agriculture (Beleli 2013), where jobs in small family enterprises and large agricultural production companies are characterised as "3D" (dangerous, demeaning and dirty, Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019; cf. Beleli 2013). While hazelnuts, tea and tobacco are typical products of the north, e.g. the coastal Black Sea region (Adaman & Kaya 2012), in the south, especially in the Çukurova region alongside the Mediterranean sea surrounding the city of Adana, both industrial cotton and soy, peanuts, corn, fruits and vegetables are cultivated (Semerci & Erdoğan 2017). Until now, most of the workforce was only needed for the harvesting seasons. Since the 1990s, landless local farming families were being replaced by internal seasonal workers, in particular women and children[116] originating from the rural areas in southeast and east of Anatolia, including Arabs, Kurds and Roma (Adaman & Kaya 2012; Mura 2016; Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019). While some migrated to only one location per year, others, instead, "spend a significant part of the year away from their place of residence and migrate to a series of locations" (Beleli 2013: 21; cf. Kavak 2016). In the last years, in addition, international seasonal workers started to arrive in Turkey (for an overview, see Kaplan et al. 2016). Their quantification, however, is difficult due to lacking statistical data and a lacking legal status for seasonal migrant workers as well as undocumented employment (Sonmez Efe 2017). While men from Georgia are engaged in tea and hazelnut picking in the Black Sea region, Azerbaijanis cut fodder for animals in Eastern Anatolia based on short-term circular migration (Dedeoğlu 2018) and Afghan men typically stay in Turkey for two or three years and work as shepherds in remote rural areas in Central Anatolia (Atasü-Topçuoğlu 2019). Since 2011, both internal and international seasonal workers are being replaced by Syrian refugees (Sonmez Efe 2017; Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019; see also chapter on forced migration).

116 In Turkey, children can be employed in certain sectors, when they reached the age of 15, while, with the age of 14, they are already allowed to take up 'light jobs' that are not detrimental to their development, health and safety as well as school attendance (Beleli 2013).

In the mining sector, Chinese individuals predominate in Chinese-led companies in the Zonguldak province in the Black Sea region (Töksöz & Ulutaş 2012), while in the construction sector, subcontracting to small firms that hire immigrants by means of short-term contracts is widespread (Sonmez Efe 2017; Çınar 2019). As Çınar (2019) showed, the workers in this sector are mainly male and originate from Afghanistan, Azerbaijan, Georgia, Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan (ibid.; see also Akpınar 2009; Sadunashvili 2016). However, the labour market assumes a "multi-layered, hierarchically stratified structure that is defined in terms of identities, allegiances, and places of origin" (Çınar 2019: 69), leading to the fact that most working teams are not mixed, but homogenous.

The sectors of entertainment and tourism provide further employment opportunities for international migrants. Since the 1990s, destinations of those that often originate from ex-soviet countries such as Azerbaijan, Georgia, Russia or Ukraine are the big cities and the touristic regions alongside the Black and the Mediterranean Sea (Töksöz & Ulutaş 2012; Özgür et al. 2014; Sonmez Efe 2017). While women from Georgia got involved in prostitution leading to problems such as sexual harassment and violence (Sonmez Efe 2017; Sadunashvili 2016), women from Russia as well as men from Azerbaijan, who are mostly highly educated, could be found in tourism (Özgür et al. 2014, for the Antalya region). Parallel to the increase of tourist flows from these regions, also migrant flows rose, resulting in marriages with Turkish nationals among Russians and more permanent stays among Azerbaijanis including family reunion (ibid.).

International migrants in live-in housekeeping, babysitting and care have to be considered an urban phenomenon and stem from the insufficiency of institutional care services due to a family-centred welfare regime (Erdoğdu & Töksöz 2013) and an increasing female participation in the labour market. Acquired by means of intermediary firms (ibid.), most of them are female and originate from former Soviet Union, e.g. Georgia (Sadunashvili 2016) or Moldova (Töksöz & Ulutaş 2012). They migrate cyclically to see family and kids and consider their stay in Turkey as a temporary life-project (Erdoğdu & Töksöz 2013). Simultaneously, in science and education, foreign scientists and teachers can be found in universities and foreign-language schools, however, these are normally based in big cities (Kaya 2017).

## FORCED MIGRATION

Before 2014, Turkey only granted refugee status to European asylum seekers according to the Refugee Convention ratified in 1951 (Adaman & Kaya 2012). In the course of the EU accession negotiations, however, the country revised its immigration and asylum policies and adopted the "Law on Foreigners and International Protection" (LFIP, Law no. 6458/2014).

This law provided the opportunity to confer the refugee status including temporary protection to individuals regardless of their country of origin and offered three categories: refugees, conditional refugees, i.e. individuals to be resettled in a third country, and individuals under subsidiary protection (Rittersberger-Tılıç 2015; Sonmez Efe 2017). The LFIP maintains the previous dispersal policy of assigning each applicant to a specific province, where they are required to register with the Provincial Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM) and where they have to stay until the end of their international protection (Art. 71). The law does not commit itself to providing shelter to international protection applicants, as they "shall secure their own accommodation by their own means" (Art. 95, cf. Kaya 2020). However, the Directorate General of Migration Management (DGMM) can set up "reception and accommodation centres" for the accommodation, nutrition, healthcare, social and other needs of both international protection applicants and status holders. At present, there are seven centres in operation, located in the cities of Erzurum, Gaziantep, İzmir, Kırklareli, Kayseri, Van and Yozgat. While residence in reception and accommodation centres for asylum applicants became the norm[117], a legal refugee status included a work permit (Kaya 2017; for labour market integration, see below) and access to basic social services, including education, health care and social assistance at their place of registration (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019; Saraçoğlu & Bélanger 2019).

117 The responsibility of operating those centres as well as providing integration measures was partly transferred to the civil society arguing that it is a religious duty to help (Yılmaz et al. 2019).

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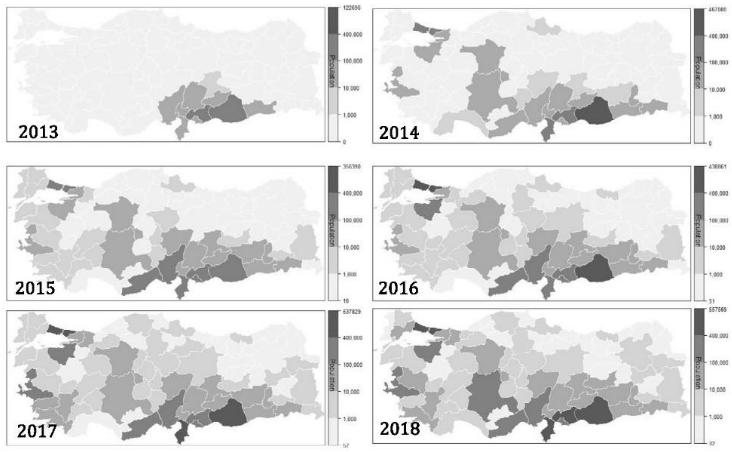
FIGURE 3
CHANGES IN THE GEOGRAPHICAL SPREAD OF THE SYRIAN POPULATION IN TURKEY (2013–2018)




Note: 80,000 Syrians were not plotted in 2013, because their distribution by province were not available. For 2015, the total population plotted was 2,258,076, based on AFAD figures dated September 2015. A total of 208,872 among this were reported to have returned, obtained residence permit, left for a third country or died; but could not be excluded from the above plots because this information was not available by province.
Source: 2013: (AFAD, 2013b), 2014: Erdoğan (2018), 2015: Erdoğan and Ünver (2015) 2016: GIGM (2017), 2017: GIGM (2018c), 2018: GIGM (2019b).

**Chart 144. Changes in the geographical spread of the Syrian population in Turkey, 2013-2018**

*Source: Adalı & Türkyılmaz 2020: 210*

From 2011 on, as a result of political shifts and regional conflicts, a mass influx of Syrians took place, which was considered only a temporary phenomenon by the Turkish government and was therefore fostered by an open-door policy to increase their power in the region (Sonmez Efe 2017; Yılmaz et al. 2019). As war lasted longer, however, the temporary protection for them was extended in the 2014 regulation mentioned above. Today, due to its geographical position as a transit country on the way to central Europe, Turkey is home to the largest number of refugees in the world and houses at least 3.6 million Syrians (ibid.). Regarding the latter group, many of them live in the metropolitan areas of Istanbul and Izmir (İşeri 2019; Yılmaz et al. 2019, see darker coloured regions in Chart 144). Others instead stayed in the border cities and regions in the Southeast, such as Şanlıurfa, Gaziantep or Hatay, where language barrier is smaller as the region is majorly populated by Arabs or Kurds and where kinship ties can be upheld due to chain migration (Kavak 2016). On site, large-scale camps (not to be mixed with the Reception and Accommodation Centres refugees mentioned above) provide housing to those who are subject to the "temporary protection" regime. The number of camps in ten border cities has remained steady in 26, however only 3.8% or 139,150 individuals of the more than 3.5 million Syrian refugees are accommodated there as of 11 April 2019 (for latest figures, see DGMM 2020).

Until 2016, when the Law on Work Permits for Foreigners under Temporary Protection (Law no. 8375/2016) became effective, working was not officially allowed for refugees under temporary protection and took place on an irregular basis (Yılmaz et al. 2019). The new law, then, provided the opportunity for employers to apply for work permits for Syrian refugees who hold temporary identity cards and have resided in Turkey for six months (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019). However, employers have to prove that there is no Turkish citizen to fill the job and have to ensure that no more than 10% of the employees are Syrians. In companies with less than 10 employees, only one work permit can be granted even (ibid.; Saraçoğlu & Bélanger 2019). As a consequence of the "unreality" and "ineffectiveness" of this regulation given the structural conditions of the Turkish labour market (ibid.), only a bit more than 20,000 work permits were granted since then (Yılmaz et al. 2019)[118]. The majority still works in the labour-intensive segments of the informal sector, where the introduction of Syrians led to an increase in labour supply, a downward pressure on the wages as well as deteriorating working conditions and bargaining power of all workers (ibid.; Kavak 2016; for a contrary perspective, see Erzan et al. 2018). Therefore, work of underaged children became widespread to increase the household income (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019).

In the rural provinces in the South and Southeast[119], where Syrians first entered Turkey, a huge demand for temporary labour in agriculture exists (Kavak 2016; see chapter about labour migration). Thus, Syrian families, i.e. both men, women and their underaged children, started to work as day labourers (Yalçın & Yalçın 2019, for the example of Mardin) or became involved in internal seasonal migration, circulating according to the harvest period from one place to another, e.g. to Antalya to pick citrus fruits or to the Sultandağı district of Afyonkarahisar to pick cherries (Kavak 2016; Semerci & Erdoğan 2017; Atasü-Topçuoğlu 2019). Others, instead move to the most important cropping area, i.e. the Çukurova region, for a basis of up to 11 months a year, e.g. January or February to August or November (Semerci & Erdoğan 2017). Jobs are mostly organised by Turkish intermediaries (dayıbaşı), who also charge for and take care of accommodation, food and transport (among the provinces but also to the fields) as well

118 Doğan-Yenisey (2019) argues that the number of work permits granted to Syrians was around 65.000 in 2019.

119 In metropolitan centres and urban areas, instead, Syrians (mostly men) found work in manufacturing, e.g. shoe and leather-garment textile industry (Korkmaz 2019; Pınar et al. 2019; Saraçoğlu & Belanger 2019; for Istanbul and Izmir), in construction (Çınar 2019, for Diyarbakır in South-East Anatolia), in clothing sweetshops (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019, for Istanbul) and in tourism (Alrawadieh et al. 2019, for Istanbul). Their underaged children, especially boys, also work in textile and weaving industry or are engaged as shopkeepers or porters for shops (Lordoğlu & Aslan 2019, for Şanlıurfa and Mardin). For a general overview on the situation in Istanbul, see Kaya and Kıraç, 2016).

as in case of health problems. Therefore, they have an increasing influence and bargaining power (Kavak 2016; Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019). Work in agriculture is characterised by low wages, which are about half of the official minimum wage (even lower for women and children), and bad working conditions including long working hours or discrimination at the workplace (Kavak 2016; Tören 2018; Atasü-Topçuoğlu 2019; Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019; Kaya 2020). The everyday life is characterised by a double burden of women, who, besides the work on the fields, also have to take care of the housework and the childcare (Atasü-Topçuoğlu 2019; Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019), while men take care of shopping and the contact with intermediaries (ibid.). In a quantitative survey conducted in the Adana Plain, it was found that 78% of the seasonal migrant agricultural workers migrated from rural areas in Syria and thus have an affinity for agricultural work and an "ability to endure life in tents" (ibid., 20; see also Atasü-Topçuoğlu 2019). In addition, low levels of education and illiteracy were very common among the predominantly young respondents (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar 2019).

## STUDENT MIGRATION

Foreign students in Turkish universities are mainly originating from Azerbaijan, Turkmenistan, Nigeria, Pakistan and the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (Kaya 2017), while exchange students in the course of Erasmus are mostly Germans or Polish (ibid.). Following the idea of "brain gaining", in the last couple of years, Turkey also tried to attract students from politically unstable countries such as Yemen or Syria (ibid.). In addition, the Law on Foreigners and International Protection (LFIP, Law no. 6458/2014) included work permits for international MA and PhD students upon arrival and work permits for BA students after two years stay (ibid.).

## FAMILY MIGRATION

The Law on Foreigners and International Protection (LFIP, Law no. 6458/2014) regulated that a residence permit with a duration of more than one year is sufficient for family unification. The residence permits of family members, however, are bound to the person who has the residence permit. If this person dies, the others only get a short-term residence permit (Kaya 2017). Apart from the fact that also European spouses of Turkish citizens move to Turkey in the course of family reunion (Kaya 2017), family migration, in the last couple of years, however, is mostly characterised by return migration of first and second generation Turkish emigrants including Assyrians and Kurds and their descendants, especially from Germany ("Euro-Turks", Kaya 2017: 18). These migration flows are either on a cyclical basis, i.e. spending 6 months here and 6 months there, or permanently, e.g. for retirement (Adaman & Kaya 2012; Kaya 2017). The second generation Turkish emigrants, who are often highly-skilled, mostly work in underqualified positions in Istanbul and other big cities "to search for alternative lifestyles, to work in international companies, tourism sector, IT sector, or to study" (ibid. 17; see also chapter on lifestyle migration).

## AMENITY/LIFESTYLE MIGRATION

Studies about temporary and permanent lifestyle migration previously dealt with internal migration of urban middle-class professionals to the Aegaen and Mediterranean coast tourist areas and the hinterland, e.g. Sirince, Yesilyurt, Adatepe, Yeni Orhanli or Yagcilar. Individuals, for instance, bought and renovated old houses or started to live in gated communities on-site, which are used as a holiday or second home as well as for retirement. Some of them also get involved in tourism (Young 2007; Öztürk et al. 2018).

International lifestyle migration was discussed for two groups, i.e. international retirement migrants and Turkish-German second generation (see also chapter on family migration). The further group mainly bought properties during the 2001 financial crisis, when the Turkish local currency depreciated (Balkir & Kirkulak 2009) and originates from Germany, the UK, the Netherlands and Nordic countries (Nudralı 2009; Ertuğrul 2016; Kaya 2017). While English-speaking citizens prefer the south-western provinces of Muğla and Aydın at the Aegean coast as well as the Western part of the province of Antalya at the Mediterranean coast, the Eastern part of Antalya has become attractive both for Germans and Nordic retirees (ibid.). Retirees mostly live segregated in gated communities with their own fellow citizens indicating very little intercultural dialogue (Balkır & Südaş 2014), while special infrastructures such as shops, restaurants, cafés and newspapers are provided (Kaya 2017). The latter group, i.e. Turkish-German second generation was found to move to the same region as the German retirees, where they get involved in tourism, mobilising their human capital of educational qualifications, language skills and life experience, while enjoying a better work-life balance (Kılınç & King 2017).

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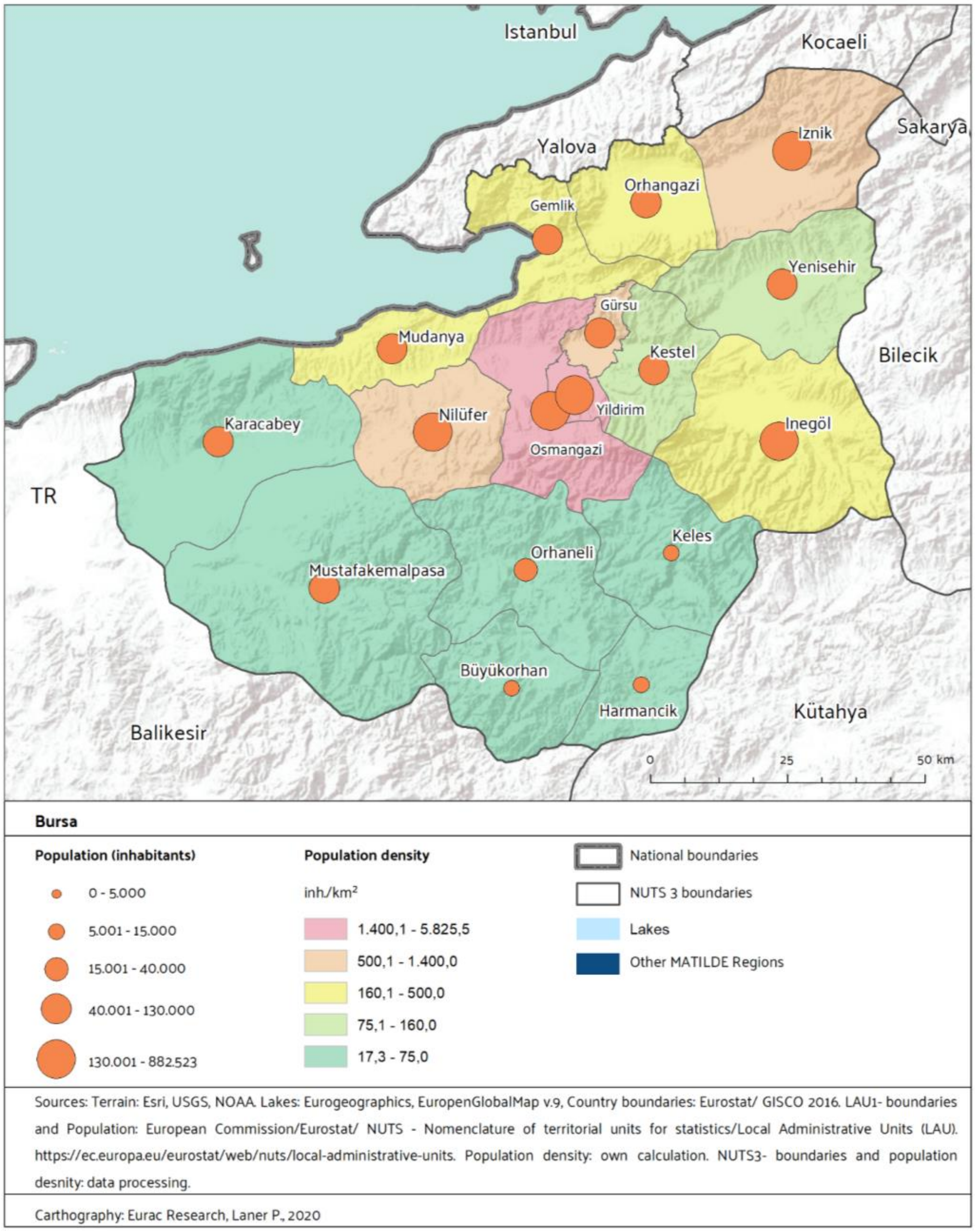
## 9.1 BURSA: TERRITORIAL AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE REGION

Authors: Ayhan Kaya and Fatma Yilmaz-Elmas




**Map 38. Bursa region**

The degree of urbanisation classification of Eurostat is not available for Turkey. As an alternative, rural regions can be identified through their population density[120]. In 2018, 92.3% of Turkey's population lived in cities and towns, and only 7.7% lived in villages (Ertürk 2020), i.e. in municipalities with less than 2,000 inhabitants. One has to keep in mind, however, that Law No. 6360 of 2012 re-scaled urban areas by absorbing rural ones. Between 2012 and 2019, the number of towns and sub-municipalities dropped from 1,977 to 386, while the number of villages dropped by 47% (34,434 to 18,280, TUIK results of Address Based Population Registration System, 2007-2019; see also Dik 2014). This makes it hard to statistically separate between the current neighbourhoods in cities and the new ones in rural areas, i.e. the previous villages (UKKS 2014).

### 9.1.1 GEOGRAPHICAL AND TERRITORIAL FEATURES OF BURSA REGION

| *TERRITORIAL INDICATORS* | *2018* |
|---|---|
| **Share of population living outside urban and intermediate municipalities** | **No data available** |
| **Share of population living in mountain areas** | **>50%** |
| **Share of territory covered by mountains** | **>50%** |
| **Share of territory covered by agricultural fields** | **45%** |
| **Border region** | **No** |

**Table 90. Territorial Indicators of Bursa, 2018**

*Data sources: Eurostat Border typology; Urban-Rural typology; Eurostat Mountain typology; Eurostat Corine Landcover; Eurostat Degree of Urbanization (DEGURBA)*

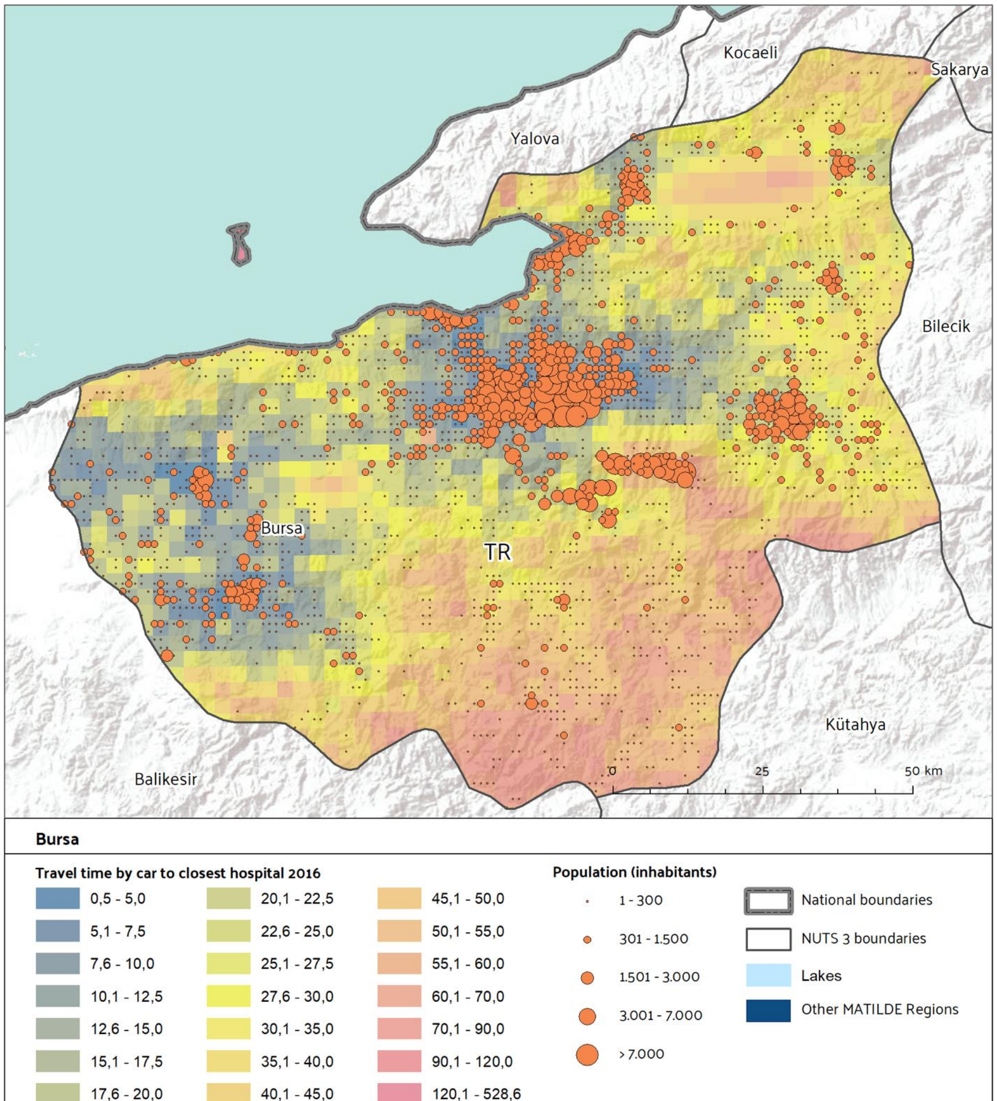
The province of Bursa is located in the Southeast Marmara Region, surrounded by provinces Bilecik and Adapazarı at its East, Kocaeli, Yalova, İstanbul and Marmara Sea at North, Kütahya at South, and Balıkesir at its West (see also Map 38). Although the province stands on the north-western slopes of Mount Uludağ (2,543 m), it is located in a pit area wherein Yenisehir, Bursa and Inegöl plains and, İznik (298 m²) and Uluabat (1,134 m²) lakes are the primary collapsed

120 Village Law No. 442 of 1924 identifies the areas with population below 2,000 as "village", between 2,000-20,000 as "town" and above 20,000 as "city". According to the administrative status of settlements, Turkish National Statistics Agency (TUIK) issues population statistics based on separation of province/district centres and towns/villages. On the other hand, another basic criterion used by TUIK when producing statistics is the population threshold. The data coverage of TUIK for the localities within the borders of Turkish Republic specifies that the localities with population 20,001 and above are defined to be urban areas, and localities with population 20,000 and below are defined as rural areas.

areas. In the north, the Marmara Sea forms a 135 km long coastline. Total surface area of the province of Bursa is 11,027 km² and 17% of the land is made up of plains. The plateaus also cover 48% of its total land, while mountains cover approximately 35% of the land surface (see also Table 90). The mountains are generally in the form of chains of mountains running across the direction of east to west. Bursa Plain consists of alluviums dragged by streams. Its land has a volcanic structure.

In terms of land use, the province covers an area of 1,088,638 hectares. Fields cover 44% of the total land. The other 44% of its land is covered by forest, which is around 472,000 ha. More specifically, Bursa's lands are covered with 35% mountains and uplands, 48% plateaus and 17% plains (Bursa İli 2018 Yılı Çevre Durum Raporu 2019). 42% of agricultural land is used as farmland, 14% as vegetable plot, 12% as orchard, 2% as vineyard and 12% as olive grove. Compared to 2006, there is a decrease in agricultural land by around 17%, mostly due to a decrease in soil fertility (Bursa İli 2018 Yılı Çevre Durum Raporu 2019). Turkish National Statistics Agency (TUIK 2020a) issued total agriculture arable land as 211,356 ha in 2018. Nevertheless, there has been observed an increase in vegetable, fruit and olive fields where higher value-added products are grown (Özkan & Kadagan 2019). Bursa's proximity to Istanbul makes it an important hub for agricultural production to provide fresh vegetables, olive, tomatoes etc. processed in the factories located in Karacabey in the West of the province, for instance.

## 9.1.2 ACCESSIBILITY FEATURES OF BURSA REGION




Sources: Terrain: Esri, USGS, NOAA. Lakes: Eurogeographics, EuropenGlobalMap v.9, Country and NUTS 3 boundaries: Eurostat/ GISCO 2016. Data source population grid information: Schiavina, Marcello; Freire, Sergio; MacManus, Kytt (2019): GHS population grid multitemporal (1975, 1990, 2000, 2015) R2019A. European Commission, Joint Research Centre (JRC) DOI: 10.2905/42E8BE89-54FF-464E-BE7B-BF9E64DA5218 PID: http://data.europa.eu/89h/0c6b9751-a71f-4062-830b-43c9f432370f. Travel times: © ESPON PROFECY, Origin of data: ESPON EGTC.

*"The interpretation of ESPON material does not necessarily reflect the opinion of the ESPON 2020 Monitoring Committee".*

Carthography: Laner P., May 2020 Eurac Research, Institute for Regional Development

**Map 39. Population distribution and accessibility of hospitals in Bursa**

MATILDE has received funding from the European Union's Horizon 2020 research and innovation programme under grant agreement No 870831

| *ACCESSIBILITY of selected Infrastructures* | **Bursa, 2016** | **MATILDE regions average, 2016** |
|---|---|---|
| **Access to hospitals, travel time by car weighted by population (minutes)** | 12 | 14.2 |
| **Access to primary schools, travel time by car weighted by population (minutes)** | 10.7 | 5.9 |
| **Access to secondary schools, travel time by car weighted by population (minutes)** | 11.8 | 9.2 |
| **Access to train stations, travel time by car weighted by population (minutes)** | 44 | 10.5 |
| **Access to shops, travel time by car weighted by population (minutes)** | 10.6 | 5.2 |

**Table 91. Accessibility of selected Infrastructures in Bursa, 2016**

*Data source: ESPON Profecy 2018*

Bursa is connected to the rest of the country mainly by highways. The new highway built in 2019 connects Istanbul with Izmir via Bursa (Road Traffic Technology 2020). The city is also connected to Istanbul via ferryboats regularly operating on the Marmara Sea. The city does not have railways connecting it to the rest of the country. There is only one train station at the southern edge of the city in the district of Büyükorhan, where the Izmir-Ankara train stops (Rail Turkey En 2020), explaining the high duration of 44 minutes to access train stations (MATILDE regions average is 10.5 minutes, see also table 91). The city has a metro/tram line operating in the central districts (UrbanRail 2020). Against this background, the travel to access services is mostly held by means of cars and metro/trams. In contrast to the densely populated city, the travel time to access services in sparsely populated parts of Bursa is relatively higher than across other MATILDE regions (see also Map 39).

## 9.1.3 SOCIAL FEATURES OF BURSA REGION

| *DEMOGRAPHIC INDICATORS*[121] | *2018* | *Variation (2008-18)* | *National average* | *EU average* | **MATILDE regions average** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Population size** | 2,936,803 | 20.4% | - | - | 425,252 |
| **Population density (inhabitants per km²)** | 284.2 | 237.4/284.2 ** | 106.2 | 105.3 | 102 |
| **Median age of population** | 34 | 1.4 * | 31.7 | 43.1 | 45 |
| **Old-age dependency ratio (>65/14-64)** | 12.6 | 1.4* | 12.6 | 30.5 | 33 |
| **Young-age Dependency Ratio** | 31.4 | -0.3* | 36.8 | 24.1 | 23 |
| **Aging Index (>65/<14)** | 39.9 | 4.3 | 36 | 124 | 148 |
| **Crude birth rate (*births per 1000 inhabitants*)** | 14.2 | -2 | 15.3 | 9.8 | 9.1 |
| **Total fertility rate (*new-born per woman*)** | 1.9 | 1.9 * | 2 | 1.54 | 1.58 |
| **Crude rate, natural population change (*‰*)** | 8.6 | 8.6/10** | +10.1 | -1.0 | -1.7 |
| **Crude rate of net migration (*‰*)** | 10.8 | 3.2/11.6** | 4.6 | 2.6 | 3.6 |
| **Crude rate of total population change (*‰*)** | 19.5 | 12.1/27.5 ** | 14.7 | 1.6 | 1.9 |

**Table 92. Demographic indicators in Bursa, 2018**

*Data source: Eurostat, Population (Demography, Migration and Projections)*

## DEMOGRAPHY

According to address-based population registration system, the Bursa province has 3,056,120 inhabitants as of 2019 (TUIK 2020b, see also table 92). Population in urban area consists of 54.8% (1,982,898 inhabitants) and population in city area consists of 46.2% (1,412,701 inhabitants) of the total population of the province. Population density is 293.2 persons/km². Total fertility rate for Bursa is 1.74 in 2019 with a decrease compared to the previous year, where it was 1.87. The decrease in fertility rate mostly results from the processes of urbanization and growing economic and financial pressure.

121 * This is calculated only for the period 2014-2018 - ** Minimum and maximum values recorded in the period considered.

The MATILDE region Bursa is characterized by an impressive **population increase** of nearly 400,000 persons (2018 compared to 2010, which is in line with the national trend, cf. Chart 145).

2019 figures collected by TUIK (2020a) shows that 0-14 age group population of Bursa is 660,134. Young population (15-24 age group) has the share of 419,397 persons in total population. Accordingly, proportion of young population (15-24 age group) in total population is 13.7%. in the age group 15-64, there are 2,113,125 persons, which corresponds to 69% of the population of the province. This is above the ratio of Turkey in terms of population of the same age group which is 67.8%. Age 65 and over population is also 282,861 (9.3%) close to that of Turkey (9.1%) in terms of ratio (own calculations). For the province of Bursa, total age dependency ratio is indicated as 44.6 (44.5 in 2018) below the general ratio in Turkey (47.5) whereas elderly dependency ratio (age 65 and over) is 13.39 in 2019 (12.89 in 2018). Elderly dependency ratio (age 65+) is close to that of Turkey (13.4).

Regarding population per gender, the province of Bursa has a balanced demographic structure divided in half by genders, accordingly male population is 1,530,956 whereas female population is 1,525,164 (2019 figures, TUIK 2020b). Considering young population (15-24 age group) by gender, male population is 216,406 persons and female population is 202,991.

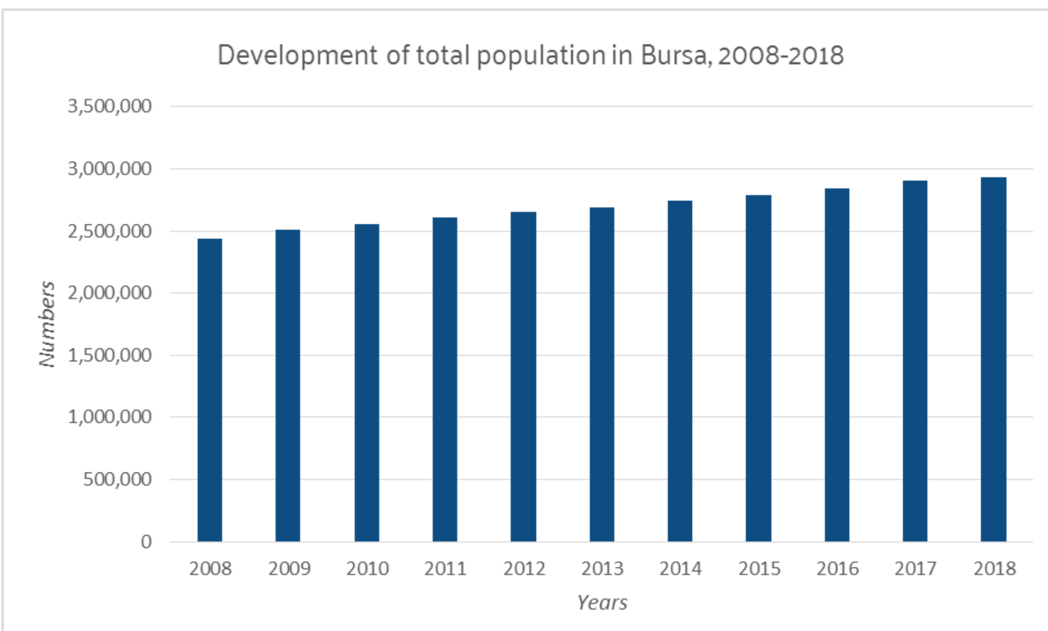



**Chart 145. Development of total population in Bursa, 2008-2018**

*Data sources: Eurostat*

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Over the last ten years, the **migration balance** in the MATILDE region Bursa was **positive** and rose as the following graph indicates. Most of the provinces whose population growth rates are above the average in Turkey are those with high industrial production capacity and high tourism and agricultural potential. Bursa is one of these provinces due to the aforementioned characteristics. Bursa, therefore, is among the first five provinces receiving migration in Turkey. It is also one of the main destinations for internal migrants because of the vicinity with Istanbul. However, given the net migration figures, Bursa is also among the migrant-sending provinces. Migration balance table below confirms this fact clearly. The positive migration balance is the result of immigration of foreigners due to the fact that migration balance of nationals was very small in all years.

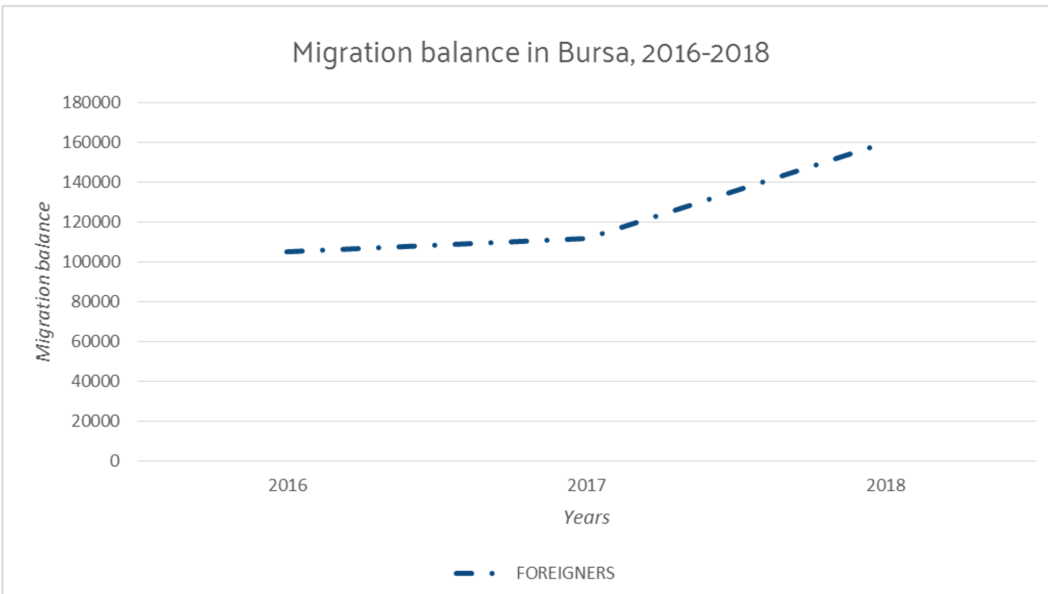


**Chart 146: Migration balance of foreigners in Bursa, 2016-2018**

*Data source: Eurostat*

## DEMOGRAPHY: FOCUS ON FOREIGNERS

According to the data issued by TUIK (2020a) in 2019, the population of foreign nationals in Bursa is 48,595. From 2017 to 2018, there was a considerable increase (26,198 to 44,798). It is important to note that these figures are issued according to address-based population registration system and do not include the Syrians under temporary protection.

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In line with the development on the national level, the total number of migrants (including Syrians under temporary protection) increased significantly in the last years. The share of migrants among total population is slightly higher in Bursa (7.4%) compared to the national average (5.9% in 2018, TUIK 2020a, see also Chart 146). According to the Directorate General of Migration Management (2020), the number of Syrians under temporary protection in Bursa is 176,143 by the date of June 5, 2020 (total Syrian population under temporary protection in Turkey is 3,581,636, ibid.). Accordingly, the share of Syrians among the total population was 5.4% (own calculations).

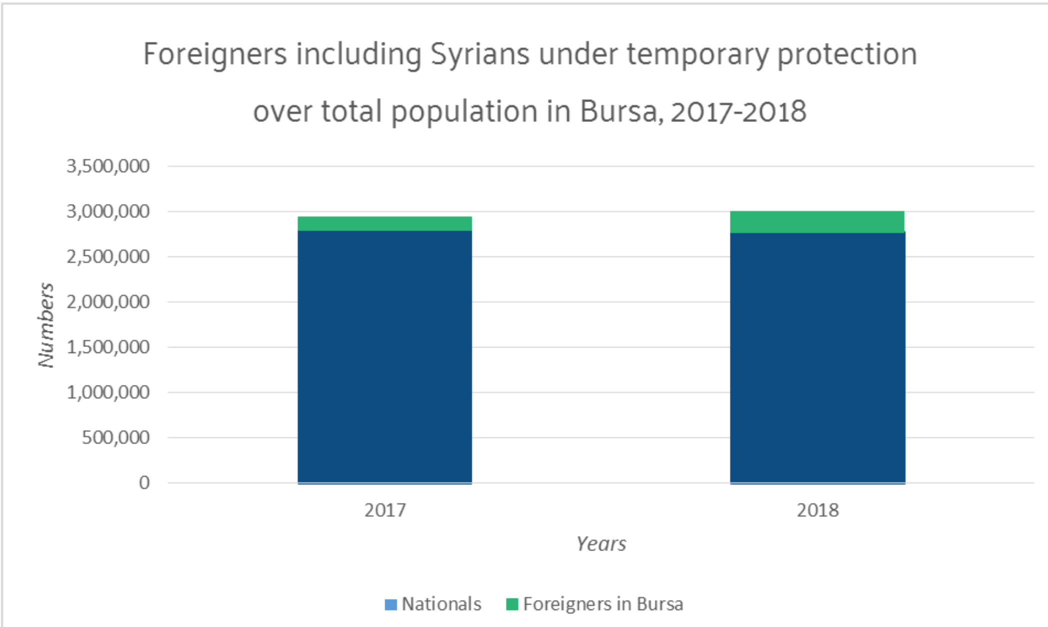


**Chart 147. Foreigners including Syrians under temporary protection over total population in Bursa, 2017-2018**

*Data source: own calculations based on TUIK 2020a*

## IMPORTANT NATIONALITIES IN BURSA

As of 2019, the official record covering the population of foreign nationals in Bursa is 48,595 (TUIK 2020a, excluding Syrian population under the temporary protection, foreigners holding visas or residence permits shorter than 3 months with the purpose of training, tourism, scientific research etc.). The main foreign nationals with residence permits in Bursa are Azerbaijanis (7,273), Syrians (6,483), Russians (4,784), Iraqis (2,659), Kazakhs (2,625), Bulgarians (3,130), Greeks (3,099), Germans (2,030), Uzbeks (1,629), Kyrgyzes (1,452) and Kuwaitis (1,263). Besides, Afghans (987), Turkmens (749), Iranians (500), Egyptians (825), Georgians (545), Palestinians (761), Ukrainians (821) and Jordanians (678) are the other foreign nationals counting more than 500 individuals.

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### AGE AND GENDER STRUCTURE

Due to lack of data, no specific characterization for the age structure and for the gender structure of foreigners can be provided.

## 9.1.4 EDUCATIONAL FEATURES OF BURSA REGION

The 2018 literacy rate in Bursa was 97.7% (TUIK 2020a, without foreigners). Population by literacy status (6 years of age and over) in total population is 2,687,754 out of which 2,601,247 is literate. Proportion of literate male (age 6+) consists of 99.2% and the proportion of literate female (age 6+) is 95.7%. According to population by education status (age 15+), high school or vocational school at high school level graduate in total is 591,122 which corresponds to 25.9% of the total population in Bursa. Thereby, males are overrepresented (30% compared to 21.8%). Due to lack of data on NUTS-2 and NUTS-3 level, no specific characterization for foreigners regarding the educational background can be provided.

### NEETS

Due to lack of data on NUTS-2 and NUTS-3 level, no specific characterization regarding the individuals under 35 neither in formal or informal education or training (NEET) can be provided for foreigners.

## 9.1.5 ECONOMIC FEATURES OF BURSA REGION

| ***ECONOMIC INDICATORS***[122] | ***2017*** | ***Variation 2008-2017*** | ***National average (2017)*** | ***EU average (2017)***[123] | ***MATILDE regions average (2017)*** |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Regional GDP per capita at purchasing power standards** | 22,200 | Growth rate: -4.3% | 19,600 | 29,800 | 29,624 |

122 * Data refers to 2011.

123 Missing data for France for Regional Gross Value Added and Employment by sector; Average has been therefore calculated on the basis of 26 Member States.

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Regional Gross value added: primary sector** | 6%* | n.a. | Missing data | 2% (7,098.5 million euro) | 4% |
| **Regional Gross value added: secondary sector** | 41%* | n.a. | Missing data | 27% (95,398 million euro) | 30% |
| **Regional Gross value added: tertiary sector** | 53%* | n.a. | Missing data | 71% (254,090 million euro) | 66% |

**Table 93. Economic indicators in Bursa, 2017**

*Data source for national average of gross value added by sector: TUIK 2020c*

Bursa is the fourth most economically developed province in Turkey. Having vast and fertile plains as well as vast and richly varied forests in the surrounding mountainous region, the geographical location gives the province of Bursa a special feature of a rare agricultural region along with an industrial and trade centre of Turkey. The climate and geographical structure provide Bursa with a fertile environment to produce various **agricultural** products. The province has also become an important agriculture-based industry centre (see also Table 93). Almost every sub-sector of the food industry operates in the province. Leading factories operating in the food industry sector as well as the import-export industry in the fields of feed, poultry, livestock and dairy products are centered in the region due to the agricultural sector and animal husbandry. Its **secondary sector** also displays a strong concentration of automotive manufacturing, textile and furniture production, and an increasing **service sector** that supports production and development activities in the secondary sector. In addition to its plains and water resources, the mountainous feature also makes Bursa attractive for winter tourism. A total of 1,625,275 tourists came to Bursa in 2018, 370,387 of whom were foreigners. However, this is still below 1% of the total number of 39,000,488 foreign tourists that have visited Turkey in 2018 (enBursa 2019; Ministry of Culture and Tourism 2019).

According to data indicated by Bursa Chamber of Commerce and Industry (BTSO, 2020), the amount of import in 2018 was 8,518,026 (in thousand $), while export was worth 15,869,442 (in thousand $). The Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK, 2020a) issued the 2018 data on GDP per capita in $ and Turkish Lira (TL) as 11,095 respectively 52,372. In Turkey, the share of the top 10 provinces in the GDP share exceeds 65 percent. In other words, all the remaining 71 provinces can only get 35 percent share. Bursa is among the provinces with the highest GDP share (see also Chart 148). Considering the total exports made by provinces in the years between 2007-2016, following Istanbul (693,745 million USD), Bursa reached a total export of 99.375 million USD (BEBKA 2018). Entrepreneurship indicators, particularly, the number of big companies established in Bursa, have a considerable share in this table. Considering the number of companies in lists such as AllWorld, ISO 500, ISO 2. 500, Capital 500 or Forbes 500, Bursa is among the leading ones in the lists, within top five alongside Istanbul, Ankara, Izmir, and Kocaeli (ORAN 2013).

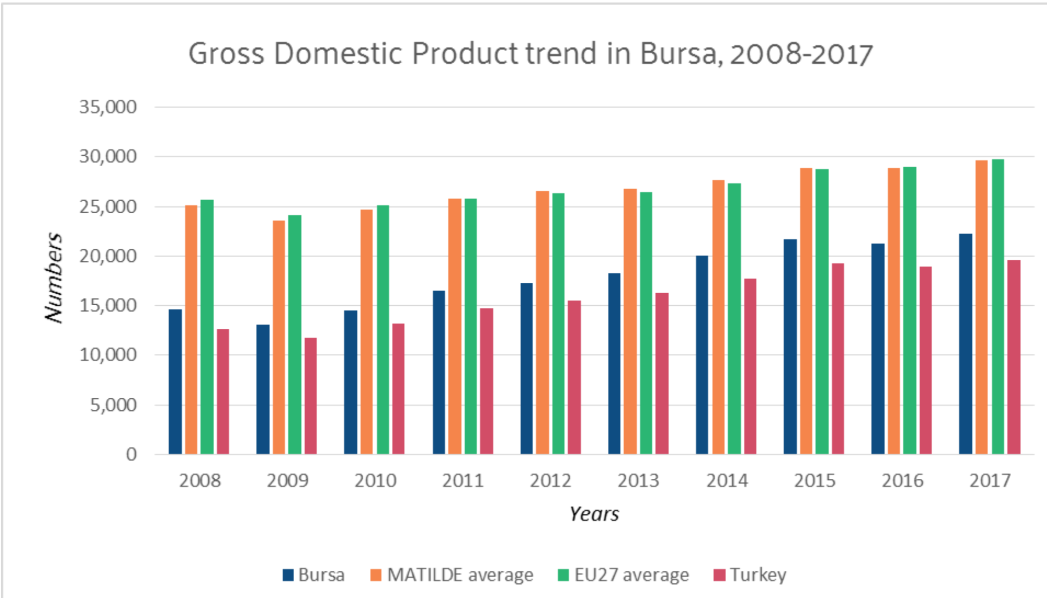


**Chart 148. Gross Domestic Product trend in Bursa, 2008-2017**

*Data source: Eurostat, Gross domestic product (GDP) at current market prices by NUTS 3 regions*

## LABOUR MARKET

| *LABOUR MARKET INDICATORS* | *2017* | *Variation 2008-2017* | *National average (2017)* | *EU average (2017)* | *MATILDE regions average* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Unemployment rate (%/percentage points)** | 9.1% | 2.1 | 10.9% | 8.1 % | 8.4% |
| **Employment in primary sector (%, thousands of employees)** | Missing data | Missing data | 20,3% (6,021) | 5% (353.98) | 5% (6.75) |
| **Employment in secondary sector (%, thousands of employees)** | Missing data | Missing data | 18,8% (5,421) | 23% (1,584.74) | 26% (36.19) |
| **Employment in tertiary sector (%, thousands of employees)** | Missing data | Missing data | 60,8% (17,535) | 71% (4,830.33) | 69% (97.63) |

| *LABOUR MARKET INDICATORS* | *2017* | *Variation 2008-2017* | *National average (2017)* | *EU average (2017)* | *MATILDE regions average* |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **People at risk of poverty or social exclusion (%)** | 15.7% | 13% / 16.8% | 41.3% | 21.6% | 17.3% |

**Table 94. Labour Market indicators in Bursa, 2017**

*Data sources: Eurostat Gross domestic product (GDP) at current market prices by NUTS 3 regions; OECD Gross domestic product (GDP); Eurostat Gross value added at basic prices by NUTS 3 regions. Risk of poverty: TUIK; National average employment by sector: TUIK 2020d*

However, the data gathered in previous years indicate that the NUTS 2 region TR41, which encompasses Bursa, Eskişehir and Bilecik provinces, has a lower rate of unemployment among both males and females in the 15 – 24 age group and the above 25 age group compared to the average rate in Turkey. The unemployment figures between 2007 and 2011 indicate that the average rate of unemployment in Turkey was oscillating between around 20 % to 25 % while it was around 16 - 19 % in the TR41 region.[124] The main source of the relatively lower levels of unemployment in Bursa and its districts is the diversity of industrial, agricultural and service sectors providing jobs for the locals as well as the foreigners.

One of the main reasons why the unemployment rate remained high and above the average of Turkey until 2010, can be interpreted as unregistered employment (see also Chart 149). In 2010, the informality rate was 19.4% for men and 41.5% for women in Bursa. Especially, the unregistered employment ratio in the female unpaid family labour in agriculture points directly to unregistered labour and therefore causes high increase in unemployment rate not only for Bursa but also for Turkey in general. By sector, 94% of women in agriculture were unregistered in 2010 for Bursa. By 2013, general informality rate has fallen to 24.5%. In parallel to this trend, the rate of the unregistered employment in Bursa decreased to 24.2% although the informality rate for female employment remained unchanged. This was mainly due to the increase in female employment in industrial sector increased by 10,000 people where the unregistered employment is relatively lower than in the agricultural sector (Toksöz 2016; see also Kılıç 2017).

124 For more information on the socio-economic indicators of TR41 between 2007 and 2011, see http://bebka.org.tr/admin/datas/yayins/kalkinmagostergeleriyle_eylul12_internet.pdf (in Turkish language).

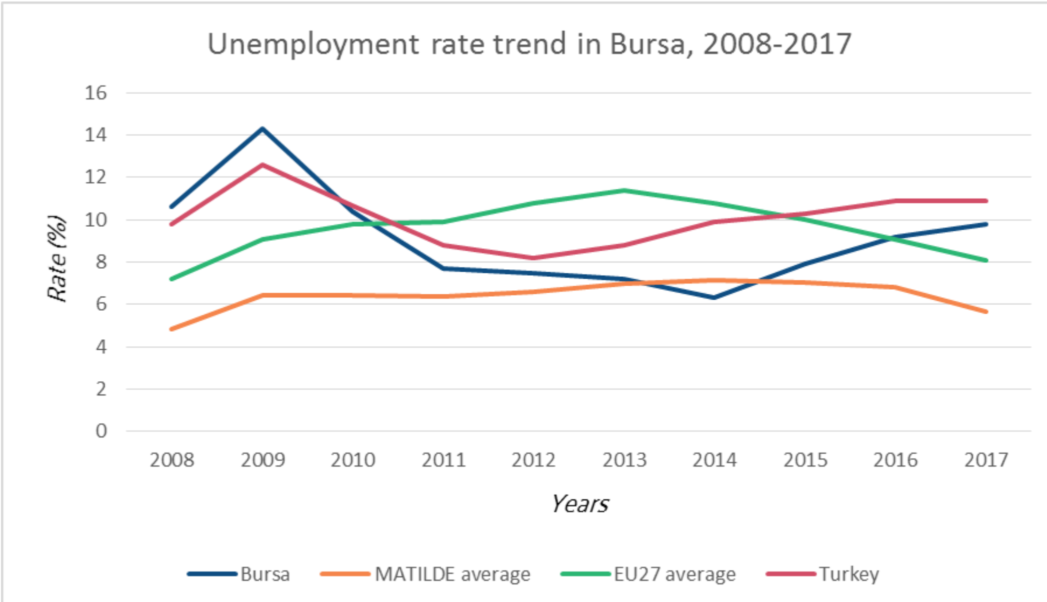


**Chart 149. Unemployment rate trends in Bursa, 2008-2017**

*Data sources: OECD.stat, Labour indicators, small regions TL3 and large regions TL2; Eurostat, Total unemployment rate; National statistical offices of MATILDE countries; Unemployment rate of TCNs, 2018 (*available at NUTS2, **available by degree of urbanization),*

## LABOUR MARKET: FOCUS ON FOREIGNERS

Due to lack of data on NUTS-2 and NUTS-3 level, no specific characterization regarding the employment rates of foreigners can be provided. Focussing on Syrians, most of the youngsters, however, are employed in agriculture, textile and service sector. High rates of youth employment are found in the textile sector, as the Syrians who are settled in Bursa mostly originate from Aleppo with an earlier expertise on textile production. A relevant share of Syrian youngsters under temporary protection is employed in agricultural sector, especially in the western districts of the city. There is also a group of Syrian migrants who are mostly working as seasonal agricultural workers in the fields as well as in the preservation factories such as TAT Konserve, whose employment rate increases during summertime (Dedeoğlu & Bayraktar, 2019).

## UNEMPLOYMENT RATE OF FOREIGNERS

Due to lack of data on NUTS-2 and NUTS-3 level, no specific characterization regarding the unemployment rates of foreigners can be provided. As the Syrians under temporary protection prefer to be employed in informal sectors in

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order to enjoy the benefits of the Emergency Social Safety Net (ESSN) Program introduced by the EU in 2016 (WFP 2019), there are no reliable data on their unemployment rate.

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