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THE EFFECTS OF GLOBAL CHANGES ON HUMAN RESOURCES; A CASE OF RURAL -URBAN MIGRATION IN TURKEY

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ABSTRACT

One of the most significant of all post-war demographic phenomena and one that promises to loom even larger in the future is the rapid growth of cities such as in particularly developing countries. It is predicted that urban populations will nearly double by 2030 to 5.1 billion. Until the end of 1960s, rural-urban migration was viewed favorably in the economic development literature. International migration was thought to be a natural process in which surplus labour was gradually withdrawn from the rural sector to provide needed manpower for urban industrial growth. However migration today must be seen as a major contributing factor to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labour and a force, which continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems.

The type of work done by Turkish workers is changing, with globalization of the economic structure of the world, especially with the information and service sectors as the main resource of new employment in recent years. The way people work is also changing with a strong movement from a sector to another. Since 1950s a great number of the population has migrated from rural to urban areas as well as from less developed regions to developed regions. This raises great concerns in terms of job security, job content, undemanded skills and relationship between working and living patterns.

In brief, it is important to have a well-informed debate on these basic conditions for the development of working life and human resources in Turkey. Turkey has some problems to discuss in her own condition in the globalization of economic, social, and cultural processes, as a developing country and also as an applicant country to the EU and a partner of Euro-Mediterranean Partnership for achieving the Med-Programmes. Special attention must be given in accordance with the inflow of population to cities, which often burdens the capacity of urban governments to provide employment, basic services, housing and sanitation and living conditions for citizens.

1. INTRODUCTION

The changing of society is nothing new. The process of changing human life and the structure of society goes back thousands of years. However the changing of society and its effects upon human life became very efficient after the industrial revolution in the 19th century.

Today the world is divided into two blocks variously labelled as the developed and developing countries. The division is made on the basis of the socio-economic development of countries, usually announced rich and poor countries. Developed countries demonstrate high levels of industrialization and economic growth, population mainly settled in urban areas with sharing of "urban culture", whereas developing countries lag behind in these respects.

As is known, socio-economic development requires effective utilization of three types of resources: economic or monetary, physical or material, and social or human. Among these three resources, human resources are the most critical because it is through the utilization of human resources that monetary investments bear fruit.

During the last 30 years, we have witnessed an information and communication technology revolution, not only in highly developed industrial societies but also developing societies. It means that these developments are reshaping work, skill structures and the organization of enterprises. Through this, they are causing fundamental changes to the labour market, and to society as a whole. The new pace of change, and modes of production it engenders, require broader-based skills and new production processes to respond to constantly changing market demands. In these processes of changing work structure, in the future not only will highly educated worker find a job, but jobs will be served by well trained workers. Traditional or manual jobs may remain, but their relative importance will decline over the next years.

2. GLOBAL EFFECTS ON ECONOMY AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Most of the studies deals with globalization as a process. The concept of globalization refers both to an increasing flow of goods and resources across national borders and to the emergence of a complementary set of organizational structures to manage the expanding network of economic activities and transactions (Trade and Development Report, 1997). The globalization concept is more than a state of control of affiliates; it is about a process of taking risks for better utilization of resources to attain a higher performance. However, nowadays globalization is not taking account of getting more profit from the world single market; at the same time, world single markets produce their own economic, social, and political values under the roof of global interest. This means that globalization is an approach: it includes non-economic values transfer, may be more than cultural and political values. In this context all interdisciplinary studies remark a new style of social and economic changes. In one sense, understanding of living cannot be divided into local, regional and national parts. All human beings have started to understand that they have been living on one earth and there is no other earth to live on. The globalization process introduces new social, economic and political values to all citizens of the world. But the globalization discussions are divided in two counter part views. Some studies on the globalization process are not very optimistic about the global trends, especially from the point of view of the developing countries because of the unequal sharing of world profits. This consideration is not only about the economic division of capitals, but involves further discussions about cultural development and pressures on social and cultural values. Local traditional culture interactions are thought to be destroyed and domination of western culture does not allow living space for other various cultural richness in other parts of the world.

In a word, globalization might be understood as not only one style of understanding of living, cultural values and one style of consumer behavior; in another sense, people are living on the "planet" whose name is earth, and this means having to be concerned about the planet and the people living in it. Therefore all human beings have to share world-wide acceptable values for peace and to protect themselves from global threats such as unfair competition, unstable growth, unemployment, use of non-renewable resources, global pollution, improper use of knowledge and information technology etc... For that reason in the globalization process sustainable development has become the most important value not only for developed economies but also for emerging economies.

Ecosystems are the productive engines of the planet. Communities species that interact with each other and with the physical setting they live in, surround us like forests, grasslands, rivers, coastal and deep-sea waters, islands, mountains and even cities. Each ecosystem represents a solution to a particular challenge to life, worked out over millennia; each encodes the lessons of survival and efficiency as countless species scramble for sunlight, water, nutrients and space. Stripped of its ecosystem, the earth would resemble the stark, lifeless images beamed back from Mars by NASA cameras in 1997 (World Resources, 2002, p. 3). In every respect social and economic development and human security are closely linked to the productivity of ecosystem. There is the difficulty of recreating the natural life-support systems that the ecosystem provides and that we damage beyond their capacity to rebound. In this context, globalization processes are dangerous for and impacting on natural resources, and therefore there is the need of establishing new world-wide standards and norms for the protection of ecosystems.

3. GLOBALIZATION AND METROPOLITAN DEVELOPMENT

In economic literature, globalization refers to a situation of nations' increasing closeness in economic terms through trade, capital flows and new international division of labor. After World War II, globalization brought labourmigration from less developed countries to developed countries under the roof of re-organaton of international division of labour. After the 1980s, accompanied by rapid technological innovation and information technology and by the decrease of raw materials prices, globalization brought a new perspective to old metropolis. In the globalization process, emerging economies become attractive to the foreign direct investment. According to Gregory Ingram, urban development patterns in both industrial and developing countries with market-oriented economies show strong regularities consistent with basic urban location theory. For example, large metropolitan areas cover similarly decentralized structures with multiple subcenters, decentralized manufacturing and more centralized service employment (Freire and Stren, 2001, p. xviii).

After World War II, urbanization has been one of the most remarkable fact in developing countries. Both rural and urban migration put pressure mainly upon large cities. Between 1950-1990, the number of

“million cities” in the world more than tripled, from 78 to 276, and is now projected to reach 511 by 2010. In 1990, 33 percent of the world's population lived in “million cities” and 10 percent in the cities of more than 8 million inhabitants.

According to Gertler, in the future, trade liberalization and financial integration will reinforce the importance of urban agglomeration economies, and localized networks for production will be essential underpinnings of global competitiveness. In this sense, globalisation trend helps the cities set up a new relation system in a hierarchical structure among them. The relation system among the cities in problem solving matters, enable them to use the same experiences. For that reason, cities establish the same style of organizations and also give importance to participating in international organizations. The combination of urbanization, globalization and the reality of cultural dimensions is an important factor to be put at the foundation of the effort for development. That combination has to be watched with tremendous attention and vigilance. In the 21st century how we live will be determined and globalisation and rapid urbanization will define what sort of social living we shall experience. We are not prepared for rapid urbanization, which is, indeed, the new situation in the reality of an urban world , . The mega-city consists of great complexity, great economic power, great political power and tremendous diplomatic power in most cases.

4. SOCIAL CHANGES AND UNDERSTANDING OF INFORMATION SOCIETY

The changing of society is nothing new. The process of changing human life and the structure of society goes back thousands of years. However changing of society and its effects upon human life become very efficient after industrial revolution in the 19th century.

In the 20th century the world is divided into two blocks, the developed and developing countries. The division is made on the basis of the socio-economic development of countries usually referred to as rich and poor countries. Developed countries demonstrate high levels of industrialization and economic growth, with the population settled mainly in urban areas sharing the “urban culture” whereas developing countries lag behind in these respects.

During the last 30 years, we have witnessed an information and communication technology (ICT) revolution, not only in highly developed industrial societies but also developing societies. It means that these developments are reshaping work, skill structures and the organization of enterprises. Through this, they are causing fundamental changes to the labour market, and to society as a whole. The new pace of change, and modes of production it engenders, require broader-base skills and new production processes to respond to constantly changing market demands. This process is both different from, and faster than anything we have seen before. It has a huge potential for wealth creation, higher standards of living and better services.

In this process of changing work structure, in the future not only will a highly educated worker find a job, but jobs will be served by well-trained workers. Traditional or manual jobs may remain, but their relative importance will decline in the near future. In particular the huge number of workers employed in the agricultural sector in developing countries, will lose their jobs and move to urban sector.

The phenomenon of economic globalization was identified by the Turin European Council as one of the major challenges facing the EU and end of the 20th century. The term refers to a process of growing economic integration worldwide and the main driving forces behind it are:

- Liberalization of international trade and capital movements;
- Accelerating technological process and the advent of information society;
- Deregulation.

These three factors introduce a worldwide new style of working and understanding of living forms. That means we are living through a historic period and technological change, brought about by the development and the widening application of information and communication technologies.

All countries, including developed countries, have to take part in these global changes to receive huge potential for wealth creation, higher standards of living and better services. In particular regional and sectoral development and transfer of manpower among the sectors and also investment in human resources will take on a new form from this approach.

Recent social changes have erased some new demands from the public of Europe as well. The European Union responded to popular demands at the EU summit in Berlin in March 1999.

In brief (European Commission (1999, p. 4):

Greater quality of opportunity and a better quality of life for people living in areas and regions in special need;

Passing on to the next generation a natural environment that is beginning to recover from the damage and degradation inflicted in the past;

Access to a wide range of high quality foodstuffs that are safe to eat and produced at competitive prices by a farming population guaranteed reasonable incomes;

Responsible and efficient management of the Union's finances so that expenditure is as disciplined as that of member states.

5. EMPLOYMENT IN THE INFORMATION SOCIETY

ICTs have led to an enormous reduction in the cost of storing and processing of information over the last 50 years. We are now witnessing a similar reduction in the cost of transmitting information. This is the beginning of the information distribution revolution. ICTs are reshaping working life, the organization of enterprises and the whole of society. It means economies are being transformed away from the standardised manual production towards a more diversified, knowledge based, production of goods and services. One can easily accept that ICTs provide tremendous opportunities for improved productivity and real wages, and thereby for strong economic growth and new jobs. However, statistics show that the main economic, social and political problems, not only in developing countries but also in Europe, are high and persistent unemployment. Unemployment problems are especially present in the urban areas of the world. In Europe 18 million people are unemployed. Half of them have been out of work for a year or more. There are at least 9 million more discouraged workers who would look for a job if they thought work existed (European Commission 1996: 14).

Unemployment is higher for women than men. According to statistical data unemployment rate by sex 8.6% male in the E.U. while 11.8%, female compared to 4.4%, 4.6% in the U.S.; 4.2%, 4.0% in Japan. Unemployment effected women worst (as a percentage of total unemployed persons in 1998). Half the women are unemployed (50.6%). Also unemployment affects young people under 25 years old very deeply. In the E.U. 19.5%, in the U.S. 10.4%, in Japan 6.9% young workers are unemployed (Eurostat, 2000, pp. 20-21).

The ICT revolution plays an important role in the functioning of the labour market, through the reshaping of work, skill structures and the organization of work. As the new technology is an information technology, it requires not only stronger basic skills in calculation and literacy, but also a new form of basic skill, the skill of interaction with the new technology.

Technological developments and competition between enterprises are stimulating the speed of structural change. Each year, on average, more than 10% of all jobs disappear and are replaced by different jobs in new processes, in new enterprises, generally requiring new, higher or broader skills.

The real challenge for the transformation and upgrading of skills lies in the re-adaptation of those who are already in the labour force to the new requirements of the information society. However, many in the workforce have limited basic skills in calculation and literacy, skills even more necessary than ever in the information society, and a great number have no education and training in information technology. People with outdated or inadequate vocational training find it difficult to re enter the workforce (European Commission, 1996, p. 17).

The services sector is the dominant sector among the employment sectors with 65.7% of the whole manpower and only 4.7% in agriculture and 29.5% in industry in the EU. Services sectors highly influenced by the ICTs revolution. For that reason, unemployment breaks down in this sector more than the others.

In the long term, the underlying need is for countries to develop a new architecture of life long education and training, involving all parts of education and training systems, including schools, designed and delivered in more appropriate ways, with particular regards to gender, but also by engaging more effectively older people and those with disabilities.

6. EMPLOYMENT AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS WITH THE EU POLICIES AND EURO-MEDITERRANEAN PARTNERSHIP

Employment is one of the prime areas of concern in society today. Many people, including young

people and women, are currently out of work or face the prospect of unemployment. It is a problem affecting every country in Europe, and the governments considered the problem urgent.

In accordance with the social summit of 1995 in Copenhagen commitments were the following (EESC, April 2000, pp. 1-2).

Commitment 1: We commit ourselves to creating an economic, political, social, cultural, and legal environment that will enable people to achieve social development.

Commitment 3: We commit ourselves to promoting the goal of full employment as a basic priority of our economic and social policies, and to enabling man and woman to attain stable sustainable livelihoods through freely chosen productive employment and work.

Commitment 9: We commit ourselves to increasing significantly and/or utilising more efficiently the sources allocated to social development in order to achieve the goals of the summit through national action and regional and international cooperation.

20 and 21 September 2000 the Economic and Social Committee adopted the following opinion in the topic of overall political objectives (EESC, Sept.2000,pp. 1-2).

Economic Objectives; maintaining low - cost raw materials for private and public users, securing long-term resources availability guaranteeing energy supply on a lasting basis, ensuring that everyone has a share in overall rising income and prosperity.

Ecological Objectives; conserving natural resources and protecting the climate, preserving and developing the natural environment, safeguarding natural resources in the long term through the use of renewable resources, maintaining biodiversity.

Social Objectives; preserving and developing recreational areas, creating jobs, protecting social and cultural resources, ensuring equity for a "fair" distribution of income.

The European Union participated actively in the deliberations on the right to development in various bodies of the United Nations concerned with human rights and development. According to the UN general assembly the human being is the central subject of development and should be the active participant and beneficiary of right to development. The right to development is based on the understanding that development is a process targeted at the realization of civil, cultural, economic, political and social rights meeting equitably the developmental and environmental needs of present and future generations. (EU Annual Report on Human Rights 1988-99: 47)

All over the EU Treaty communication from the commission on global assessment of European Community program of policy and action in relation to the environment and sustainable development concerns European citizens' living conditions and related to human kind social, economic, cultural situations. From all these points, the European Community and European Parliament always take account of the citizens belief and understanding of living.

7. EURO-MEDITERRANEAN PARTNERSHIP

The Euro-Mediterranean Partnership was established at the Euro-Mediterranean conference of Ministers of Foreign Affairs held in Barcelona on November 27 - 28 1995. This partnership was unanimously approved by the 27 Foreign ministers present which gives it a special force. Barcelona opened the way to a process aimed at intensifying, at all levels, relations between the European Union and its Mediterranean partners. One can easily understand that this partnership is an innovatory one. The 15 member states of European Union are committing themselves to a policy of the Mediterranean, and no longer for the Mediterranean, the main goal of which is to reduce the gap between the neighbours to the north and south of the Mediterranean (European Commission; Mart 1997: 7).

One of the important meanings of this partnership is that it was the first time that the European Union and the Mediterranean partners considered the dialogue between their cultures and civilisations as one of the essential themes of the partnership. Another important project in the partnerships connected with this article is that the European Union committed itself to supporting the effort to upgrade economically its Mediterranean partners, whose economies have been protected for a long time, and whose companies are fragile from many points of view.

The approach chosen in order to take up the challenge of world economy competition, with Europe as partner, seems to be the one with the best chance of success. For the Mediterranean partners, there is also an advantage of a special link with Europe in order to (European Commission, 1997, p. 15):

- integrate their economies into the European system;
- adapt to world competition;
- take advantage of European support in order to implement the necessary reforms;
- benefit from effects induced by the association.

All indicators show that the Mediterranean region has insufficient foreign investment. This partnership plays a crucial role in the transfer of expertise and technologies. Economic growth; which the Mediterranean partners need in order to benefit from the free trade zone, depends in large measure on their ability to attract this foreign and in particular, European' investment. Increasing investment in the region could help to produce employment for a large number of unemployed manpower and could help to arouse income per persons in GNP.

8. EU AND MED COUNTRIES COMPARED WITH TURKEY IN LABOUR FORCE

According to the World statistical data the population aged 15-64 is often used to provide a rough estimate of the potential labour force. But in many developing countries, especially in the agricultural sector, children under 15 work full or part time. In recent years the population movement from rural to urban areas also brought some of the manpower under age 16 to urban sectors, namely industry and services. And in some sense in some high-income countries many workers seem to have postponed their retirement to continue to be included in the labour force over the age of 65. Even if in many countries child labour is officially abolished, and thus is not included in surveys or in official data, according to ILO statistical data to some projects that have been done, children are engaged in agricultural or household activities with their families. In some developing countries children under 16 also become part of the labour force in industry and services, which need cheap and flexible labour.

Comparing the data given by the World Bank in Table 1, one can easily see that eliminating children from working life is a must for most Countries, but for MED ones, including Turkey. However, governmental programs seem to promise that the use of children in labour force will be reduced. In this case, one of the most important programs is to keep children in school systems longer through compulsory schools and the introduction of new training programs within the professional system.

Comparing the EU countries with other countries in MED base with regard to the labour force, a larger number of EU female labour takes place than in the other MED countries. Also, as is shown in Table 4, in developing countries in the Mediterranean, female workers are largely involved in the agricultural sector, compared with industry and service sectors, more than it happens in other EU-MED countries.

Differences in the opportunities and resources available to men and women exist throughout the Mediterranean countries, but they are mostly prevalent in poor MED countries. This pattern begins at an early age, with boys receiving a larger share of education and health spending than girls. Girls in developing parts of the world and these Mediterranean countries are allowed less education by their families than boys, and this is reflected in lower female school enrollment and higher female illiteracy. As a result women have fewer employment opportunities, especially in the formal sector.

Table 2 shows that over a period of 25 years of change, an economy and social order built on that economy is reshaped. The last quarter of the past century seem to be the shift in production from agriculture to manufacturing and services, the reduction of the agricultural labour force and the growth of urban centers; the expansion of trade, and the increasing size of the central government in most Med-countries. All the indicators shown here appear in most other countries.

Agricultural activities provide developing Med-countries with food and revenue. At the same time they also contribute to the degradation of natural resources by using also wet lands and forest areas for agricultural production. Poor farming practices can cause soil erosion and loss of fertility. Efforts to increase productivity through the use of chemical fertilizers, pesticides and incentive irrigation have environmental costs and health impacts. According to FAO indicators excessive use of chemical fertilizers can alter the chemistry of the soil. Pesticide poisoning is common in developing countries. Table 3 shows that there are very big gaps between EU-Med countries and other Med-countries with the major inputs to agricultural production land, fertilizers and agricultural machinery.

Table1. Labour Force Structure.

	Population aged 15-64 (millions)		Labour Force								
			Total (millions)			Average annual growth rate (%)		Female % of labour force		Children 10-14 % of age group	
	1980	1997	1980	1997	2010	1980-97	1997-2010	1980	1997	1980	1997
Albania	2	2	1	2	2	1,8	1,5	39	41	4	1
Algeria	9	17	5	9	15	3,9	3,8	21	26	7	1
Egypt Arab.Rep.	23	36	14	22	32	2,6	2,7	27	29	18	10
France	34	38	24	26	27	0,6	0,2	40	45	0	0
Greece	6	7	4	5	5	1,1	0,1	28	37	5	0
Israel	2	4	1	2	3	3,1	2,4	34	40	0	0
Italy	36	39	23	25	25	0,7	-0,2	33	38	2	0
Jordan	1	3	1	1	2	5,3	3,6	15	23	4	0
Lebanon	2	3	1	1	2	3,0	2,5	23	29	5	0
Libya	2	3	1	2	2	2,8	2,6	19	22	9	0
Morocco	10	17	7	11	15	2,5	2,5	34	35	21	4
Portugal	6	7	5	5	5	0,5	0	39	44	8	2
Spain	23	27	14	17	17	1,2	0,2	28	36	0	0
Syrian Arab Rep.	4	8	2	5	7	3,8	3,7	24	26	14	4
Tunisia	3	6	2	4	5	2,8	2,5	29	31	6	0
Turkey	25	41	19	30	38	2,8	1,8	36	37	21	22
Yugoslavia,FR (serb./Mont.)	6	7	4	5	5	0,6	0,5	39	43	0	0

SOURCE: The World Bank, 1999 World Development Indicators, pp.50-52.

Table 2. Long-term Structural Change.

	Agriculture value added %of GDP		Labour force in agriculture % of total labour force		Urban population % of total population		Trade of % GDP		Central government revenue % of GDP		Money and quasi money %of GDP	
	1970	1998	1970	1998	1970	1998	1970	1998	1970	1998	1970	1998
Albania	-	54	66	55	32	40	-	42	-	19	-	48
Algeria	11	12	47	26	40	59	51	47	-	32	51	43
Egypt Arab.Rep.	29	17	52	40	42	45	33	40	-	26	34	75
France	-	2	14	5	71	75	31	49	33	42	41	69
Greece	15	11	42	23	53	60	23	40	22	23	34	45
Israel	-	-	10	4	84	91	79	75	33	43	47	84
Italy	8	3	19	9	64	67	33	50	-	41	73	56
Jordan	12	3	28	15	51	73	-	120	-	27	54	101
Lebanon	-	12	20	7	59	89	-	62	-	17	-	143
Libya	2	-	29	11	45	87	89	-	-	-	20	-
Morocco	20	17	58	45	35	55	38	44	19	28	28	70
Portugal	-	4	32	18	26	61	50	72	-	36	76	94
Spain	-	3	26	12	66	77	27	56	18	30	69	75
Syrian(Arab Rep.)	20	-	50	33	43	54	39	69	25	24	34	34
Tunisia	17	12	42	28	45	64	47	88	23	30	32	47
Turkey	40	18	71	53	38	73	10	53	14	22	20	30
Yugoslavia,FR	-	-	50	30	39	58	-	-	-	-	-	-

SOURCE: The World Bank 2000 World Development Indicators, pp.26-28.

Table 3. Agricultural Inputs

	Arable Land hectares pro capita		Irrigated Land % of cropland		Land under cereal production thousands hectares		Fertilizer consumption hundreds of grams per hectare of arable land		Agricultural Machinery			
									Tractors per thousand agricultural workers		Tractors per hundred hectares of arable land	
	1979-81	1994-96	1979-81	1994-96	1979-81	1995-97	1979-81	1995-97	1979-81	1994-96	1979-81	1994-96
Albania	0.22	0.18	53.0	48.4	367	227	1,556	207	15	10	173	150
Algeria	0.37	0.27	3.4	6.9	2,968	2,453	277	100	27	43	68	125
Egypt Arab.Rep.	0.06	0.05	100.0	100.0	2,007	2,632	2,864	3,750	4	10	158	304
France	0.32	0.31	4.6	8.2	9,804	8,780	3,260	2,679	737	1,189	836	721
Greece	0.30	0.27	24.2	33.8	1,600	1,306	1,927	1,895	120	267	485	805
Israel	0.08	0.06	49.3	45.3	129	86	2,384	2,963	294	336	809	731
Italy	0.17	0.14	19.3	24.9	5,082	4,210	2,295	2,280	370	867	1,117	1,797
Jordan	0.14	0.08	11.0	18.2	158	109	404	544	48	42	153	206
Lebanon	0.07	0.05	28.3	28.4	34	39	1,663	2,507	28	77	141	219
Libya	0.58	0.36	10.7	22.2	538	466	357	449	101	275	134	187
Morocco	0.38	0.33	15.2	13.0	4,414	4,967	273	331	7	10	35	48
Portugal	0.25	0.22	20.1	21.7	1,099	706	1,113	1,198	72	203	351	692
Spain	0.42	0.39	14.8	17.7	7,391	6,788	1,012	1,285	200	513	335	525
Syrian(Arab Rep.)	0.60	0.32	9.6	20.4	2,642	3,449	250	761	29	65	54	178
Tunisia	0.51	0.32	4.9	7.5	1,416	1,223	212	312	30	39	79	121
Turkey	0.57	0.40	9.6	15.4	13,499	13,958	529	678	38	57	169	318
Yugoslavia,FR	-	0.35	-	1.6	-	-	-	437	-	-	-	-

SOURCE: The World Bank; 1999 World Development Indicators, p.124-126

9. URBANIZATION AND CHANGING OF MANPOWER

Since 1950s the patterns of population and settlements have been undergoing changes. Turkish villages, towns and cities as socio-economic units have been involved in rapid processes; settlements of the population have spread rapidly towards urban areas. This means that the Turkish population has been directed towards to towns or cities, whether the movement is between provinces or within a province. According to the 1950 general census, the urban population as a proportion of the total population of Turkey was 25%, which increased to 67% in 2000, while the rural proportion decreased from 75% to 33%.

To understand the effect of migration on the geographical distribution of the population, it is necessary to see whether the pattern of migration has changed over the years. Since the 1950s Eastern Thrace, Central Anatolia, Aegean, and Çukurova have recorded substantial net migration gains; in comparison with the Eastern part of Turkey, the Western part recorded a net migration gain. Eastern Anatolia, South East Anatolia, the Black Sea Regions and some Central Anatolia provinces tended to record net migration losses, as a result of migration between regions.

In fact, the Turkish migration movement shows as a general characteristic, movement from rural to urban areas, most economically developed large cities are situated in the western part of Turkey. The urbanization rate in the three under - developed regions of Turkey fell below the national urbanization rate until recently.

The urbanization process in the Third World cities (and Turkey is no exception) seems constantly to be outrunning the ability of the urban system to provide adequate numbers of jobs for new arrivals seeking employment. However, the poor living and working conditions in rural areas certainly are a principle motivating factor for moving to urban centers. This inflow of population from the villages or towns to the cities, often overburdens the capacity of urban governments to provide employment, basic services and housing for the newcomers. One of the most important problems which the influx of migrants has brought to urban centers is the development of squatter communities and destruction of the urban green areas and urban forests. The squatting problem may be viewed as part of the larger problem of inadequate urban housing. Turkey has been faced with this difficulty since the 1950s, when rapid urbanization began.

Squatting in Turkey is identified with the form of habitation which is called "gecekondu". This is a term which refers to buildings "constructed on land belonging to others without consent of the owner and without regard to either legislation dealing with housing and construction or general regulations".

According to the results of the recent studies carried on by the General Directorate of Housing, the squatters were bound to be:

1. Living in substandard dwellings in the terms of the original construction,
2. Living in a very poor state of sanitation,
3. Lacking basic municipal improvements and services,
4. Over - crowded.

Most of the major cities which receive high proportions of migrants have very big squatting areas; they average more than ? of city dwellings in the city.

Even if only 15% of GNP comes from the agrarian sector, the national economy of Turkey is based on agriculture. This is reflected in the high level of agricultural employment compared with other employment sectors. As Table 4 shows, in 1999 in April 45.8% of the economically active population was employed in the agricultural sector. This percentage was even higher during the previous census.

Table 4. Sectorial Distribution Rate of Labour Force (%)

Sector	1962	1978	1991	1999
Agriculture	77.0	61.2	49.3	45.8
Industry (Manufacturing and Construction)	10.3	16.5	20.8	20.5
Services	11.0	20.4	29.9	33.7

The table also shows a minor increase in industrial and service sectors. In 1962 10.3%, in 1978 16.5%, in 1991 20.8% of the total e.a.p (economically active manpower) was in industry and the construction sectors. This proportion increased to 20.5% in 1999. However, in comparison with non-agricultural sectorial employments, it may be observed that the increase of employment in services and the

distribution sector is much higher than in the industry and construction sector; while it was only 11.0% in 1962, 20.4% in 1978, 29.9% in 1991, the proportion increased to 33.7% in 1999. Nevertheless, in the present distribution of the labour force, the agricultural sector is already dominant and since Turkey has one of the highest rates of population increase in the world, (even though the population has dropped from 2.33% in 1965 to 1.5% in 2001) the weight on the agricultural sector of economy is likely to turn into pressure to increase cultivated land in the country, or else to face the problems of increasing the industrial and service capacity to absorb a greater share of the work force. Failure in this respect will mean more disguised unemployment which the State Institute of Statistics estimated to be approximately 2 million, 9% of the total economically active manpower of Turkey in 2001.

The Turkish State Institute of Statistics recently declared that according to the 2001 household labour force survey of temporal results; the population aged 15-64 as a rough estimate of potential labour force is 45.702.000 while the general population of Turkey is 65038.000, of these 40 million were living in urban areas while about 25 million settled in urban areas.

The 2001 household manpower surveys shows that out of the total Turkish labour force in the production of goods and services in economy (22.269.000 people), 20.367.000 people are currently employed, while 1.902.000 workers are unemployed as well as first-time job-seekers. In total, employed workers of 14.904.000 million were male, while only 5.463.000 were female. Also, according to the survey, Turkish labour force taking part in total employment was 4% in services, 35.4 % in agriculture, 18.3% in industry and 5.3% in construction sectors. The results show that the main proportion of labour are employed in the service sector. About 7.217.000 workers were employed in the agriculture sector; of these nearly half (about 3.796.000 workers) are within the status of *unpaid family workers*. 2.676.000 of these were women; large numbers of women work on farms or in other families without paying while others work in or near their homes, mixing work and personal activities during the day.

Only one fourth of the total labour force consists of female workers. They are mainly employed in the agriculture sector within the status of unpaid family workers. 45% of female workers in the 1950s taking part in the labour force sharply dropped to 31% by the end of century. Rural-urban migration causes unemployment in urban areas especially for female labour force due to lack of education and training which is needed in urban sectors. Not only do women suffer from unemployment, but also young labour force aged 15-24 is deeply conditioned by the new condition of urban employment structure. According to temporary results of household surveys in 2001, approximately one fourth of educated young labourers suffered unemployment. During the last two years, an economic crisis seems to have affected main females and newly job seekers, i.e. young workers. Turkey must adapt the labour force and its education and vocational training system to the new global economic development in order to cope with unemployment problems.

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