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A Comparative Historical Analysis in Determining Immigration Policies: Policy Recommendations for Türkiye Based on the U.S. Migration Experience (1882-1921)

Göç Politikalarının Belirlenmesinde Karşılaştırmalı Tarihsel Bir Analiz: ABD Göç Tecrübesinden (1882-1921) Hareketle Türkiye İçin Politika Önerileri

Mehmet ÇETİN¹

Abstract

The world is experiencing a new wave of mass migration, with Türkiye assuming a prominent role as both a transit and destination country. Türkiye bears a significant financial burden compared to others, impacting various dimensions of the social sphere. Policies must be grounded in a pragmatic economic approach to address challenges arising from mass migration. This matter is also addressed in the 11th and 12th Development Plans, emphasizing the necessity of an effective migration and immigration policy. In historical analysis, several nations have emerged as

Öz

Dünya, Türkiye'nin hem transit hem de hedef ülke olma anlamında belirgin bir rol oynadığı yeni bir kitlesel göç dalgası ile karşı karşıyadır. Diğer ülkelerle karşılaştırıldığında, ağır bir maddi yük ile karşı karşıya kalmakta ve bu durum toplumsal alanın diğer boyutlarını da etkisi altına almaktadır. Kitlesel göç hareketlerinin neden olduğu sorunların aşılabilmesi için takip edilecek politikaların gerçekçi bir ekonomik temele oturtulması gerekmektedir. Bu durum 11. ve 12. Kalkınma Planlarında da ele alınmış ve etkin bir göç ve göçmen politikasına ilişkin gereksinim açıkça

¹ Mehmet ÇETİN, Doç. Dr., Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi, İktisat, mehmet.cetin@deu.edu.tr, Orcid: 0000-0002-6954-0908

exemplars that could guide Türkiye. Analyzing the migration policies of the USA during the peak period of mass migration (1882-1921), this study adopts an institutional and interdisciplinary perspective, drawing from the U.S. Congressional Records that provides comprehensive and reliable documentation of the period's policies and their effects. This study aims to formulate policy recommendations for Türkiye's future immigration policies based on its findings. The findings of the study suggest that irregular mass migration, despite temporal and geographical variations, engenders analogous economic, political, and social challenges. The feasibility of the proposed policies may serve as a source of inspiration for subsequent studies.

Keywords: *E Mass migration, Migration policy, USA, U.S. Congressional Records, Türkiye*

belirtilmiştir. Bu konuda Türkiye için örnek teşkil edebilecek ülke örneklerini tarihsel süreç içerisinde bulmak mümkündür. Bu çalışmada kitlesel göç hareketlerinin en yoğun yaşandığı 1882-1921 döneminde ABD'de devletin başta iktisadi olmak üzere kendi öncelikleri çerçevesinde hangi göç politikalarını uyguladığı Amerikan Kongre Kayıtlarından hareketle ve kurumsal bir bakış açısıyla ve disiplinler arası bir perspektifle analiz edilmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı elde edilen bulgulardan hareketle Türkiye için gelecekte uygulanabilecek göç politikalarına yönelik politika önerileri geliştirmektir. Çalışmanın bulguları, zamansal ve coğrafi farklılıklara rağmen düzensiz kitlesel göçün benzer ekonomik, politik ve sosyal zorluklara yol açtığını göstermektedir. Önerilen politikaların uygulanabilirliği müteakip çalışmalar için bir esin kaynağı oluşturabilecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: *Kitlesel Göç, Göç Politikası, ABD, ABD Kongre Kayıtları, Türkiye*

Introduction

Migration, predating recorded history, was inherent in human existence before the development of agricultural methods, typified by early societies' nomadic lifestyles (Segal et al., 2010, p. 3). Hence, crafting a historical classification rooted in migration poses considerable challenges. Nevertheless, Hammar (1990) delineates four discrete phases spanning the past two centuries, categorized by the constraints imposed on migrants. From the mid-1800s until World War I, the first phase was characterized by unrestricted migration within Europe and overseas destinations like North America and Australia, driven by economic liberalism's removal of mercantilist constraints on population movements. The second phase, commencing with World War I and concluding with World War II, witnessed the implementation of systematic control policies amid wartime. Subsequently, the third phase, extending until 1973-74, saw heightened political pressures on immigrants amidst the Cold War era, notwithstanding the growing labour demand in Western nations. Finally, from 1973-74 onward, the current phase is marked by the predominance of political motives shaping migration policies. (Rystad, 1992, pp. 1169-1170; Hammar, 1985, p. 239).

When it comes to the definitions of migration and migrants, there are various field-specific definitions, including legal, administrative and scientific definitions. Some policymakers and international organizations use the term 'migrant' to cover both migrants and refugees (www.unhcr.org, 2023). This study adopts a similar approach. When international commitments are excluded, there are no significant differences in the policies to be pursued by the receiving country towards foreigners coming from outside its territory.

The global landscape is witnessing a surge in mass migration directed towards Western nations, driven by economic, political, and religious factors. The United Nations reports indicate a significant rise in the world's immigrant stock, from 79 million in 1960 to 281 million in 2020, constituting 3.6% of the global population (www.un.org, 2023). However, it is Türkiye that is notably embroiled in this migration phenomenon, emerging as a primary destination and transit hub for migrants and refugees due to recent military, political, and economic turmoil. The government of Türkiye actively regulates migration policies, as outlined in the 11th and 12th Development Plans, aiming to address migration challenges and opportunities (Şen ve Özkorul, 2016, p. 94; United Nations, 2020, p. 73). Historical precedents from various states offer insights into effective policy practices, with the United States serving as a prominent exemplar. The adoption of the melting pot ideology has played a pivotal role in shaping American identity through successful social engineering efforts (Schain, 2008, p. 14).

This study delves into the migration policies from 1882 to 1921, drawing insights from the USA and offering policy recommendations for Türkiye. The inclusion of a sub-period marked by

heightened constraints during World War I allows for comparative analysis across epochs. The American immigration policy, a key component of Aristide Zolberg's "comprehensive population policy" concept, aims to foster economic growth and expansion (Schain, 2008, p. 5; Ellerman, 2021, p. 268). Therefore, the USA serves as a significant case study for Türkiye's migration policies. While the applicability of the USA as a comparable model for Türkiye remains subject to debate, notable parallels exist between the immigration experiences of both nations during the 1882-1921 period and Türkiye's contemporary migration dynamics, characterized by mass migration, multiculturalism, and religious diversity.

Furthermore, the study recognizes the potential of cross-country comparisons in finding effective solutions for managing migration movements. Lynch and Simon (2003) argue that the outcomes of immigration policies can vary significantly depending on the social contexts in which they are implemented, necessitating a case-by-case approach to comparative analysis. While strict comparability between countries may not always be feasible, cross-country comparisons can still shed light on the potential repercussions of proposed policies (Lynch, 2003, p. 3). The subsequent sections of the study will delve into the underlying principles of immigration policies implemented by U.S. administrations during the specified period, followed by an overview of the laws and bureaucratic practices aligned with these principles. Subsequently, policy recommendations will be proposed based on the distinctive characteristics of the mass migration process in Türkiye, offering a hopeful path forward.

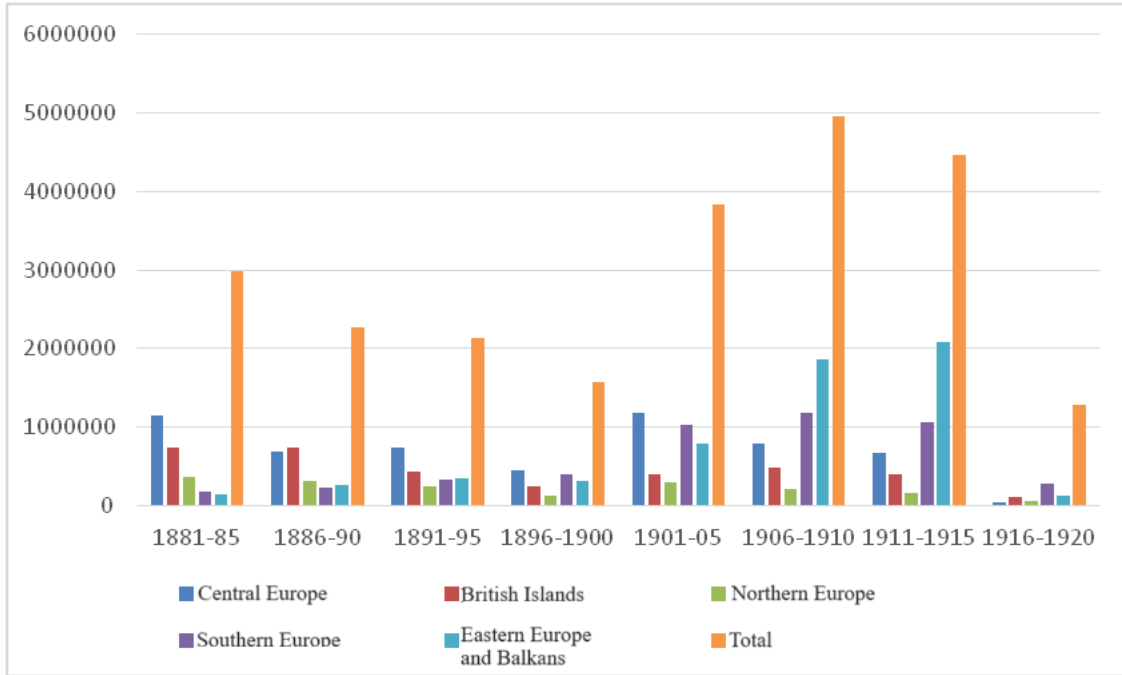
1. Factors Shaping Immigration Policies Implemented in the USA between 1882 and 1921

Preceding World War I, the First Wave of Globalization led to the displacement of over 50 million individuals globally, primarily due to economic, political, military, and religious reasons, with a significant portion relocating to the USA (Williamson and Hatton, 2003, pp. 1-2; Thernstrom, 1980, p. 1047). According to LeMay, the history of U.S. immigration can be divided into four sub-periods: the "Open-Door Era" (1820-1880), the "Door-Ajar Era" (1880-1920), the "Pet Door Era" (1920-1950), and the "Dutch Door Era" (post-1950) (Le May, 1987, pp. 1-20). The period of study spans the most substantial wave of immigration in the USA from 1882 to 1921, witnessing the arrival of over 25 million immigrants. This era, termed the "regulation period" in U.S. immigration history, saw a departure from liberal immigration policies towards the implementation of restrictions by the government (Segal et al., 2010, pp. 3-17; Le May, 1987, pp. 1-20; Borjas, 1994, p. 1667). Liberal immigration policies implemented until that period were motivated by viewing migrant labour as a supplementary capital and workforce reservoir. These labour forces were used to construct railways, foster industrial growth, and expand agricultural production in previously undeveloped areas. Policymakers also anticipated immigrants contributing cash and human capital while sharing the societal tax burden (Congressional Record, 1881, pp. 5, 385, 958).

Michigan Senator Palmer, in 1888, highlighted the necessity for regulation and restriction, prompted by heightened wage competition in industrial hubs, increased demand on charitable institutions and prisons, and the difficulties in assimilating non-American classes. These challenges, burdening the public, compelled a shift in the USA's immigration approach (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 654). During the Door-Ajar Era (1882-1921), a pivotal factor shaping U.S. immigration policies was the evolving immigrant profile. Unlike in earlier periods, most immigrants started to hail from Europe. U.S. officials contended that these European immigrants shared mental and physical traits with American labourers, possessed similar aspirations, educational backgrounds, and cultural affiliations, and were of the same or closely related racial groups. Assimilating into American society, they contributed to the nation's workforce and consumer base, augmenting production and national wealth. This facilitated their integration into the labour market, fostering a sense of equality and competition with native-born Americans (Congressional Record, 1882, pp. 1484-8).

In the 1880s, a transition occurred from the initial cohort of immigrants to a subsequent wave characterized by unfamiliarity with the American way of life and diverse social, moral, and religious backgrounds. These newcomers faced hurdles in assimilation, driven by their goal of amassing savings quickly for a potential return to their home country. Consequently, they adopted stringent savings practices and modest living standards. This shift heralded the emergence of a new immigrant typology, defined by their ability to navigate survival under challenging conditions (Congressional Record, 1887, pp. 512). During the Open Door Era (1820-1880), most immigrants to the USA hailed from Western, Northern, and Central Europe, with many fleeing the potato famine in Ireland and the economic depression in Germany (Roediger, 2007, p. 138). Despite a temporary hiatus during the Civil War, the migration process resumed in the subsequent period, propelled by job opportunities generated by industrialization. The transformation of small towns into cities and cities into metropolises, facilitated by the integration of the national market through railways, further accelerated migration movements (Naff, 1993, p. 76). The second wave primarily consisted of immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe, fleeing famine, starvation, high population density, Tsarist pogroms, and agricultural failures. Additionally, tens of thousands arrived from the Ottoman Empire, China, Japan, Korea, the Caribbean, and the West Indies (Lerner et al., 2006, p. 98; Roediger, 2007, p. 138). Chart 1 illustrates the transformation in immigrants' quantity and demographic characteristics.

Chart 1. Immigrants by Country of Origin in the Period 1882-1921



Source: Willcox, 1929, pp. 229-349.

During the last quarter of the 19th century, the USA's initial immigration regulations aimed to curb mass Asian immigration, particularly from China (Borjas, 1994, pp. 1667-1669). However, the USA's approach towards all non-Christian Asian societies, categorized as Mongolian, appears to be consistent. Senator Evarts of New York, a key figure in this narrative, asserted during the 49th Congress in 1886 that the United States was unwilling to establish relations with Eastern or non-Christian nations, including Türkiye, on the same basis as Western nations (Congressional Record, 1886, p. 5196). The Chinese Exclusion Act, as the precursor to regulatory policies and subsequent immigration practices, marked the initial stages of a profound racial engineering endeavour undertaken by the state to shape the demographic and cultural fabric of the nation (Gerber, 2011, p. 8). Immigration policy elements can be categorized based on economic factors and non-economic dimensions such as political, social, and cultural considerations.

1.1. Social, Political and Cultural Dimensions of Mass Migration

During this period of mass migration, the increasing ratio of immigrant population to total population in certain states prompted the U.S. administration to respond with regulation and restriction policies. This surge in immigrant numbers not only led to a significant increase in the U.S. population, but also placed immense pressure on social aid institutions and led to a concerning rise in prison populations (Congressional Record, 1881: 1495). The U.S. population, recorded at 50.1 million in the 1880 census, surpassed 106 million by 1920, with immigrants

accounting for 41% of this growth (Wilcox, 1929, pp. 424-442; Congressional Record, 1891: App. 162). In 1880, the ratio of foreigners to the total population was 26% in New York, 30% in New Jersey, and 25.5% in Rhode Island, among the states called the old thirteen. By 1891, 88% of New York, 63% of Boston, and 90% of Chicago had at least one foreign parent (Congressional Record, 1891, p. App. 165). The rapid growth of the immigrant population led to a corresponding increase in their representation within social aid institutions and prisons over a brief period, posing significant societal challenges.

As per the eleventh census, U.S. prisons housed 82,329 convicts in 1890. Of these, 21,359 were Native Americans with both parents native-born, 24,277 were black, and the remaining 45% had at least one foreign-born parent (Congressional Record, 1893, pp. 2471-2). As of 1897, nursing homes accommodated 53,696 individuals, over half of whom, 27,648, were foreign-born. Congressional records indicate an annual expenditure of \$20 million in New York to support impoverished, mentally ill, and similar patients. A significant factor driving the migration of criminals and the indigent to the United States was the profit-seeking practices of steamship companies and their agencies. These companies, in their pursuit of profit, often overlooked the backgrounds and potential risks posed by the immigrants they transported (Congressional Record, 1893, p. 2472; Congressional Record, 1897, p. 2121).

Immigrants leaving their spouses behind contributed to a negative perception of them. The immigrant population, predominantly composed of single men or those separated from their spouses, not only escalated crime rates but also shaped an unfavourable immigrant profile, driven by a desire to accumulate savings swiftly and return to their home countries. Among the 22.9 million immigrants contributing to the population increase from 1880 to 1920, only 8.3 million were women. Pre-World War II statistics indicate high rates of individuals leaving their spouses behind, with Turks ranking highest at 83.6%, followed by Bulgarians, Serbians, and Montenegrins at 76.9%, Greeks at 74.7%, and Romanians at 73.9% (Congressional Record, 1915, p. 3646; Congressional Record, 1917, p. 225). This situation not only led to a skewed gender ratio but also fostered a negative perception of immigrants, which is important to understand in the context of immigration history.

Migration induces unplanned urbanization due to imbalanced population distribution. Initially, migration from Western and Northern Europe was encouraged by the availability of arable land in the Western USA. However, as land scarcity intensified, migration decreased. The state's allocation of public lands to transform migrants into producers reached its limit. Large steamship companies, prioritizing profits, intentionally transported undesirable immigrant classes to the USA (Congressional Record, 1886, p. 5564; Congressional Record, 1906, p. 550). New immigrants arriving in the 1880s increasingly favoured urban areas over agricultural regions in Western states. Around half of these immigrants concentrated in large cities, particularly within

slum areas. Despite entry records from Ellis Island indicating that a significant percentage of immigrants were farm workers—93.5% of Romanians, 92% of Bulgarians and Serbs, 77% of Italians, and 82.5% of Russians—this did not ensure their placement on farms (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 2102; Congressional Record, 1909, p. 2049; Congressional Record, 1913, p. 3312). Before World War I, labour shortages were prevalent in agricultural regions such as Missouri, Kansas, and Texas in South and Central America. This labour scarcity spurred the desirability of migration to these areas (Congressional Record, 1882, p. 1677). Immigrants' inclination towards urban and industrial hubs heightened the burden on farmers in sustaining the nation's food supply. With population growth, the transition of land use to non-agricultural purposes raised concerns about nutritional adequacy (Congressional Record, 1909, pp. 2512, 3301). Labour shortages prompted large landowners to rely on a contract or seasonal labour from Mexico. Consequently, while restricting immigration might be advantageous for North and East regions, it could pose challenges in areas facing labour shortages (Congressional Record, 1885, p. 1778). The impact of immigration on urbanization was significant and needs to be considered in the context of the time.

Advocates of exclusionary measures pushed for immigration restrictions post-1880 due to the influx of unskilled immigrants. Concerns arose regarding illiteracy as a basis for limiting voting rights, potentially impeding the understanding of governance founded on virtue and intelligence. Additionally, the preference for educated individuals, who rely on mental rather than manual labour, raises questions about the desirability of educated migration (Congressional Record, 1897, p. 72; Congressional Record, 1906, p. 9191). The 1887 Immigration Report indicates that 48.1% of the 5.4 million workers migrating to the USA from 1873 to 1886 were unskilled and uneducated, while only 11.5% were skilled (Congressional Record, 1891, p. 2956). The 1912 Congressional Records offer insights into immigrant distribution by region and occupation. Of 9.3 million immigrants entering the USA from 1899 to 1910, 1% were professionals, 15% skilled workers, 17.6% farmers, and 26.8% workers; 40.5% were unemployed or in other categories. Over 60% of migrants hailed from the Middle East, the Balkans, Central and Eastern Europe, and Asia. Central and Eastern Europe had the lowest percentage of skilled labour at 6%, followed by the Middle East and the Balkans at 6.5%. Conversely, Jews comprised 37% of professional and skilled labour migrants (Congressional Record, 1912, p. 5017). Charles Timberlake, a representative of Colorado in Congress, compared immigration patterns before and after World War I. He observed a decline in the proportion of agricultural workers from 24.3% before the war to 3.5% in 1920. Additionally, individuals lacking a profession increased from 26.2% before the war to 40.3% (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 4695).

The educational status of immigrants, while initially a concern due to their unskilled nature, is a testament to their resilience. Despite the recognition of immigrants' substantial

contribution to the industrial development of the USA, changes in the immigrant profile are evident in their education levels. Senator Blair of West Virginia highlights that, except for Russia and the Ottoman Empire, immigrants from Continental Europe and the British Isles were educated. However, industrial competitiveness was unattainable with illiterate peasants (Congressional Record, 1882, p. 4823). Between 1893 and 1897, approximately 15% of immigrants were illiterate on average, gradually increasing in subsequent periods. In the 1899-1910 cohorts, 26.7% of individuals aged 14 and above could not read or write. Portuguese immigrants had the highest illiteracy rate at 68.2%, followed by Turks at 59.5%, Mexicans at 57.2%, Southern Italians at 53.9%, Ruthenians at 53.4%, and Syrians at 53.3%. Conversely, Scandinavians exhibited the highest literacy rate at 99.6%, followed by Scots at 99.3% and British immigrants at 99% (Congressional Record, 1909, p. 2051; Congressional Record, 1911, p. 2302). By the late 19th century, debates surrounding the implementation of a literacy test emerged as a means to select skilled immigrants.

Photo 1. The Melting-Pot in Operation



Source: www.periodpaper.com/ (26.10.2024).

The image above depicts a large industrial organization in session, where instructors at the blackboards are bilingual foreigners, fluent in both their native and adopted languages. The United States Bureau of Education, part of the Department of the Interior, has made significant strides in unifying the nation's educational efforts. As part of its mission to help Americanize these individuals, it has initiated the establishment of night schools in every major industrial area (periodpaper.com, 26.10.2024).

Concerns arose early in the period regarding the potential for undesirable immigrant groups to seek voting rights and disrupt the governmental system as their population grew (Congressional Record, 1882, p. 1545). The issue of immigrant naturalization and voting rights

was not just a legal matter, but a potential threat to the political system. States' practices regarding these rights varied, leading to potential abuse of citizenship privileges. Some states grant voting rights independently of citizenship status, requiring only a three-month residency period, while others impose longer waiting periods. For instance, Arkansas, Indiana, Kansas, Michigan, Missouri, Nebraska, Texas, Oregon, and Wisconsin allow aliens to vote upon declaring intent to become citizens. In contrast, New Hampshire permits voting in all elections within twelve months of declaring such intent. Instances of voter manipulation are evident, as illustrated by a Congressional report from 1881 detailing how immigrants arriving at New York's port were escorted to polling stations on election day and coerced into voting through fraudulent citizenship documents (Congressional Record, 1881, p. 1508; Congressional Record, 1893, p. 1408; Congressional Record, 1906, p. 7040).

In the 1891 Congressional session, Representative Oates of Alabama outlined the citizenship acquisition process as requiring a petition submitted to the court after five years of residency, attested by two witnesses, and accompanied by a \$15 fee (Congressional Record, 1891, p. 2947). Despite this, Congressional reports indicate frequent violations of naturalization laws, with seven thousand people illicitly granted voter status by illegally issuing naturalization certificates in New York in October 1891 (Congressional Record, 1892: pp. 3200-01). Similarly, it came to light that a court in Brooklyn distributed naturalization certificates within three days of arrival in exchange for \$25 (Congressional Record, 1893, p. 2993). These challenges in the naturalization process highlight the struggles immigrants faced in their journey to citizenship.

Some immigrants seek U.S. citizenship for the protection offered by the USA's extraterritoriality policy. Many Armenian immigrants to the USA returned to their homeland upon obtaining citizenship and achieving financial sufficiency. The U.S. consul in Beirut reported that the Governor of Lebanon suggested potential U.S. annexation of the Lebanon Province if Syrian migration to the U.S. persisted. Though not constituting an actual annexation, this proposal was influenced by the demographic prevalence of U.S. citizens over Turkish citizens in the region. Likewise, it was found that over a thousand Ottoman subjects immigrated to the USA, obtained citizenship, and later settled permanently in Jerusalem. At least 90% of them cannot speak English and do not even know the street of the house where they claim to live in the USA. The primary purpose of this immigration issue was to acquire citizenship (Congressional Record, 1906, pp. 2508, 7040).

At the start of the 20th century, a notable potential for vote arithmetic arose between the local and immigrant populations due to the significant foreign presence. In Congress, lawmakers perceived this situation as precarious for the United States' future. In 1900, out of 21.3 million voting-age males, approximately 5.1 million, or roughly 25%, were foreign-born. While native-born individuals become eligible to vote at 21, immigrants can obtain this right in just five years.

Consequently, by age 21, an individual educated in the United States will encounter a significantly higher proportion of immigrants with potentially weaker national loyalty. This circumstance also implies a demographic shift from the indigenous population to a foreign one (Congressional Record, 1910, p. 6289; Congressional Record, 1912, p. 5017). This demographic disparity prompted certain states to impose supplementary citizenship and voting rights requirements, including literacy tests. By 1900, only eleven states extended voting rights to immigrants. However, in the period preceding and during World War I, the remaining states endeavoured to curtail foreigners' voting rights through legislative amendments (Hayduk & Garza, 2012, p. 96).

Mass migration has also had a significant impact on public health, evidenced by the resurgence of previously eradicated epidemic diseases. Immigrants introduced and disseminated diseases such as yellow fever, smallpox, cholera, diphtheria, typhus, and scarlet fever within the country (Congressional Record, 1882, p. 5749). Despite efforts by the National Health Board to combat the epidemic, they have occasionally clashed with commercial interests. Authorities maintained transportation services to affected areas during the outbreak. In response, they implemented a quarantine system, deploying immigration inspectors along key travel routes to prevent asymptomatic infected immigrants from spreading the disease beyond quarantine zones (Congressional Record, 1882, pp. 5751, 6385). This underscores the need for careful management of immigration to protect public health.

The Immigration Law of March 3, 1891, took a firm stance, prohibiting entry into ports for individuals with dangerous diseases or those considered burdensome to the public (Congressional Record, 1892, p. 1132). The severity of the situation was evident when, on September 1, 1893, authorities were forced to implement a 20-day quarantine for ships carrying immigrants from foreign ports to prevent epidemics. Overcrowding on ships from European ports was a contributing factor to the outbreaks (Congressional Record, 1893, p. 13). Authorities imposed a hefty \$5000 fine on ships failing to meet quarantine conditions, including pre-passenger fumigation, provision of a ship surgeon for medical examinations, and mandatory reporting of immigrants' health upon arrival at U.S. ports (Congressional Record, 1893, p. 757). Despite these measures, New York's public hospitals housed 13,163 foreign mental patients by early 1912. With an annual care cost of \$262 per patient and an average 11-year duration, maintaining current admission rates would total \$37.9 million (Congressional Record, 1914, p. 2619).

The U.S. General Public Health Service, in a bid to secure the country's post-World War I development, played a crucial role in shaping immigration policies. They recommended enhanced port examinations, more effective enforcement of immigration laws concerning physical and mental defects, and stricter oversight to prevent transportation companies from boarding unfit passengers. Their suggestions, including the deployment of specially qualified health personnel

to assess visa applicants' physical and mental health, underscored the importance of health considerations in immigration (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 3352).

1.2. Economic Dimension of Mass Migration

The American National Congress established the Dillingham Commission, named after Vermont State Senator Dillingham, to scrutinize societal responses to immigration heterogeneity. Operating from 1907 to 1911, the Commission undertook a comprehensive investigation, costing \$1 million, and published a 42-volume final report (Shanks, 2001, p. 34; Moore, 1975, p. 10). The report's key finding is that economic factors were the primary driver of migration from Europe to the USA. It attributes this movement mainly to lower wages in European countries compared to the USA. In Southern and Eastern Europe, agricultural workers, whether labourers or landowners, struggle to maintain adequate livelihoods due to meagre wages and seasonal employment. Even in Western European countries like Germany and France, wages fall below U.S. standards, with a more significant disparity in Southern and Eastern Europe. The Commission's research confirmed this trend in Greece, Türkiye, Russia, the Balkan States, Italy, and Austria-Hungary (Congressional Record, 1915, p. 640-1).

Upon scrutinizing immigrant-concentrated industries, it becomes apparent that they largely align with sectors safeguarded by tariff protections. By 1884, 32% of immigrants worked in protected industries like manufacturing, machinery, and mining, compared to only 16% in non-protected sectors (Congressional Record, 1884, p. App. 5). In 1882, 90% of New York City's cigar industry workers were locals, but by 1897, over 90% were foreign nationals. During this period, weekly wages plummeted from \$15-20 to \$4-8 (Congressional Record, 1897, p. 2121). In 1920, despite reduced immigration during the war, foreign workers dominated various industries, including iron and steel (57.7%), sugar refining (85%), leather processing, grinding, and polishing (67%), woollen weaving (61%), bituminous coal (61.9%), oil refineries (66%), clothing manufacturing (72.2%), and meat products (60.7%), as reported by the Commission of Immigration (Congressional Record, 1920, p. 7606-7). In the manufacturing sector, contract migrant workers from Hungary and Italy dominate, marginalizing the local labour force and later repatriating to their home countries with accumulated capital (Congressional Record, 1885, p. 1778). After 1880, immigration introduced contract labour to the American market, significantly impacting the local labour force.

Contract labour, a form of employment introduced by immigration, had a significant impact on the American market. It was undesirable as it lowered wages and disrupted efficient factor distribution, leaving individuals with limited job choices (Congressional Record, 1894, p. App. 1457). The Sweating System, akin to subcontracting, arose from labour shortages during the Civil War when many U.S. citizens were conscripted. To address this, the government granted

privileges to railway construction companies, which then hired labour from abroad (Congressional Record, 1892, p. App. 454; Congressional Record, 1893, p. 2053). Southern European immigrants often used the Padrone system, another form of contractual employment (Congressional Record, 1894, p. 6086). Immigrants were drawn into this system as they arrived temporarily in a foreign country without speaking the language, possessing limited funds, and lacking education (Ingram, 2004, p. 29). Within this system, immigrants are primarily motivated to earn as much income as possible in the shortest time, living frugally to save. The system maximally exploits the workforce (Congressional Record, 1915, p. 646). Contract labour systems aim to retain control over subjects, facilitating eventual return to their home countries and transfer of earnings (Congressional Record, 1906, p. 5018). In the early 1880s, Chinese workers in the USA sent over \$25 million to China under their contracts. Similarly, Italians in New York alone sent an estimated \$25 to \$30 million to Italy by the end of the century (Congressional Record, 1888, pp. 1327, 6570; Congressional Record, 1897, p. 514). In the early 20th century, one out of every three immigrants began returning to their home country, hastening money transfers (Congressional Record, 1906, p. 5018). Immigrants sent over \$300 million to their home countries before the war, but this flow halted during the conflict (Congressional Record, 1918, p. 4103). Immigrant banks and steamship company agents, trusted by immigrants due to their national affiliations, facilitate money transfers. Thus, U.S. national banks, savings banks, or money transfer companies are not favoured (Congressional Record, 1913, p. 3312).

U.S. immigration was commercialized, with migrations from Europe and Asia orchestrated by various companies and agencies in the sending countries. Chinese workers immigrating to the United States were under the control of six state-controlled companies, reducing them to a quasi-slave status and creating an uncompetitive workforce for native people while yielding significant profits for the organizing companies (Congressional Record, 1885, p. 1778; Congressional Record, 1888, pp. 1327, 6570, App. 599). Mr. Spinola, from the Special Committee on Immigration, testified in Boston, revealing the Tuke Society's role in organizing migration from the British Isles to the USA. Thousands of impoverished, mentally ill, intellectually disabled, and criminal individuals, burdensome to their states, immigrated to the USA annually with state support (Congressional Record, 1889, p. 997-8).

The American immigration experience is a dynamic interplay with the cyclical changes in the U.S. economy. Following the post-Civil War era until the early 1880s, the influx of migrants resulted in a surplus of farms, leading to a decline in agricultural product prices. Moreover, the growth in population coinciding with the invention of labor-saving machines exacerbated the effects of the depression during the 1873-1896 period (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 3350; Congressional Record, 1882, p. 5991). Each new population boosts domestic market consumption, yet the rise in production surpasses consumption levels, disrupting the supply-

demand balance. Consequently, the USA sought new markets or reduced production, resulting in decreased job opportunities for newcomers (Congressional Record, 1889, p. 8448; Congressional Record, 1901, p. 273). During the U.S. Depression of 1893-94, immigration sharply declined, marking a reversal in migration flow. However, the subsequent years of crisis bore the burden of the previous intense migration, leading to a surplus of labour and increased unemployment. Following each industrial depression, the return of prosperity coincided with heightened immigration (Congressional Record, 1897, p. 6050; Dinnerstein & Reimers, 2008, p. 18). Between 80% and 90% of post-World War I migrants were unemployed individuals who served as consumers (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 180).

In assessing immigrant admissions, U.S. authorities in 1907 prioritized financial self-sufficiency to prevent strain on public resources. With the country's total wealth at \$116 billion, an equal distribution would amount to \$1,450 per person. However, only 8% of immigrants that year possessed over \$50, with an average of \$20 per immigrant, indicating a need for newcomers to prepare financially for their new lives (Congressional Record, 1908, p. 885). U.S. authorities did not see immigrants solely as labourers. The Prussian Statistical Office estimated that each departing German caused £100 damage, reflecting the shift from consumer to producer. In 1893, Dr. Young found the average immigrant's capital value to be \$800. This suggests immigrants, through their hard work and contributions, significantly bolstered the USA's national wealth, adding over \$280 million annually (Congressional Record, 1881, p. 1816; Congressional Record, 1893, p. 2995).

2. Laws and Practices to Regulate Immigration in the USA from 1882 to 1921

U.S. immigration policy in the USA evolved with shifting immigrant characteristics and national development goals (Lerner, 2006, p. 51). From the 1880s to the 1920s, economic, political, social, and religious factors prompted the federal government to regulate and restrict immigration, with the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 marking the start of this period (Reimers, 1992, p. 176). The 1882 Act halted Chinese worker immigration for a decade, with some states banning their entry through referendums and others resorting to violence. Moreover, U.S. courts were barred from granting citizenship to Chinese residents (Anderson, 2021, p. 51; Hillstrom, 2009, p. 45; Congressional Record, 1881, p. 709; Congressional Record, 1908, p. 3494). This law signalled a transition from state-level to federal control of immigration and was the first to ban immigrants based on race and class. It aimed to prevent a group of primarily unskilled workers, perceived as a threat to American wages and working conditions, from entering the country (Thernstrom et al., 1980, pp. 486-87; Benton-Cohen, 2018, pp. 17-23). Initially, the need for identification for Chinese people hindered the law's effectiveness, leading to confusion due to their frequent transnational mobility. Eventually, their identity documents gained dual functionality, serving as entry credentials for others, and were even bought and sold in China for

at least \$100 (Congressional Record, 1886, pp. 1813, 6221). The Scott Law addressed this by prohibiting individuals with certificates from returning if they left the country. It required Chinese labourers leaving the U.S. to deposit a written description of their family, property, or debts with customs officers before departure (Congressional Record, 1888, pp. 7695). This provision excludes Chinese labourers with a legal spouse, child, or parent in the U.S., property worth \$1,000, or an equal amount of debt pending payment (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 7693).

While the 1888 Scott Act effectively stopped the return of departed Chinese from the USA, its lack of border protection mechanisms allowed Chinese immigrants to find alternative routes, like through Canada. Thus, the bill highlighted new methods for excluding Chinese labourers (Congressional Record, 1889, p. 2310). The Geary Act of 1892 extended the Chinese exclusion policy for another decade, aiming to distinguish between legal and undocumented Chinese residents. It mandated all Chinese residents to register with immigration authorities and obtain a certificate of residence, requiring a non-Chinese witness for validation. Failure to comply could result in arrest and deportation. This act, renewed indefinitely in 1902, continued restricting Chinese immigration and extended to Hawaii and the Philippines. The ban was lifted in 1943 (Congressional Record, 1893, pp. 1154-55; Congressional Record, 1902, p. 3746; Anderson, 2006, p. 52; Bankston and Hidalgo, 2006, p. 19; Congressional Record, 1895, p. App. 549).

The August 1882 law, a milestone in U.S. immigration policy, prohibited entry for those deemed mentally incompetent or likely to become a public burden. It marked the first general immigration law, paving the way for future regulations. Convicts, except for political offenders, were to be returned to their home countries at the expense of the ship owners responsible for their arrival (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 60). The law also introduced a 50-cent tax on each foreigner arriving by ship at any U.S. port, aiming to finance both the support of distressed immigrants and the costs of immigration regulation (Congressional Record, 1882, p. 5106). The tax was raised to \$1 in 1894, \$2 in 1903, \$4 in 1907, and \$8 in 1917 to fund new immigration facilities and housing (Congressional Record, 1907, p. 4528; Congressional Record, 1909, p. 4295).

The Foreign Contracted Labor Law of 1885, also known as the Foran Law, aimed to protect the American workforce by prohibiting the importation of aliens for labour purposes, thus preventing unfair competition. Senator Foran of Ohio defended the ban as follows:

"If the problem were mere that imported labour was employed in occupations or branches of industry that would not compete with American workers, there would not be so much cause for complaint. These people are put in direct competition with American citizens. Few principles in political economy are as firmly established as the notion that competition among labourers with each other tends to depress wages. Under the conditions of sharp and perpetual competition, wages will inevitably reach a level that barely sustains the

worker's subsistence and reproductive needs. This is what Ricardo and Smith mean by "natural wages".

By law, any ship captain who knowingly brings or allows the disembarkation of indentured labourers from a foreign port faces a minimum fine of \$500 and imprisonment for up to six months (Congressional Record, 1884, p. 5349). In 1887, a provision was added to the law stipulating that contracted workers arriving in this manner would be repatriated to their home country (Abbott, 1924, pp. 216-218). This provision highlighted the government's dedication to enforcing immigration laws and controlling foreign labour influx. The Payson Act of the same year also barred non-citizens or those not legally declaring intention to become citizens from owning real estate in the USA (Congressional Record, 1888, p. 60).

The 1891 Act, a response to the industrial depression of 1890-1896, imposed stringent requirements on ship captains bringing immigrants to U.S. ports. Despite these challenges, immigrants persevered, providing detailed information about themselves, including names, nationalities, residences, destinations, professions, marital status, literacy, travel expenses, money carried, relatives in the USA, prior visits to the country, and any history of institutional stays or physical and mental health status (Congressional Record, 1914, p. 2676). The law mandated the deportation of foreigners entering illegally within a year of arrival. It also excluded those with contagious diseases, polygamists, individuals with mental disabilities, the impoverished, prostitutes and their promoters, potential public charges, serious criminals, and those expelled with financial assistance. Restrictions on contracted labour were extended by prohibiting employers from advertising job opportunities abroad (Congressional Record, 1893, pp. 2365-66; Thernstrom et al., 1980, p. 707; Congressional Record, 1896, p. 5473). The 1891 Act established the Immigration Service, later known as the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS), until changes after the September 11, 2001 attacks. The creation of Ellis Island as an immigrant processing centre marked a pivotal moment in U.S. immigration policy. Despite the challenges, immigrants continued to arrive, and due to New York's transatlantic connections, Ellis Island became the primary centre for enforcing immigration laws, signalling the start of strict immigration control (Bodvarsson and Berg, 2009, p. 357).

Between 1893 and 1916, American immigration policy focused on trying, unsuccessfully, to restrict immigration from Eastern and Southern Europe. These efforts were driven by concerns about poverty and high illiteracy rates rather than ethnic quotas (Meyers, 2004: 33). In 1905, migration surpassed 1 million, sparking a belief that European nations were sending their sick, insane, and criminal populations to the U.S. Congress debated two perspectives on immigration policy: restrictionists sought drastic admission reductions, while others favoured admission based on labour demand. However, a selective approach proposed admitting only mentally and physically healthy individuals with strong moral character and potential for parenthood

(Congressional Record, 1906, pp. 7214-5). The Lodge-Gardner immigration bill of 1907 mandated that the head of an immigrant family must bring at least \$25 upon entry. The immigration commission aimed to select desirable immigrants, excluding those prone to criminality or diseases. It also encouraged settlement in rural areas with labour shortages and managed immigrant distribution to prevent congestion in cities (Congressional Record, 1907, p. 3019). Congress established the Division of Information as a recruitment agency for rural settlements, serving as a clearinghouse for immigrants regarding each state and territory's resources, products, and physical characteristics (Benton-Cohen, 2018, pp. 83-84).

In 1906, Congress established the Dillingham Commission to conduct a comprehensive investigation into the immigration problem and report its findings (Congressional Record, 1914, p. 2676). The Commission proposed immigration restrictions based on economic considerations, advocating for measures to safeguard local labour markets and promote industrial growth. Recommendations included extending deportation periods for criminals and burdensome individuals, expanding the Chinese exclusion policy to encompass Japan and Korea, and implementing literacy tests, quotas, and financial requirements for immigrants. Additionally, it suggested discriminating in favour of male immigrants with families when levying head taxes (Congressional Record, 1911, p. 671). Although initially disregarded by the Senate, the implementation of literacy and quota requirements became imperative in subsequent immigration legislation. The literacy test gained prominence as the demographic composition of immigrants shifted, with concerns arising over the influx of individuals perceived to possess lower intelligence and socioeconomic status. Opponents of the literacy test argue that educational attainment is contingent upon opportunities rather than indicative of immigrant character, contending that the ideal immigrant for the United States should prioritize physical strength over intellectual capacity (Congressional Record, 1914, p. 2714). The rising illiteracy rate among migrating populations, increasing from 20% in 1890 to 27% by the early 20th century, prompted the adoption of the literacy test (Congressional Record, 1902, p. 5770). This measure aimed to curb immigration levels and enhance the quality of incoming migrants. It reflected the belief that intelligence is pivotal in shaping exemplary citizenship (Congressional Record, 1897, p. App. 10).

The early 20th century marked a significant surge in immigration to the United States, peaking at over 9 million arrivals. However, the onset of World War I and subsequent restrictive legislation in the 1920s brought an end to this influx, dramatically altering the course of US immigration policy (Passel & Fix, 1994, p. 7). During the war, immigration policies diverged, offering individuals the choice between mandatory citizenship and military service or deportation and permanent exclusion from American citizenship privileges as a deterrent against fleeing refugees (Congressional Record, 1917, p. App. 668-9). The government declared that individuals enlisted in the U.S. military to serve in Europe would be eligible for citizenship within two years

after the war's conclusion, regardless of their current citizenship status (Congressional Record, 1918, p. 6132). The 1917 Act consolidated existing immigration laws and practices while introducing additional restrictions. Notably, it established the Asiatic Barred Zone, limiting entry for individuals from Eastern regions.

Moreover, it prohibited the entry of foreigners over the age of 16 who were unable to read any language, mainly targeting immigrants from Southern and Eastern Europe (Violet, 1980, p. 15). Wartime experience underscored the efficacy of a robust passport control system in preventing the entry of individuals whose presence in the United States posed a threat (Congressional Record: 1919, p. 4267). Hence, the Passport Control Act of 1918 mandates individuals seeking entry into the USA to secure visas from American consulates overseas and have these visas endorsed on valid passports (Schain: 2008, p. 193). Indeed, the implementation of the law faced considerable challenges within the technological limitations of the era. Thousands of immigrants encountered prolonged delays and confusion at consulate offices, often struggling to comprehend the required procedures, resulting in significant delays lasting months (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 511).

The discourse arose to suspend immigration until suitable job placements for returning soldiers, given that nearly 10% of men did not return from the war, exacerbating the labour shortage (Congressional Record, 1919, p. 6976). However, no decisive actions have been implemented besides broadening wartime passport regulations. The emergence of the USSR and the rise of communism underscored the necessity of vigilance against educated foreigners. This was exemplified by the presence of Soviet and anarchist leader Leon Trotsky, who taught in the USA prior to the war (Congressional Record, 1919, p. 6978). In the immediate aftermath of the war, authorities deported individuals affiliated with opposing countries, involved in anarchist groups, or who had acquired American citizenship to evade military service, thus displacing conscripted American workers (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 139). The establishment of the League of Nations following World War I sparked discussions regarding its potential impact on United States immigration policies. The longstanding adherence to the Monroe Doctrine, which emphasized non-interference in foreign affairs, avoidance of entangling alliances with European powers, and protection of U.S. sovereignty against foreign influence, guided the U.S. government's stance on international relations (Congressional Record, 1895, p. 431). The stipulations outlined in Articles 23, 24, and 25 of the League of Nations founding documents nullified agreements conflicting with League provisions and sparked debates. President Wilson declared that the League would not have jurisdiction over United States laws (Congressional Record, 1919, pp. 76, 4522, 4571, 4849).

In 1913, Senator Dillingham proposed restricting the admission of aliens to the United States to 10% of the population. However, attitudes towards immigrants shifted during the war,

leading to the enactment of the Emergency Quota Act in 1921. Except for Hindus, Chinese, and Japanese, who faced separate bans, the quota for immigrants from all nationalities increased by 10% compared to 1910. Nonetheless, it remained capped at 3% (Migration Policy Institute, 2013, p. 2; Congressional Record, 1922, p. 12059). High unemployment rates, housing crisis and increasing reactions towards immigrants led to the enactment of this law (Congressional Record, 1922, p. 13439). Transit passengers, public employees and their relatives, tourists, temporary business visitors, individuals governed by bilateral immigration agreements, and those originating from Canada, Cuba, Mexico, Central and South American countries, and associated islands were exempt from the law, provided they did not exceed 20% (Congressional Record, 1921, p. 3936).

3. Conclusion: An Evaluation from the Perspective of Türkiye

Within the framework of the temporary protection regime, established on three essential criteria—namely, the open-door policy, the principle of non-refoulement, and the meeting of basic needs—Türkiye holds the distinction of hosting more than 3.8 million refugees for the fifth consecutive year (International Organization for Migration, 2022, pp. 25, 47). Despite the challenges they face, these individuals have shown remarkable resilience. In addition to refugees, data from the Presidency of Immigration Management indicates that over 2.1 million irregular immigrants have been apprehended in the past decade (www.goc.gov.tr, 04.01.2024). According to population statistics released by TUIK, as of 2022, there will be 1.8 million foreigners residing in the country. Notably, this figure excludes individuals with temporary protection status, trainees, or tourists currently in the country (www.tuik.gov.tr, 11.11.2023).

Photo 2. Immigration to Türkiye



Source: www.aa.com.tr/ (26.10.2024)

The image above reflects the open border policy of Türkiye for refugees. Between 2010 and 2022, the proportion of foreigners in Türkiye surged by 600%, while the overall population increase was 15%. Consequently, the ratio of foreigners to the country's population rose from 0.26% to 2.1%. Notably, this figure excludes Syrians under temporary protection status. According to 2022 data from the Presidency of Migration Management, Türkiye provided Temporary Protection to 3,746,674 Syrians (Presidency of Migration Management, 2022). In 2022, Türkiye received 494 thousand immigrants, with 46.1% entering from European countries. Among European migrants, 71.7% were Russians and Ukrainians. From the Asian continent, 41.3% of immigrants originated, primarily Iranians, Afghans, and Iraqis. Additionally, 9.7% arrived from Africa, while the remaining 2% came from the Americas (www.tuik.gov.tr, 09.11.2023).

Some of these immigrants obtained Turkish citizenship following a five-year residency period. The General Directorate of Population and Citizenship Affairs reports that 163,044 Syrians aged 18 and above are registered in the population registry (www.aa.com.tr, 09.11.2023). Recent revisions to the Turkish Citizenship Law have facilitated citizenship acquisition for eligible foreigners within the scope of immigration policies, conditional upon no threat to national security or public order. By 2023, 221,671 Syrians have been granted exceptional citizenship. This expansion now includes investments previously excluded from the definition of direct foreign investments.

Consequently, the number of Turkish citizenships granted through this pathway represents half the global figure attained through investment (Serdar, 2021, p. 169; Köşgeroğlu, 2017, p. 193). The demographic and political landscape is transforming, particularly evident when examining Syrian immigrants. Notably, while Türkiye's average age is 33.1, Syrians residing in Türkiye have an average age of 22.6. Additionally, the fertility rate among Syrians in Türkiye is 5.3, in stark contrast to Türkiye's overall fertility rate of 1.62 (Karaca 2023, 25 Aralık).

The uneven distribution of immigrants, particularly in cities like Hatay, Kilis, Gaziantep, and Şanlıurfa, has led to critical thresholds in the proportion of refugees relative to the native population. This uneven distribution poses diverse challenges for both immigrants and host communities. Refugee populations housed in camps impose economic strains on Türkiye. At the same time, those integrating into urban settings face social tensions with residents and struggle to adapt to the host country (Yılmaz, 2013: 9). Seventy-five per cent of refugees are concentrated within a select decile of provinces. Overexpansion and overcrowding in settlements exacerbate the demand for urban services, strain infrastructure, provoke housing and social service conflicts, and intensify employment competition (Turkish Agricultural and Credit Cooperatives, 2020, p. 42).

Official statistics reveal that refugees make up 2.9% of the workforce in Türkiye, with 86% working in informal jobs. This trend leads to lower wages and challenges in sustaining livelihoods. Fear of losing social benefits discourages transitioning to formal employment sectors (Caro, 2020, p. 66; Erzan et al., 2018, p. 3). Employers bypassing minimum wage and insurance contributions by hiring registered refugees displace native workers, fueling societal resentment and fracturing social cohesion (Kaya, 2019, pp. 91-92).

Employers save 8.1 million T.L. annually by employing foreigners without social security coverage and work permits. However, the Social Security Institution (SSI) incurs a yearly loss of 7 million T.L. in income flow. Syrian refugees in Türkiye receive free healthcare, leading to a strain on the health system and SSI sustainability due to the provision of 97 million outpatient services and 2.6 million surgeries as of 2023 (Solakoğlu 2023, 3 Kasım). Research by the Turkish Medical Association in refugee-dense areas reveals unregistered health facilities employing mainly refugees. Hospitals experience heightened service demands from unidentified refugee patients, especially for illnesses such as hepatitis A, chickenpox, measles, and tuberculosis. Moreover, there is an increased risk of spreading leishmaniasis (Turkish Medical Association, 2013: 7).

Refugees, mainly Syrians, have limited education and skills. According to a 2014 study by AFAD, 49.9% of Syrians lack a specific profession, with artisans and manual labourers forming the next largest group. These findings underscore employment difficulties and contribute to an unskilled workforce in Türkiye (AFAD, 2014 cited in Kıvrak, 2019, p. 92). Hiring foreigners for positions often disregarded by residents and bridging gaps in the unskilled labour market is seen as beneficial by employers. However, this approach also leads to the exploitation of refugee workers (Turkish Medical Association, 2016, p. 16).

In terms of economic impact, migration often involves income transfers. Many refugee workers in the Turkish labour market send a portion of their monthly earnings to their families in their home countries despite their salaries being below the minimum wage. According to Mahmut Asmalı, President of Müsiad, as reported by Akşam Newspaper on November 3, 2023, illegal immigrants transfer millions of dollars in income to their home countries every month (Sağlam 2023, 3 Kasım) (www.aksam.com.tr, 03.11.2023). Migration to Türkiye has become increasingly commercialized. A study on the migration patterns of Afghan immigrants indicates that 82% of them enter the country through smugglers (Mixed Migration Centre, 2020, p. 8). Data from the Presidency of Migration Management indicates 66,039 transactions against immigrant smugglers from 2011 to 2024 (www.goc.gov.tr, 04.01.2024). Irregular mass migration presents a considerable financial burden on the Turkish economy. The Migration and Integration Report of 2018 from the Turkish Grand National Assembly Human Rights Investigation Commission and Refugee Rights Sub-Commission reveals that expenditures solely for Syrian immigrants and refugees reach \$30 billion. However, subsequent reports, including one dated July 2, 2020, by the

upper Commission, indicate a continuous increase in expenditures since 2011. Current estimates suggest that expenditures for Syrian refugees now exceed \$40 billion (Turkish Grand National Assembly Human Rights Investigation Sub-Commission, 2018). According to the Cologne Institute of Economics, the calculation reaches 60 billion Euros. Efforts to mitigate the burden on the Turkish economy involve collaborative financial support programs. The E.U. has pledged 6 billion Euros in aid, while U.N. aid until 2020 is capped at 600 million Euros (Aygül and Eke, 2019).

The issue of naturalization of foreigners and its impact on the cultural homogeneity of nation-states is a complex one. Excluding foreigners from citizenship opportunities can lead to fragmented social structures characterized by profound inequality (Toksöz, 2006, p. 244). The complexities of international migration dynamics underscore the need for comprehensive policies that clearly outline citizenship eligibility and exclusion criteria. The historical immigration wave in the United States from 1882 to 1921, with 25 million individuals entering the country, is a significant example of immigration and associated policy evolution. The various social, political, and economic implications of shifting immigrant demographics prompted successive U.S. administrations to impose immigration restrictions based on defined criteria. Given the economic and social considerations, Türkiye will likely transition away from its open-door policy and implement restrictions. The historical experience of the United States provides valuable insights for Türkiye.

As a first step, it is crucial for Türkiye to prioritize the regulation of irregular and undocumented migration. The enhanced border security, including landmine clearance, has inadvertently led to increased migration flows towards Türkiye, posing challenges in tracking immigrants and formulating effective immigration policies. The limited information on foreigners acquiring citizenship through property and foreign direct investment further complicates policy development. Therefore, implementing comprehensive registration systems for foreigners would be a significant step towards mitigating economic leakage through the labour market and overseas money transfers.

Secondly, considering the brain drain phenomenon and drawing from the U.S. immigration experience, it becomes essential to implement educational assessments for incoming immigrants. Efforts to position Türkiye as the "China of Europe" through low-interest rates and a strong exchange rate have led to elevated inflation and interest rates. Addressing the widening gap between the migrating population's low education levels and the concurrent brain drain necessitates acknowledging the immigration demand from highly educated individuals.

Thirdly, prioritizing immigrant groups capable of seamless integration into Türkiye's cultural, religious, and economic fabric, striving for comparable living standards to native Turkish citizens, and excluding groups posing challenges to assimilation could effectively mitigate

economic strains and potential conflicts arising from immigration. This approach is crucial for maintaining the cultural and economic balance of the nation, and its implementation should be a top priority for policy makers.

Lastly, the concentration of immigrants in particular cities and neighbourhoods fosters ghettoization.

Implementing a quota system to ensure diversity in immigrant populations may help reduce crime rates and alleviate local resistance toward specific immigrant groups. Criteria such as criminal records, involvement in polygamy, illicit income sources, specific health conditions, lack of resources for resettlement, and affiliations with terrorist organizations can guide authorities in their approval processes through comprehensive external assessments of migrants.

This study acknowledges the similar social, economic, and political impacts of irregular migration across countries. It highlights the importance of efficiently utilizing resources for asylum seekers, refugees, and those under temporary protection, advocating for a unified policy approach regardless of circumstances. Drawing parallels with the historical US immigration policies of 1882-1921, which successfully engineered social change through diversified restrictions, it suggests that Türkiye could learn from this experience to foster a new social melting pot. Future research will explore the feasibility of implementing these policy recommendations to create a more balanced and sustainable immigration system for Türkiye.

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