

**İSTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY ★ INSTITUTE OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY**

**TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ACTIVITIES of  
BULGARIAN TURKS**

**M.Sc. Thesis by  
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**Department : Urban and Regional Planning**

**Programme : Regional Planning**

**OCTOBER 2010**



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**İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ ★ FEN BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**BULGAR TÜRKLERİ'NİN  
ULUSÖTESİ GİRİŞİMCİLİKLERİ**

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## **FOREWORD**

Bulgarian Turk Immigrants, who live transnationally and travel for visiting their families and home countries or creating income for themselves, were always attractive to me as a Bulgaria born Turk myself.

I would like to express my gratitude to my Assoc. Prof. Dr. Levent Özaydin for his guidance and endless patience.

And I appreciate my colleagues' and my family's support; especially thanks to my father who helped me to reach the transnational entrepreneurs and encouraged me for studying in a "trans-national field".

Finally let me thank my dear supervisor Prof. Dr. Tüzin Baycan for her suggestions and remarks concerning this study and for always being supportive, not only for educational career, but also for real life.

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## TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS.....</b>	vii
<b>ABBREVIATIONS .....</b>	ix
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	xi
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	xiii
<b>SUMMARY .....</b>	xv
<b>ÖZET.....</b>	xvii
<b>1. INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Aim and Research Focus .....	3
1.2 Research Questions .....	3
1.3 Data and Sample.....	4
1.4 Structure of the Study.....	6
<b>2. IMMIGRATION and REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT .....</b>	<b>9</b>
2.1 Immigration .....	9
2.2 Immigration and Regional Development .....	13
<b>3. TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP .....</b>	<b>19</b>
3.1 Descriptions of the Terms .....	19
3.1.1 Transnationalism.....	21
3.1.2 Entrepreneurship.....	21
3.1.3 Transnational entrepreneurship.....	25
3.2 Motivating Factors for Transnational Entrepreneurship .....	30
3.3 Typologies of Transnational Entrepreneurship .....	34
<b>4. IMMIGRATION FROM BULGARIA TO TURKEY .....</b>	<b>39</b>
4.1 History of Immigration from Bulgaria to Turkey.....	39
4.2 Profile of the Immigrants.....	42
4.2.1 Social dimension.....	46
4.2.2 Economic dimension .....	46
4.2.3 Political dimension .....	47
4.2.4 Physical dimension .....	49
<b>5. TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ACTIVITIES OF BULGARIAN TURKS.....</b>	<b>53</b>
5.1 Primarily Evaluations of Research Questions .....	54
5.2 Answering the Main Questions .....	68
<b>6. CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>79</b>
<b>REFERENCES.....</b>	<b>81</b>



## **ABBREVIATIONS**

<b>BT</b>	: Bulgarian Turks
<b>TE</b>	: Transnational Entrepreneurship
<b>TEs</b>	: Transnational Entrepreneurs



## LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
<b>Table 3. 1:</b> Literature overview .....	29
<b>Table 4. 1:</b> Migrations from Bulgaria to Turkey .....	41
<b>Table 4. 2:</b> Settlements where Turks are densely located within Bulgaria .....	41
<b>Table 4. 3:</b> Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 1985 (TUIK 1985 Cencus) .....	42
<b>Table 4. 4:</b> Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 1990 (TUIK 1990 Cencus) .....	43
<b>Table 4. 6:</b> Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 2000 (TUIK 2000 Cencus).....	44
<b>Table 4. 6:</b> Bulgarian Turks' condition within the labor force (TUIK, 1985).....	47
<b>Table 4. 7:</b> Entrepreneurship tendencies of new-coming Bulgaria originated immigrants (1985-1990 and 2000).....	47
<b>Table 4. 8:</b> The provinces of the first Settlement by Immigrants coming from Bulgaria between 1950-1988 and 1989 .....	49
<b>Table 5. 1:</b> Correlations of the variables- personal. ....	71
<b>Table 5. 2:</b> The model summary- personal.....	72
<b>Table 5. 3:</b> Analysis of variance- personal factors. ....	72
<b>Table 5. 4:</b> Coefficents table-personal factors.....	73
<b>Table 5. 5:</b> Correlations of the variables- motivation. ....	75
<b>Table 5. 6:</b> Model Summary- motivation. ....	76
<b>Table 5. 7:</b> Analysis of variance – motivation factors. ....	76
<b>Table 5. 8:</b> Coefficents table- motivation.....	77



## LIST OF FIGURES

	<u>Page</u>
<b>Figure 2. 1:</b> Foreign-born population in the world.....	16
<b>Figure 3. 1:</b> Types of activities in immigrant communities .....	20
<b>Figure 3. 2:</b> Factors influencing TE and their outcomes.....	33
<b>Figure 3. 3:</b> Embeddedness in TE .....	36
<b>Figure 3. 4:</b> Typology of TE .....	38
<b>Figure 4. 1:</b> Geographic distribution of immigrants who came from Bulgaria in 1989, by province's, 31 May 1990. ....	51
<b>Figure 5. 1:</b> Age distribution of TEs. ....	55
<b>Figure 5. 2:</b> Marital status of TEs. ....	55
<b>Figure 5. 3:</b> Distribution of education level. ....	56
<b>Figure 5. 4:</b> Share of the returnee TEs. ....	57
<b>Figure 5. 5:</b> Mode of TEs' transport. ....	57
<b>Figure 5. 6:</b> Initiative pushing factors for TE.....	59
<b>Figure 5. 7:</b> Previous economic activities of entrepreneurs before TE.....	59
<b>Figure 5. 8:</b> Family support while establishing TE business. ....	60
<b>Figure 5. 9:</b> Number of income within TEs' household. ....	60
<b>Figure 5. 10:</b> Dual citizenships of Bulgarian Turk TEs. ....	61
<b>Figure 5. 11:</b> Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual- personal. ....	73
<b>Figure 5. 12:</b> Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual- motivation. ....	77



## **TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ACTIVITIES of BULGARIAN TURKS**

### **SUMMARY**

In recent years, a new concept, "trans-nationalism," has introduced as an alternative analytic stance in migration studies. Against the classical views that focused on origins and adaptations of immigrants to the new environments, this new emerging perspective focuses on the continuing relations between immigrants and their home countries and how this complex social fields straddle national borders. In parallel, "transnational entrepreneurship" as a distinct attribute of migrant entrepreneurship has recently attracted considerable attention in regional planning, economics and sociology disciplines.

Transnational entrepreneurs discover and enact business opportunities across national borders. By traveling both physically and virtually, transnational entrepreneurs simultaneously engage in two or more environments.

The present study aimed to investigate transnational entrepreneurship term and to highlight the motivation and driving forces of migrants towards transnational activities by addressing Bulgarian Turks who conduct in cross-border business activities between Turkey and Bulgaria.

In line with in-depth interviews with transnational entrepreneurs realized in the field, it is understood that Bulgarian Turk TEs act circuit travels among two countries for importing goods to family-run businesses or large stores or individuals, and transporting packages, and non-ethnic products to households and businesses in both countries and they are transporting passengers. As a remarkable observation; all TEs business activities are actualizing within and by the help of transnational entrepreneurs' social network. Bulgarian Turk transnational entrepreneurs' personal features and their social environments are significantly affecting the business and its success.



## **BULGAR TÜRKLERİ'NİN ULUSÖTESİ GİRİŞİMCİLİKLERİ**

### **ÖZET**

Son yıllarda ‘ulusötesi-leşme’ kavramı göç araştırmalarında daha analitik ve yeni bir tutum ortaya koymuştur. Literatürün geleneksel yaklaşımının aksine, ulusötesileşme kapsamındaki araştırmalar; göçmenlerin orjinlerine, göçükleri yeni çevreye adaptasyonlarına ve anavatanları ile süregelen ilişkiler ile bu tür bir sosyal ortamda ulusal sınır kavramının nasıl ayrımlaştıına odaklanmaktadır. Buna paralel olarak göçmen girişimciliğinin farklı bir kolu olan ‘ulusötesi girişimcilik’, bölge planlama, ekonomi ve sosyoloji disiplinlerinin ilgisini çeken yeni bir araştırma konusudur.

Uluslararası girişimciliğin göçmen girişimcilerin ulusal sınırların ötesindeki fırsatları ortaya çıkarttığı ve eyleme döktüğü çifte-düzlemlü bir süreçtir. Ulusötesi girişimciler hem fiziksel hem de fili seyahatler sayesinde iki veya daha fazla sosyal çevreye yerleşik insanlardır. Bu yerleşiklik onlara kritik global ilişkiler kurabilme imkanı verirken, veritabanlarındaki yaratıcılarını, hareketliliklerini ve lojistik olma özelliklerini maksimuma çıkartma yetisi de vermektedir.

Bu çalışma uluslararası girişimcilik kavramını incelemeyi ve Bulgar Türkü göçmenlerin Türkiye ve Bulgaristan arasındaki uluslararası aktivitelerini harekete geçiren güçleri ve motivasyonlarını tanımlamayı amaçlamıştır.

Alanda yapılan derinlemesine mülakatlarlar doğrultusunda anlaşılmıştır ki Bulgar Türkü girişimciler; “göngüsel/dairesel” seyahatler ile Bulgaristan ve Türkiye arasında küçük veya büyük çaplı aile işletmelerine veya bireylere mal taşımacılığı yapmak, kuryelik ve ticaret ile uğraşmakta veya yolcu taşımacılığı yapmaktadır. Tüm girişimcilerin uluslararası iş eylemleri tamamen sosyal networkleri sayesinde gerçekleştirdikleri bu çalışmanın gözlemlerinden dikkat çekici bir sonuçtur. Bulgar Türkü uluslararası girişimcilerin kişisel özellikleri ve sosyal çevreleri, mevcuttaki ekonomik aktivitelerini ve bu aktivitelerin kaydettiği başarıyı anlamlı şekilde etkilemektedir.



## **1. INTRODUCTION**

Immigration has been defined as human capital flows within or across the national boundaries. This research will focus on cross-border immigration. In recent years, a new concept, "trans-nationalism," has introduced as an alternative analytic stance in migration studies. Against the classical views that focused on origins and adaptations of immigrants to the new environments, this new emerging perspective focuses on the continuing relations between immigrants and their home countries and how this complex social fields that straddle national borders. In parallel, "transnational entrepreneurship" as a distinct attribute of migrant entrepreneurship has attracted considerable attention. Transnational entrepreneurship is a multi-faceted process, in which immigrant entrepreneurs discover and enact business opportunities across national borders. By traveling both physically and virtually, transnational entrepreneurs simultaneously engage in two or more socially embedded environments, allowing them to maintain critical global relations that enhance their ability to creatively, dynamically, and logically maximize their resource base.

Bulgarian immigration to Turkey is well known as a political migration which the immigrants are entirely Turkish originated or Muslims. The aim of this study is to explore the transnational entrepreneurship in the case of immigrants moved from Bulgaria to Turkey.

We chose to examine Bulgarian Turk transnational entrepreneurs for the following reasons. First, due to their geographic positioning, both Turkey and Bulgaria have a long common history and Bulgarian Turks' also have Turkish language skills. In particular, over the years various of migrations occurred between two countries. Secondly, the researchers have further experience of and contacts with immigrant communities who currently live Bulgaria or Turkey.

There is no institution or organization in Turkey which collects transnational entrepreneurship data information that might answer these questions above.

However, some organizations collect data which can be identified as international migration data on in line with the institution's mission.

As a relatively new research subject, there are also gaps in the existing literature (Portes, 2003).

In resembling studies many researchers applied interviewing techniques both oral or on-line (see Pio, 2007; Terjesen & Elam 2009, Tan, 2008; Llyod, 2004, Portes, Escobar and Arana, 2009). Yet there has been a strikingly lack of research that presents qualitative and quantitative data to systematically examine the characteristics of transnational entrepreneurship among Bulgaria and Turkey, our study has aimed to contribute filling this gap with 'field studies' in line with the snowball method through a model emerging from qualitative interviews to illuminate the case entrepreneurial process of Bulgarian Turk migrants.

After a brief introduction about the aim, information gathering and research focuses of the case in the first section, the rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Based on the literature the second section summarizes the resembling researches in the field by descriptions and classifications of the immigration, transnationalism, entrepreneurship and transnational entrepreneurship terms.

Followingly the third section will be consisting of the historical bases of Bulgarian Turks migration to Turkey which had evaluated periodically as well as describing the Bulgarian Turk Immigrants' characteristics and effect of these migrants on regional economy.

In the fourth section TE activities of Bulgarian Turks will be examined by our qualitative fieldwork according to the questions or in-depth interviews that 32 TEs answered.

The fifth section presents systematic and qualitative results based on the analysis of our survey data. We conclude with an evaluation of the process and a discussion of the research.

Focusing on immigrants' participation in border-crossing entrepreneurial activities, transnational entrepreneurship (TE) research offers a fertile ground to advance existing entrepreneurial research at the intersection of the immigration researches and regional economy literature.

The present study aims to investigate transnational entrepreneurship and to highlight the motivation and driving forces of migrants towards transnational activities. The study addresses Bulgarian Turks who conduct cross-border business activities between Turkey and Bulgaria and identifies the processes and dynamics of Bulgarian Turks' transnational entrepreneurship.

### **1.1 Aim and Research Focus**

The aim of this study is to examine the transnational entrepreneurship in the case of immigrants moved from Bulgaria to Turkey. Bulgarian immigration to Turkey is well known as a political migration which the immigrants are entirely Turkish originated or Muslims. These special cases of common language and the forced migration will contribute to the research field.

We chose to examine transnational entrepreneurs in Bulgaria Turks for the following reasons. First, due to their geographic positioning, both Turkey and Bulgaria have a long common history. In particular, over the years various migrations occurred between two countries. Secondly, the researchers have further experience of and contacts with immigrant communities who currently live Bulgaria or Turkey.

Study will focus on the fields that reveals 'What are the transnational activities of BT-TEs?, What are the initiative decision making factors?, What is the business and organizational model of TEs? And what is the role of social relations in TE?'.

### **1.2 Research Questions**

Early researches about the field emphasize primary research questions of TE as follows:

Why, how, and when do immigrants pursue new business ventures, in more or less attractive environments, while relying on abilities and opportunities stemming from the exploitation of resources, both social and economic, in more than one country?

Our research focused on a very rare case where incoming immigrants are members and part of the host group. Due to the continual transnational mobility of these immigrants we focused on two main questions. These questions are as following:

**Q1:** "Do the personal characteristics of TEs effect the success of business?" and

**Q2:** “Do these business activities have some motivations and driving forces behind?”

In addition to the main questionns following secondary questions are intented to find answers:

- What are the personal and demografic characteristics of TEs?
- What is the economic scope of the subjected transnational entrepreneurship?,
- What are the initiative pushing factors?
- Which languages the TEs speak while working transnationally? and
- Is the transnational entrepreneur dual citizen?”
- What are the types of TE between Bulgaria and Turkey? And,
- What are the social relations’ impact on his/her TE activities?

### **1.3 Data and Sample**

There is no institution or organization in Turkey which collects transnational entrepreneurship data information that might answer these questions above. However, some organizations (State Statistics Organization, Ministry of Labor and Social Security, Ministry of Interior) collects data which can be identified as international migration data on in line with the institution’s mission. The sources which can be used to supply the demand for international migration data directly and indirectly are: censuses; border statistics; administrative registers and sources; foreign country registers (for the citizens living abroad) and surveys.

As a relatively new research subject, there are also gaps in the existing literature (Portes, 2003).

In resembling studies many researchers applied interviewing techniques both oral or on-line (see Pio, 2007; Terjesen & Elam 2009, Tan, 2008; Llyod, 2004, Portes, Escobar and Arana, 2009). This research has aimed to fill this gap with ‘face to face interviews’ in line with the snowball method, the quantitative or qualitative data collected with questionnaires and personal in-depth interviews are evaluated systematically.

## **Methodology**

Yet there has been a strikingly lack of research that presents qualitative and quantitative data to systematically examine the characteristics of transnational entrepreneurship among neighbour nations and Turkey, our study has aimed to contribute filling this gap with ‘field studies’ in line with the snowball method through a model emerging from qualitative interviews to illuminate the case entrepreneurial process of Bulgarian Turk migrants.

To meet the quantitative or qualitative needs of information about the field, this research will focus on interviewings. Sample size of the study conducted with regard of directions of transnational entrepreneurs.

In-depth interviews on the basis of 3 groups of questions including personal characteristics, business characteristics and motivation of transnational entrepreneurs were realized for gathering the information.

The qualitative data reached from the interviews had systematically reported for more significant analysis and for better understanding the condition of the business.

First group of the questions about the personal and demographic characteristics of BT-TEs are:

- Age,
- Sex,
- Nationality,
- Education level,
- Language skills,
- Personal features and their effect on the business,
- Marital condition,
- Household size and
- Number of income within the household.

The second group which addresses the social network and family effect on the business intended to find answers to the following questions:

- Do you have a role model?
- Is there other entrepreneur within the family?
- Do you have relatives in host/home country?

- Did you asked for moral or monetary support from your family while establishing your job?
- Do you acting your business by the help of your social network? Who are your clients?

The last group of questions intended understanding the condition the business by the following questions:

- Were you unemployed before starting working transnationally?
- If you had another economic source did you need extra income?
- Did being your own boss encourage you to working transnationally?
- Did wanting to be flexible encourage you to working transnationally?
- While working transnationally do you travel by your private car?
- For how many times are you travelling for business purposes within a year?
- Do regulations and custom controls cause difficulties for your business?
- Are you working as TE with other countries (besides Bulgaria and Turkey)?
- Do you own real estate (s)? And where?
- How long have you run this business?
- What is the type of your business?
- How was the profit last year (positive, zero, negative)?
- Do you have a second job?
- How were your social networks effect your business?
- Would you rather be working legally (if informal)?

32 in-depth interviews were conducted in 6 cities in Bulgaria and Turkey including Bursa (TR), Istanbul (TR), Razgrad (BG), Shumnu (BG), Tirnova (BG), and Blagovgrad (BG) within the summer period of 2010 and required several travellings where BT-TEs are living. We had contacts with the entrepreneurs in line with the directions of interviewed BT-TEs and reached to the whole cases especially in Shumnu, Razgrad and Tirnova. The gathered data analyzed by linear regression to understand which factors are defining the business.

#### **1.4 Structure of the Study**

After a brief introduction about our aim, information gathering; research will focus on the case, the rest of the thesis is organized as follows:

Based on the literature the second and third sections summarize the resembling researches in the field by descriptions and classifications of the immigration, transnationalism, entrepreneurship and transnational entrepreneurship terminologies.

Followingly the fourth section will be consisting of the historical bases of Bulgarian Turks' migration to Turkey which had evaluated periodically as well as describing the Bulgarian Turk Immigrants' characteristics and effect of these migrants on regional economy.

In the fifth section TE activities of Bulgarian Turks will be examined by our qualitative fieldwork according to the questions or in-depth interviews that aimed to find answers to the questions about the Bulgarian Turks' transnational entrepreneurship (BT-TE).

The sixth section presents systematic and qualitative results based on the analysis of handled data. We conclude with an evaluation of the process and a discussion of the research field.



## **2. IMMIGRATION and REGIONAL DEVELOPMENT**

### **2.1 Immigration**

Migration has always been part of the human story, and it will remain so. In future, more and more people in both developing and developed countries are likely to consider migrating, either permanently or temporarily, to seek out new opportunities. Improvements in transport links around the world have made it easier to travel, while the Internet is an ever-expanding storehouse of information on job prospects and life in other countries.

Long before political border emerged, people were travelling the planet. Some of these journeys were cyclical, such as the seasonal treks of nomadic tribes with their grazing animals. Others were more open-ended journeys begun in flight from natural disasters or in search of a better place to call home (Keeley, 2009).

Immigration literature basically depends on the movement of people on space. The movement occurs among rural areas and cities, between cities or across the nations.

Migration, in general, is categorized into two groups as internal and external migration;

- Internal Migration: Moving to a new home within a state, country, or continent.
- External Migration: Moving to a new home in a different state, country, or continent (Zhou, 2004).

However, to keep in mind, migration is not a simple issue; it is a dynamic process which does not occur in one-way only; but also depending on back and forth movements across the space. International migration might transform to transnational migration by conditions.

People move for many reasons, mainly they think about what is positive and negative about staying or moving. Nature of migration require strategic desicion making.

The study of immigration in economics and sociology has focused, since its classic origins in the nineteenth century, on two central problems: the determinants of migration and the adaptation of immigrants to receiving societies (Park 1928; Ravenstein 1885). Economic historians (e.g., Thomas 1973) have examined the economic forces that gave rise to the ebb and flow of labor migration across the North Atlantic, between Great Britain and the United States. That tradition lasts to this day, having produced orthodox push-pull models and also a set of alternative theories on determinants of labor outflows collectively labeled the "new" economics of migration (Massey, Arango et al. 1998; Stark 1984).

Economists and sociologists have addressed the origins of migration, but they also have focused on the adaptation of immigrants to their new environments. Concepts such as assimilation, acculturation, and more recently, incorporation, have been extensively used in the sociological literature on immigration to provide conceptual guidance for the analysis of this topic (Portes and Rumbaut 1996; Portes, 2002)

In recent years, a new concept, "trans-nationalism," has introduced an alternative analytic stance in migration studies. Currently differing from the classical views that focused on origins and adaptations of immigrants to the new environments, this emerging perspective focuses on the continuing relations between immigrants and their home countries and how this complex social fields that straddle national borders (Portes, Haller and Guarnizo 2002).

As a simple explanation of migration, it is hard to beat the general belief that migration has been a response to economic necessity and a reflection of the fact that they could build a better life by moving to a new country. But this is true of many billions of people, and yet most people don't migrate. In this regard, there are factors both drives and enables people to move to another country. Typically, these are some forces that described by sociologists and economists in terms of "push" and "pull". The "push" represents the state of things at home, such as the strength of the economy; the "pull" is the situation in the migrant's target country, such as the prospects of finding a decent job (Keeley, 2009).

Push factors are generally problematic reasons for leaving a place, such as a food shortage, war, flood, etc. Pull factors are the factors that initiate the will of replacing

the space of live for something good and to increase living conditions (such as nicer climate, better food supply, better income or social life, etc.).

Like any subject, international migration has its own terminology:

- **Emigration** refers to people leaving a country for long periods or permanently; immigration to people coming in; international migration, or, sometimes, just migration are catch-all terms covering both phenomena.
- **Permanent migration** means people intending to settle in another country “for good”; temporary migration covers people who intend to return home, often within a year, and who are usually travelling to work (sometimes seasonally, like fruit pickers) or for training or for a long working holiday.

A migrant leaves the origin country and goes to a destination country. Along the way, some, such as refugees and asylum seekers, may spend time in a transit country.

It's also common to hear countries spoken of in terms of whether they are countries of emigration; either sending or origin countries. Or countries of immigration; either receiving or destination countries. However these categorisations are not always clear cut. For instance, a country that is mainly experiencing emigration may also be experiencing some level of immigration. None are these terms permanent: economic or political change can see a country of emigration suddenly become a country of immigration, and vice versa.

- Finally, **net migration** represents the difference between levels of immigration and emigration: negative net migration means more people are leaving than arriving, and positive net migration means more are arriving (compiled from Keeley, 2009).

On behalf of this information, the mentioned decision makers, migrants, are determinants of the typology of the migration and the following dynamics and processes. According to OECD report for immigrant students' sucess; “international migrants (including legal and illegal migrants)” covers a remarkably diverse group of people. Understanding this diversity can help explain why people migrate and provide clues to how countries can best manage the challenges and opportunities of migration. The table below both answers the question “who are the migrants?” and how they are classified according to the aim of their movements.

Who are the migrants?	
<b>Temporary labour migrants:</b> Workers who travel for limited periods.	<b>Asylum seekers:</b> Definitions vary, but asylum seekers are mainly distinguished from refugees by the fact that they make their claim for protection as refugees when they arrive in the receiving country, and not in their own country or in an intermediate country. Governments frequently turn down asylum claims.
<b>Long-term, low-skilled migrants:</b> Receiving countries typically prefer these migrants to be temporary, but – as the experience of the guest workers in western Europe shows – this is often not the case.	
<b>Highly skilled and business migrants:</b> Some transfer within multinationals while others are hired on the international job market. Recruitment of highly skilled migrants is becoming a major focus for some developed countries.	<b>Forced migrants:</b> May include refugees and asylum seekers, but also people fleeing famine and natural disasters. In our case this forced migrants are people who replaced by reason of political issues.
<b>Irregular migrants:</b> Also known as undocumented or illegal migrants. They are migrants who live in a country without the necessary documents. Some may arrive legally, but then overstay or work illegally. Migrant labour forces around the world include many irregular migrants.	<b>Family members (family reunion and family formation):</b> People joining relatives who are already living abroad as well as people who have married or are about to marry a resident of another country. The right to family reunion and to create a new family is widely recognized, including by Australia, Canada, the United States and most EU members, although rules vary considerably on who may be admitted.
<b>Refugees:</b> Defined by the United Nations as people living outside their own countries who are unable or unwilling to return home because of a “well-founded fear of persecution”. Most OECD countries have given international commitments to shelter refugees. Although substantial in the past, refugee flows are not currently a major component of migration into the OECD area.	<b>Return migrants:</b> People returning to their home countries after a period living abroad.
	<b>Source:</b> Based on material in <i>Where Immigrant Students Succeed: A Comparative Review of Performance and Engagement in PISA 2003</i> (OECD, 2006).

According to a widely used definition, migrants are persons who have been outside their country of birth or citizenship for a period of 12 months or longer (Sasse and Thielemann 2005). It is estimated that at present, there are about 160 million migrants worldwide (2 to 3% of the world population), supplemented by an estimated 10 million illegal migrants. In 2003, there were an estimated 17 million forced migrants (asylum-seekers and refugees) worldwide; of these, 4.1 million were being hosted in Europe (UNHCR statistical yearbook 2003). It is further estimated that the annual net inflow of migrants into the EU 15 was about 1.7 million in 2002 (Eurostat yearbook 2004), with just under 50% coming from other European countries ( Baycan, 2009)

Capitalist dynamics of globalization itself are pulling factors for human, transnational migration is inextricably linked with the changing conditions of global capitalism and must be analyzed within a global context (Glick Schiller et al. 1992). Within the rubric of transnationalism, migrants are no longer viewed as passive subjects beneath the hegemonic power of structural forces. While the everyday lives of ordinary migrants are critically affected by the rapidly changing political-economic contexts of global capitalism, these individuals have become important agents of globalization, utilizing social networks and conducting cultural practices that are well embedded in the process (Kwak and Hiebert, 2010).

As Eckstein and Barberia summarized (2002), studies of the pre-1965 old immigrant era drew upon a straightline assimilationist frame, they focused on how assimilated groups, and generations and social classes within ethnic groups, became over time. Post-1965 studies on immigration have introduced a transnational frame of analysis that highlights social ties linking societies of origin and settlement Instead of focusing on traditional concerns about origins of immigrants and their adaptation to receiving societies, this emerging perspective concentrates on the continuing relations between immigrants and their places of origin and how this back-and-forth traffic builds complex social fields that straddle national borders (Portes, Haller and Guarnizo 2002).

## **2.2 Immigration and Regional Development**

Since the early 1990s, transnationalism has been a buzz word for social scientists who study migration. The introduction of the term as a conceptual approach was first

made by a group of anthropologists (Glick Schiller et al. 1992). Transnational human flows have several physical, social and economic effects that concerns both the home and host countries and the total region of action.

Urbanisation is a result of these (internal or external) human movements. People always looked for better places to live throughout the history and found their homes within the scope of their decision making abilities and strategies. On behalf of that, Urban and Regional Planning as a multi-disciplinary field that includes sociology, economics and space is a matter of locational strategic decision making. The living conditions, culture, economies, types of production and many indicators of the community today depend on these predictions.

Differing from the classical view, new approaches to regional planning and economic geography are aware of the global dynamics of today. These dynamics today changed the meaning of ‘space’ and ‘boundary’.

Harvey, in his book *The Condition of Post-modernity*, emphasizes that time and space are compressed. It refers to technologies that seem to accelerate or elide spatial and temporal distances, including technologies of communication (telegraph, telephones, fax machines, internet), travellings (rail, cars, trains, jets) and economics (the need to overcome spatial barriers, open up to new markets, speed up production cycles, and reduce the turn-over time of capital). It is basically depending on the liberations of the nations within the last decades.

The size of a foreign-born population in a country appears to open entrepreneurial opportunities for ethnic business owners because they understand the product preferences and the language of their fellow consumers. Foreign-born entrepreneurs in Australia also seem to effectively tap into immigrant labor markets given their innate ability to differentiate among the skills of their co-ethnic employees (Evans 1989).

First, although some business management gurus claim that the nation-state is no longer the primary scale of the world economy and global politics, this does not necessarily mean that the nation-state loses its significance. In contrast to the popular belief in post-nationalism (Ohmae, 1993), many aspects of the current international economy and political system continue to be nationally based and under the control of various regulatory regimes. In this light, we pay particular attention to an

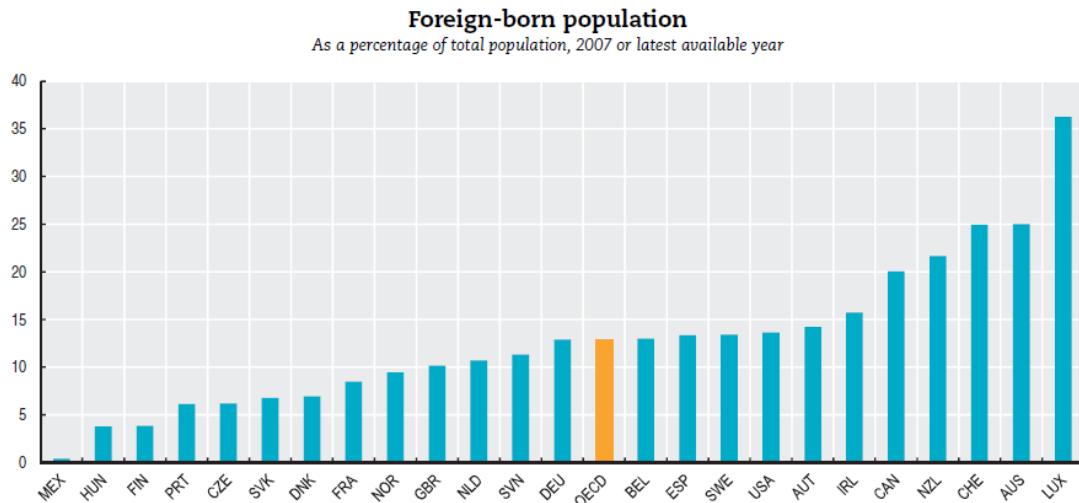
emerging field of work examining the relationship between the regulatory practices of the state and the development of markets (Freeman & Ögelman, 2000; Kloosterman, 2000). In the most general terms, these scholars note that markets are hardly “free” and instead exist within, and are defined by, a plethora of regulations that govern employment relations, trade systems, distinguish between legal and illegal products, and so on (Engelen, 2003; Kwak and Hiebert, 2010).

Many immigrants today build ‘social fields’ that cross geographic, cultural, and political borders”; recent developments pertaining to the concept of “transnational social fields” (Glick Schiller, 2003); and the critique of “methodological nationalism” (Wimmer and Schiller, 2003).

The concept of “transnational social fields” in migration studies underscores the need to address migration as a social-network-building process for both the study of the transnational dimension of the process and for entrepreneurship. “Social field” is a more encompassing term than “network,” best applied to chains of egocentric social relationships that stem from a single individual. ‘Social field’ directs attention to the simultaneity of transmigrants’ connections to two or more states (Rodriguez, 2006).

National views on the appropriate definition of the immigrant population vary from country to country. Despite this, it is possible to provide an internationally comparable picture of the size of the immigrant population, based either on nationality or country-of-birth criteria.

Nationality and place of birth are the two criteria most commonly used to define the “immigrant” population. The foreign-born population covers all persons who have ever migrated from their country of birth to their current country of residence. The foreign population consists of persons who still have the nationality of their home country. It may include persons born in the host country. The figure below shows the percentages of immigrants within the whole population. In this regard, among USA, OECD countries and other European countries; Luxemburg has an attractive condition for the immigrants and the immigrant population ratio within the countries are differing from 0,5% to 37%.



**Figure 2. 1:** Foreign-born population in the world (OECD, 2009).

Immigration allows for increased productivity by allowing individuals to migrate to the area best suited to their skills. In many ways it is an alternative to trade. Rather than importing goods from those with a comparative advantage in their production, the individuals that produce the goods can be "imported." It is a great potential for both the nations' economies and the border-free regional economy and development.

In other cases, immigration is a complement to trade. Where natural resources are a direct factor of production, or where services provided are localized, immigration can bring together the best labor with the best physical capital and natural resources to make production as efficient as possible.

The modern nation-state typically restricts immigration very tightly. The commonly stated goals in restricting immigration are to ensure national security, to protect native workers from "unfair" competition in labor, protect the cultural identity of the country, and prevent abuse of the welfare services distributed by the state (Warden, G. C., 2006- url).

There also are sociological results of the migration; immigrants who do not speak the majority language should have higher self-employment rates than their majority-language-fluent counterparts in ethnic enclaves. These micro effects should also be tempered by macro considerations that might intensify or mitigate the micro explanations for an association between majority-language proficiency, immigrant entrepreneurship, and ethnic enclaves.

For example, growing intolerance to linguistic pluralism at the national level might serve to push a larger share of immigrants lacking majority-language skills into self-

employment because of diminished employment opportunities. Global integration, in contrast, might reward immigrant entrepreneurship in light of their intrinsic understanding of their home countries, which could, in some cases, minimize the importance of majority-language fluency among the foreign-born in a particular country (Mora and Davila, 2005).

As a result the mentioned indicators help us to understand “how does migration contribute to the nation’s or the specific region’s economy and urbanisation process?”. Migrants have traditionally been viewed as responsible for excessive urban growth, for the uncontrolled expansion of urban areas, squatters and for urban surplus labour.

In Turkey, as a host country, immigrants had a great effect on the development of production sector, industry and trade; however the high housing demands and the limited employment fields within the country caused several urbanization problems after 1950s.

According to Rowthorn (2004); the impact of immigration can be considered under four headings as; unemployment and wages, government finances, ageing and population. By referring to several studies, he emphasized that, immigrants might cause a decrease in wages or harm the local workers. Skilled migrants, who come disproportionately, though not exclusively, from other developed countries, typically make a large positive contribution, whereas other migrants, who come mainly from less developed countries, cost more on average in terms of government expenditure than they pay in taxes. In most countries, the fiscal surplus of skilled migrants roughly offsets the fiscal deficit of other migrants, so the net impact of migrants as a whole on the government’s fiscal balance is roughly zero. By referring to Britain, Rowthorn considers ageing as a problem that nation met. Nations without young populations need to import young workers to support in old age for paying pensions. And finally, the distribution of the population is also very effective on the national and regional economy; young population is currently shrinking in developed countries.

For host country: We cannot rely on mass immigration to solve the problems arising from ageing of the population and alleged labour shortages. Mass immigration is not an effective solution to these problems. To the extent that they are real, such

problems can only be effectively tackled by mobilizing the under-utilized talents and energies of the existing population. This does not mean that there is no economic benefit at all from immigration. It will always be in our collective interest to admit skilled and talented people. But this is happening already (Rowthorn, 2004).

For immigrants, self-employment is a way of climbing the socio-economic ladder, a way out of unemployment and a road to earnings assimilation; a sign that they are “making it” and putting down roots. Research on male native-immigrant employment shows that not only do self-employed immigrants have higher annual incomes than salaried workers, they also have higher incomes than comparable self-employed natives (Borjas, 1986; Lofstrom, 2002; Constant and Shachmurove, 2006). While some argue that individuals are pulled rather than pushed into self-employment (Fairlie and Meyer, 1996), others support both factors, and show that ethnic minorities are no more entrepreneurial than others and do not earn more than comparable whites (Clark and Drinkwater, 1998).

Smallbone et al., in his study for London, UK, emphasized that ethnic diversity can contribute to city competitiveness through new venture creation and concentrations of groups with a high incidence to form businesses. In such circumstances, an ethnically diverse city has a potential asset, particularly if at least some of the latent entrepreneurship can be channelled into higher value added activity. Competitiveness associated with international diaspora-based linkages and social networks subject to certain contingencies, some of which are contextual, while others are attributes of individual entrepreneurs. And though less innovative, means by which ethnic minority business owners can contribute to city/region competitiveness is through the provision of goods and services already available in the marketplace (Smallbone et al., 2010).

### **3. TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP**

#### **3.1 Descriptions of the Terms**

Sociological research on middleman minorities and, particularly on ethnic enclaves, have made clear that the economic prospects of immigrants do not hinge exclusively on their conditions of employment in host-country labor markets, but also on their chances for self-employment.

The lower socio-economic situation of ethnic groups, especially immigrants has led to a significant shift in the orientation of ethnic groups, namely towards self-employment. This movement is generally referred to as ethnic (or immigrant) entrepreneurship (see, e.g., Delft et al. 2000, Masurel et al. 2002, Waldinger et al. 1990)

Immigrant entrepreneurs have been found to do better economically than their waged co-ethnics and to maintain this advantage even after controlling for human capital characteristics (Portes and Zhou 1999; Logan, Alba, and McNulty 1994). The literature on ethnic enclaves has primarily focused on domestic conditions, that is of the immigrant communities themselves and on their relations with the host society. Although references have been made to connections with the home country for such groups as the Koreans (Light and Bonacich 1988), the main focus has remained the contextual and individual variables that allow enclave entrepreneurs to succeed in their local environment.

The concept of transnationalism opens a new dimension in the study of immigrant economic adaptation because it focuses explicitly on the significance of resilient cross-border ties. The concept may be regarded as an extension of the existing literature on entrepreneurship, but with a focus on international networks, rather than exclusively domestic ones. While past economic and sociological theories would lead us to focus exclusively on labor market outcomes or local small business as paths for mobility, the concept of transnationalism targets explicitly the cultivation

and development of activities spanning national borders. To the extent that such activities are successful, they may allow immigrants to fulfill their economic targets without undergoing a protracted process of acculturation; as expected in the past (Warner and Srole 1945; Jasso and Rozensweig 1990; Portes et. al. 2001).

Transnational entrepreneurship has potential significance for the course of immigrant economic adaptation to the receiving societies and for the development of sending nations.

	<i>Type of Activity</i>	<i>Location</i>	
		Domestic	Cross-border
Economic	Wage work; self-employment in local enclaves		<b>Transnational Enterprise</b>
Political	Local ethnic mobilizations; participation in host country electoral campaigns		Membership in home country political parties; participation in hometown civic committees and political campaigns
Socio-cultural	Local ethnic festivals; participation in host country associations and cultural events		Regular performances by home country artistic groups; participation in hometown cultural festivities and civic celebrations

**Figure 3. 2:** Types of activities in immigrant communities (Portes, 2001).

The figure above summarizes Economic, political and socio-cultural types of migrants activities. Transnationalism is measured by indicators as enterprises, membership in home country political parties and regular performances by home country artistic groups; participation in hometown cultural festivals and celebrations.

In recent years, a new concept, "trans-nationalism," has introduced an alternative analytic stance in international migration studies. Instead of focusing on traditional concerns about origins of immigrants and their adaptation to host societies, this perspective concentrates on the continuing relations between immigrants and their places of origin and how this "back-and-forth traffic" (Portes, Guarnizo and Haller

2002) builds complex social fields that straddle national borders. To understand these relations we will describe the terminologies that take part in this research.

### **3.1.1 Transnationalism**

Transnationalism has become a popular term of migration studies. An important body of migration research shows that first-generation immigrants recreate ties with their countries of origin, forming transnational social spaces. Some immigrants forge economic ties with the country of origin as a form of socioeconomic mobility (Portes, Hailer, and Guarnizo, 2002). Others create social and cultural ties that allow them to extend the boundaries of their communities of settlement and origin (Itzigsohn and Giorguli Saucedo, 2002; Levitt, 2001). Others participate in the political life of the country that they left behind even while living in a different country (Goldring, 2001; Levitt, 2001).

Transnationalism fundamentally concerns the movement of people across space. In this regard all the cross-national migrants are transnationalists.

One perspective is considering transnationalism as a structural and logical extension of global capitalism. Portes tied to the basis of capitalism and the transnational enterprise to the dynamics of capitalism (Portes *et al.*, 1999: 227–8, Llyod 2002)

### **3.1.2 Entrepreneurship**

Entrepreneurship was born in Manchester, by single men collectively suffering the indignities of peddling or working long hours together in factories, while also sharing lodgings and food. If there was trust, it derived from those new experiences of migration and the enduring social networks they generated (Werbner 1999).

Sociological research on middleman minorities and, particularly on ethnic enclaves, have made clear that the economic prospects of immigrants do not hinge exclusively on their conditions of employment in host-country labor markets, but also on their chances for self-employment. Immigrant entrepreneurs have been found to do better economically than their waged co-ethnics and to maintain this advantage even after controlling for human capital characteristics.

Entrepreneurs are people who tackle problems with new combinations of methods and resources in different geographical contexts. Entrepreneurship refers therefore to the ability of actors, whether individuals or firms, to create and capitalize on different

economic spaces. While some entrepreneurs work creatively within specific spatial contexts, others develop and (re)shape these contexts in which their entrepreneurial action takes place. The inherently spatial nature and significance of entrepreneurship matters in the theory of entrepreneurship (Wai & Yeung, 2009).

Entrepreneurship can be defined as “A practice or action strategy in which decisions are based on an individual’s responses to his/her context, given one’s habitus and capital resources, as determinants of one’s social position in the field of play” (DeClercq & Voronov, 2009).

Former studies argue that entrepreneurs are defined as “alert people” about potentially profitable resource combinations differently from others (McDougall et al. 1994). Researches have shown that this alertness to new business opportunities is influenced by previous experience because that experience provides a framework for processing information (Schluz et. al., 2009).

Entrepreneurs in this study is examined as immigrants who individually or judicially are alert and willing to act transnational economic activities due to their ethnic and cross-national networks and experiences.

While a host of studies examine the socio-economic and demographic factors related to immigrant entrepreneurship in developed countries, few studies have explicitly considered how majority-language fluency relates to self-employment in regions characterized by large numbers of fellow-ethnics. The conceptualization of this relationship can be viewed from both micro and macro perspectives. At a micro level, Evans (1989) suggests that immigrants have more entrepreneurial opportunities in areas with a large co-ethnic presence because they have the language and cultural tools to better communicate and effectively conduct business. While this view appeals to intuition, it does not account for the possibility of competitive differentials in such regions between immigrants who speak the majority language and those who do not. A logical extension to Evans’s argument is that immigrants proficient in the host country’s majority language would be able to tap into the product and factor markets of both the foreign-born and native-born populations; in this scenario, majority language fluency should increase the self-employment probabilities among the foreign-born.

These micro effects should also be tempered by macro considerations that might intensify or mitigate the micro explanations for an association between majority-language proficiency, immigrant entrepreneurship, and ethnic enclaves. For example, growing intolerance to linguistic pluralism at the national level might serve to push a larger share of immigrants lacking majority-language skills into self employment because of diminished employment opportunities. Likewise, the importance of a majority language in a particular region could increase if public policies reduce the information and services accessible in non-majority languages, such as decreasing the availability of multi-lingual printed materials (Da' vila, Me' ndez, and Mora 2003). Global integration, in contrast, might reward immigrant entrepreneurship in light of their intrinsic understanding of their home countries, which could, in some cases, minimize the importance of majority-language fluency among the foreign-born in a particular country.

This conceptualization thus raises questions on the certainty of the relationship between immigrant entrepreneurship and the characteristics of the local labour pool with respect to language. It goes beyond Evans's (1989) hypotheses in at least two ways. First, it addresses the potential (and possibly conflicting) role that majority language proficiency has in this relationship. Second, it posits that this relationship might be dynamic, changing with variations in macro-level forces, such as attitudes toward immigration and minority languages.

Such information is becoming increasingly important in light of the rise in international labour migration between linguistically diverse countries and the expanding role of entrepreneurship in global economies. As a prominent example, the European Union is currently poised to accept an increasingly diverse population with the easing of labour restrictions from the newer member states. Acknowledging that the economic development of the EU as a whole partly depends on entrepreneurial innovations, the Commission of the European Communities has recently launched policies to foster entrepreneurship, including the provision of various support measures to stimulate business creation and expansion among ethnic minorities and women – groups which ‘have been identified as having untapped business and job creation potential’ (Commission of the European Communities 2004). If immigrant entrepreneurship in EU member states depends on similar socio-economic and demographic factors as in the USA, the findings presented in this

study suggest that these policies could be co-ordinated with programmes designed to enhance majority-language proficiency to promote entrepreneurship among the foreign-born in regions with large concentrations of workers lacking fluency in the host country's language (Merie et. al. 2005.)

Socio-economic and demographic factors influencing immigrant entrepreneurship have also been investigated in other developed countries (see Hammarstedt (2001) for a review). These studies, however, have not fully addressed whether fluency in the host country's majority language affects the relationships between self-employment, the ethnic population size, and the linguistic isolation of the labour pool. Evidence is also scant on whether these relationships remain stable over time.

### **Turkish migrants and self-employment**

The migration of the Turkish people, in general, occurred with economic expectations and for seeking better conditions. The target countries of Turkish migration had been placed within Europe. The 3.5 million Turkish-speaking immigrants in Europe make up a quarter of all immigrants in Europe and form the single largest immigrant group in the European Union (EU).

While Bulgarian Turks are accepted as Turkish origin people, immigrant entrepreneurship studies about Turkish immigrants in other nationalities would guide understanding the general tendencies of the Turkish community.

The Turkish community in Europe is made up of a significantly younger population when compared to the EU population, and one which needs to work. According to the study of Panayiotopoulos, Turkish immigrants' self-employment began as an alternative employment path for many first-generation redundant guestworkers but it also became a significant response by second-generation youth, often assisted by parents who had in mind securing the future livelihoods of their children (2008)." Economic recession during the mid-1970s saw the dismantling of the guestworker system amidst high and persistent rates of unemployment in Europe. Under these circumstances, far from returning "home", many ex-guestworkers and their children sought alternatives in self-employment and became a significant force in retail, fast-food and garment production.

The overall proportion of Turks who are self-employed in the EU lies at 4.8%, which is significantly below the EU average of 12.3%. Nearly 70% of all Turkish enterprises in the EU are in Germany, of which four fifths are found in only three sectors:(i) retail; (ii) restaurant and takeaways; and (iii) the service sector (Compiled from Panayiotopoulos, 2008).

### **3.1.3 Transnational entrepreneurship**

Recent researches about transnational entrepreneurship focus on immigrants their economic activities and their ties. “Due to the emergence of transnationalism amongst immigrants, new concepts have emerged to explain how their identities, work, family and social relationships differ from those of non-transnational migrants. These types of immigrants are best understood as ‘transmigrants’ ” (Llyod & Michele, 2002)

Much of the early work in transnationalism described how transmigrants were able to organise simultaneous Daily lives across national borders by maintaining multiple links between two or more places (Rouse, 1991; Goldring, 1996). Etnographic research showed how transmigrants make regular phone calls, may make and send video journals, often regularly remit, keep up with and spread transnational gossip, participate in non-local family decision making, and may undergo sudden trips for a range of reasons such as poor health, marriage, divorce, to celebrate a festival and to oversee building work (Basch et al., 1994; Mountz and Wright, 1996). Some transmigrants were seen to be hypermobile, acting as couriers and international go-betweens for other less mobile members of community (Guarnizo, 1997)

Accordingly, transnational entrepreneurship is a multi-faceted process, in which immigrant entrepreneurs discover and enact business opportunities across national borders. By traveling both physically and virtually, TEs simultaneously engage in two or more socially embedded environments, allowing them to maintain critical global relations that enhance their ability to creatively, dynamically, and logically maximize their resource base. Thus TEs defined as social actors who enact networks, ideas, information, and practices for the purpose of seeking business opportunities or maintaining businesses within dual social fields, which in turn force them to engage in varied strategies of action to promote their entrepreneurial activities (Drori et. al., 2009). Researches have shown that a significant proportion of immigrant

entrepreneurs are transnational (Chen & Tan, 2008; Portes, Haller, & Gurainzo, 2002; Saxenian, Motoyama, & Quan, 2002).

Research on entrepreneurship makes clear distinctions between transnational entrepreneurs and terms such as immigrant entrepreneurs, ethnic entrepreneurs, enclave entrepreneurs, minority entrepreneurs, and international entrepreneurship (Aldrich & Waldinger, 1990; Drori et al., 2006; Portes et al., 2002). However we will focus on TEs as individuals engaging in transnationalism for business-related purposes (Portes et al., 1999) and these entrepreneurs are self-employed immigrants whose business activities require frequent travel abroad and who depend for the success of their firms on their contacts and associates in another country, primarily their country of origin (Portes, Guarnizo and Haller 2002). Thus, transnational entrepreneurship can be viewed as a process of economic adaptation based on mobilization of social networks across borders (Drori et al., 2006).

While studying the literature we met some specific fields of researches. They are generally examined U.S.A, China or Canada(Sequerra, Carr, Rasheed, 2009; Mora, Davila, 2005; Tan, 2008; Portes, Guarnizo, Haller, 2001; Llyod, 2002; Chrysostome & Lin, 2010; Llyod 2004) and presents a very limited sources for developing countries.

To uncover and explain the process of transnational entrepreneurship, recent research has focused on the descriptions of structures (Basch, Schiller, & Blanc, 1994; Faust, 1988; Rouse, 1992) and processes (Evans, 2000; Guarnizo, Sanchez, & Roach, 1999; Kastoryano & Transnational Communities Programme, 1998) involved in transnational entrepreneurial activities.

Merging the identifications of the term in the literature, with a common sentence: “transnational entrepreneurs are self employed immigrant entrepreneurs who conduct border crossing business activities”.

Most recently (see Patel & Conklin, 2009; Terjesen&Elam, 2009), a theoretical framework of the transnational phenomenon through Bourdieu’s theory of practice framework has been presented. This framework suggests that successful transnational entrepreneurship requires mobilization of social networks, and balancing the degree of dual embeddedness in two different institutional settings (Drori et al., 2006).

The TE activities became in the middle of the transnational studies after it realized that small scaled economies are rising economies of today, and they had discovered a new regional economy type especially governmental initiatives that based on human and social capital policies had supported the sector.

### **A Brief Introduction of the Literature**

The researchers of the previous studies focused on various study questions as following:

- Can activities of TE be classified? Do immigrant attitudes toward host country and degree of embeddedness in home country predict the specific type of transnational enterprise an immigrant is likely to begin? Do TEs attribute primary success attributed to personal characteristics, social support, or quality of products and services? (Sequeira et al).
- How do TEs mobilize social networks in dual environments to enhance transnational entrepreneurial activities? To what extent are TEs able to focus in two social fields (bifocality)? (Petel and Conklin.)
- What are the implications of TE for insights on the structure, composition, and impact of glocalized networks with both local and global connection? (Chen and Tan).
- How do entrepreneurs working across multiple countries leverage individual experiences and institutional environments to pursue international markets? (Terjesen and Elam).
- Why do venture capitalists seek to relocate investee companies in countries with stronger legal protections and economic conditions? Why do venture capitalists invest in companies already located overseas? (Cumming et. al.).
- How glocalized networks of intensive local embeddedness and far-flung global connections facilitate transnational entrepreneurship? (Tan).
- How transnational immigrant entrepreneurs in a specific field have internationalized their businesses and the role of transnational family networks in this process? (Mustafa and Chen).
- What are the practises of Chinese entrepreneur immigrants in Vancouver? (in the case of small business entrepreneurship) (Llyod)

- What is the nature of the recent Taiwanese migration to Canada and what is the nature and extent of their transnationalism? Are these practices similar to Taiwanese immigrants to Australia and the United States? (Llyod).
- Does the contemporary immigration experience of newcomers to the host country provide the essential seeds for transnational migrant entrepreneurship and a novel avenue for escaping low-status wage-work? Does an immigrant's access to in-group 'social capital' form the primary foundation for this new economic opportunity? (Kyle).
- What are the TE types and scopes of Colombian, Dominican, and Salvadoran immigrants? (Portes et. al.)
- Does immigrant transnational entre-preneurship exist and is it empirically distinct from more traditional forms of immi-grant economic adaptation? If so, how common is it among contemporary immi-grant groups and what are its main manifes-tations? What are the major factors asso-ciated with its emergence? (Portes et. al.)
- Why, how, and when individuals and/or organizations pursue new business ventures, often in far less attractive environments, while relying on abilities and opportunities stemming from the exploitation of resources, both social and economic, in more than one country? (Drori et. al.)
- What is transnational entrepreneurship and its implication from economic-geographical research perspective? (Wai and Yeung).

Table 3.1 demonstretates published samples from the transnational entrepreneurship literature.

**Table 3. 1:** Literature overview

RESEARCHERS	PUBLICATION	SAMPLE
<b>Tan</b>	<i>Department of Sociology, Duke University</i>	67 in-depth interviews
<b>Mustafa and Chen (2010)</b>	<i>Thunderbird International Business Review</i>	5 in-depth qualitative studies of immigrant enterprises.
<b>Llyod (2002)</b>	<i>International Journal of Urban and Regional Research</i>	In-depth interviews with 64 entrepreneurs
<b>Llyod (2004)</b>	<i>Department of Sociology, University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada</i>	27 in-depth interviews
<b>Kyle (1999)</b>	<i>Ethnic and Racial Studies Volume</i>	In-depth interview in the study field.
<b>Portes et.al (2002 2007)</b>	<i>American Sociological Review</i>	Statistical data from the (CIEP), 1202 adults.
<b>Drori et al (2009)</b>	<i>Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice</i>	Theoretical study
<b>Wai and Yeung (2009)</b>	<i>Progress in Human Geography</i>	A theoretical study that reviews the further studies and theories.
<b>Sequeira et al (2009)</b>	<i>ET&amp;P</i>	1,202 transnational business owners from the CIEP
<b>Petel and Conklin (2009)</b>	<i>ET&amp;P</i>	Survey of 452 U.S. Latin American TEs from CIEP
<b>Chen and Tan (2009)</b>	<i>ET&amp;P</i>	theory paper
<b>Terjesen and Elam (2009)</b>	<i>ET&amp;P</i>	4 case studies; interviews, press and media
<b>Cumming et al (2009)</b>	<i>ET&amp;P</i>	468 private companies

Although the modes of TE vary across cases, common denominators include entrepreneurial orientation, innovation, communication, and execution.

Transnational entrepreneurs play a key role in facilitating the recombination of ideas to generate innovations in their industries and their communities. The innovations

were then made comprehensible and accessible across multiple countries. Furthermore, transnational entrepreneurs play an under-examined role in connecting others to entrepreneurial opportunities (Terjesan & Elam, 2009).

By their nature, diverse studies provide a rigorous in-depth attention to issues associated with their respective disciplines. For example, sociologists view TE in terms of the immigrants' integration and economic adaptation (Light & Gold, 2000; Morawska, 2005; Portes & Jensen, 1989), or in terms of social structure and network relations of immigrant communities (Light & Gold). Also demographic and social characteristics of TE, as their growth rate, impact on particular industries, and integration into mainstream institutional frameworks (Light & Bonacich, 1988), and the propensity to become a transnational entrepreneur are studied (Portes, 1995). Economic geographers and regional planners view the role of TE as influencing the creation of business opportunities, as well as its impact on the transfer of knowledge, technology, and knowhow, and as a catalyst for the evolution of global production networks (Saxenian, 2002; Saxenian & Hsu, 2001).

Socio-economic and demographic factors influencing immigrant entrepreneurship have also been investigated in many researches. These studies, however, have not fully addressed whether language affects the relationships between self-employment, the ethnic population size, and the linguistic isolation of the labour pool. Evidence is also scant on whether these relationships remain stable over time (Mora & Dávila, 2005).

In this case language fluency is a particular variable where Turkish originated Bulgarian immigrants are able to speak Turkish language and socio-economic isolation is expected to be relatively rare.

### **3.2 Motivating Factors for Transnational Entrepreneurship**

There is a kind of repetitive litany running through the ethnic entre-preneurship literature in line with the Weberian question. Why are some ethnic groups (Jews, Japanese, Koreans) so successful in accumulating wealth while others (such as blacks) have failed? An international version of this question, one which itself failed to anticipate the Pacific Rim economic melt-down or US boom of the late '90s, reflected on why America was failing as an economic power (Harrison, 1992)?

Whereas the failure of blacks in the ghetto was attributed by Garrison to the perpetual legacy of slavery, and the success of Asians and Jews to their upholding of Jewish and Confucian versions of the Protestant ethic - the failure of America, once the land of the Puritans, was attributed to corrupting influence of television (Harrison, 1992).

Some British researchers too have agonised as to why Indians appear to be more successful than Pakistanis or Afro-Caribbeans? Sometimes the question is put in religious terms - why are Hindus more successful than Muslims? Such invidious questions, however well intentioned, leave us to ponder what might be the intrinsic nature of Pakistanihood, or blackness, or Muslimness, which leads to failure. In Perlmann's words, as cultures are ranked, there is a 'blurring [of] the distinction between values conducive to upward mobility and "better" values' (Werbner, 1999).

We need to remember, however, that the people seeking cultural reasons for what they define as 'ethnic' failure are not consciously racists. They are genuinely puzzled by the apparent success of some ethnic groups. If Chinese or Japanese or Jews succeed everywhere, they reason, there must be some cultural causal explanation for this global phenomenon.

Black people have historically allowed their cultural talent, creativity and originality to be appropriated and commodified by others. For many years they were prevented by the exclusionary forces of racism from taking command of their intellectual property. Jazz, the Blues, Soul, Spirituals -where would America' (and the world) be without them? Perhaps no single ethnic group has contributed more of value, directly and indirectly, to global popular culture, to music and sports, than have black African Americans and Afro-Caribbeans.

Werbner defined success as the competitive achievement of prestige or honour, and of the symbolic goods signalling these, within a specific regime of value. Success may be collective or individual, but even individual success depends on a context of sociality which elicits, facilitates and finally recognises success as success.

In Bulgaria and Turkey cases, currently both nations agreed on the peace and geographic factor is increasing the interaction between two countries. The concept of transnationalizing entrepreneurship allows us to empower entrepreneurs as economic actors actively mobilizing spatially diverse resources and networks in search of new

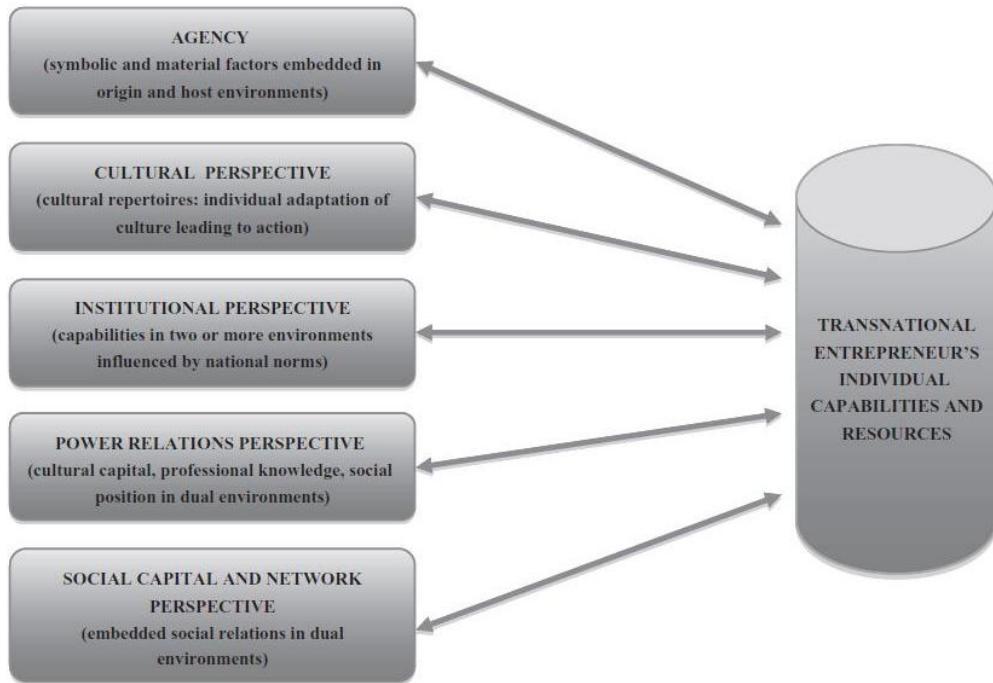
business initiatives and opportunities between two or more nations. By focusing on the process of the emergence of entrepreneurial networks in transnationalizing spaces, the concept moves well beyond an international view of entrepreneurial activity commonly found in the concept ‘international entrepreneurship’ (Wai & Yeung, 2009). Tan’s research (2008) demonstrates the potential of glocalized networks for understanding economic action across national borders.

Transnational entrepreneurs survive and thrive in a unique transnational social field that consists of institutional, social, and cultural contexts in both the host and home country. Transnational entrepreneurship is affected by macro-level factors: globalization, immigration policies in the host country, and the socioeconomic development in the home country (Aldrich & Zimmer, 1986). As we mentioned before an important indicator had emphasized by Evan is language; in accordance to that ‘majority language fluency should increase the self-employment probabilities among the foreign-born’.

Aldrich & Zimmer approach transnational entrepreneurship through a network lens. Social networks have been one major theme in the entrepreneurship literature. The motivating factor of social networks, family ties or kinship is the greatest initiative of entrepreneurship.

As Drori et. al. mentioned; TEs’ embeddedness in both home and origin societies denotes social behavior which considers prospective action in two different institutional environments. “Such engagement entails an interplay of habits, imagination, and judgment (Emirbayer & Mische, 1998)”, as well as the ability to apply resources which create, reproduce, and transform social structures enhancing the unique social reality associated with TE (Drori et. al., 2009).

Although the modes of transnational entrepreneurship vary across cases, common denominators include entrepreneurial orientation, innovation, communication, and execution. Transnational entrepreneurs in these cases all played a key role in facilitating the recombination of ideas to generate innovations in their industries and their communities. The innovations were then made comprehensible and accessible across multiple countries. Furthermore, transnational entrepreneurs play an under-examined role in connecting others to entrepreneurial opportunities (Terjesan & Elam, 2009).



**Figure 3. 3:** Factors influencing TE and their outcomes (Honig et. al., 2009).

The figure we cited above presents TE's capabilities and resources to maintain their transnational businesses,

- TEs act on multiple levels, (at least) two social contexts. This requires a consideration and background of the different institutional environments which Honig et. al. defined as agency perspective in their research. “It is not a pre-existing set of behavioral values that provide a certain propensity toward a certain line of action, but actors’ behaviors shaped by location and the use of a repertoire, or “tool kit.” The repertoire consists of habits, skills, and styles which guide the actors’ strategic action”.
- Cultural features of entrepreneurs are effecting their actions and their social contexts, according to Honig et. al., cultural repertoires of entrepreneurial actions are not necessarily tied to, or restricted by, cultures and it depends on the choices and skills of individuals (2009).
- From institutional perspective TE must be able to manage entrepreneurial actions among different markets and governments. By taking the institutional perspective into account, will help to understand the logic and actions, practices, and rules of the game that govern and coordinate organizational and human activities in certain national context

- The dimension of power relations and the political context shape both the choice and the meaning attached to a particular form of transnational entreprise. Moreover, actors' choice of strategy is both shaped by and shapes the political context. By choosing a particular form of TE, actors define social relationships and demarcate social boundaries.
- Recent studies are focusing on the role of social capital and networks in transnational entrepreneurship. Immigrants come from the same origins prefer common dwelling locations where the social networks and social capital lower the difficulties of the new environment and enhances economic opportunities by leveraging resources toward the establishment of migrant friendly businesses (Honig et. al., 2009).

All of before mentioned factors and Honig et al.'s perspectives are pointing out Tes motivation and adaptation strategies for their risk-taking-actions among different environments.

In general, the further research on the specific issue demonstrated that the transnational familial ties and the local networks to suppliers and manufacturers that they maintained influenced the choice of entry mode (Mustafa and Chen 2010). In addition to that host-country and home-country interactions may also offer opportunities to enhance an immigrant entrepreneur's competitive position if he or she is able to conduct transnational (Chrysostome and Lin, 2010) with his/her habits, skills, organization capacities and linguistic features to forming the scope of their enterprise.

### **3.3 Typologies of Transnational Entrepreneurship**

Li, in his research, categorizes four different types of ethnic enterprises (for China case):

- 1) The traditional type of family-operated and individual-owned immigrant businesses mainly in personal services such as food services and retailing;
- 2) professional firms owned and operated by immigrant professionals in such fields as medicine, law, and accounting that emerged after World War II and proliferated in more recent decades;

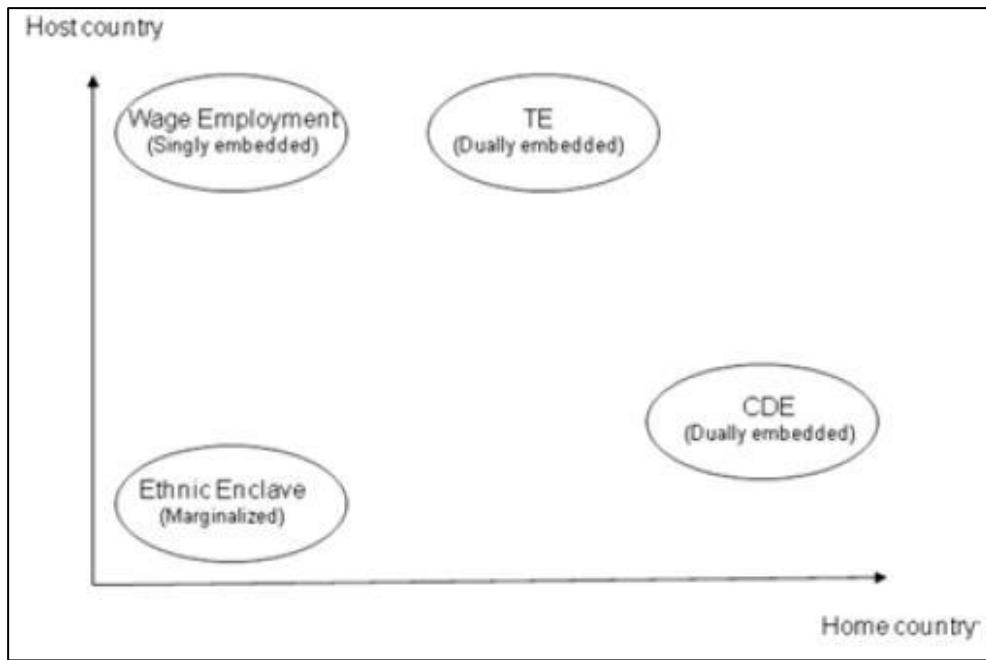
- 3) firms in host citizen owned or controlled through foreign investments by corporations with headquarters in home country and sometimes subsidiaries in the host country; and
- 4) capital-intensive investments of recent business immigrants that result mainly from host country's business immigration program (Llyod , 2002).

Li's classification is determining the enterprise's roots and scope by the ownership status and contents of the immigrant entrepreneurship action.

There are several types of transnational entrepreneurship activities. For example the necessity immigrant entrepreneur cannot afford the failure of his or her business because there is no other choice. The failure of his or her business means the failure of the dreams of the immigration project. This is why, in general, immigrant entrepreneurs work very hard and use all the possible resources accessible to them to keep their business on track. (Elie Chrysostome, 2010) Necessity entrepreneurship and Li's classifications are inspiring the transnational entrepreneurship studies which home and host country based enterprises are critically forming the conceptual approaches to the issue . In this context, the most important indicator differing TE from other ethnic enterprises are ongoing ties with home country.

Similar to Chrtostome and Li, Lin studied immigrant entrepreneurship by focusing on highly skilled labour force, who are named “contemporary diasporic entrepreneurs”, that refer to the creation of business ventures by returned diaspora members (2010).

Lin figured the relations of immigrant entrepreneurs with home and host countries by defining the immigrant economic activities according to the embeddedness. In this regard, wage workers are those working regularly in host country and singly embedded whose economic ties with home country are low. Ethnic enclave employ a significant proportion of coethnic labor force, rely on coethnic suppliers, and maintain a geographic presence in a coethnic neighborhood and probably sustains cultural and ethnic traditions in a more closed environment within the host country. TEs (as defined before) are immigrants simultaneously engage in two or more socially embedded environments and maximize their resource base by these environments. According to Lin, CDEs and TEs are transnationalised immigrant entrepreneurs who highly pertain to both home and host environments.



**Figure 3.4:** Embeddedness in TE (Lin, 2010).

In further researches on immigrant entrepreneurship are classified according to their typologies, Chrysostome classified the issue as “opportunity immigrant entrepreneurship” namely, traditional opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs, diaspora entrepreneurs, transnational immigrant entrepreneurs, and global immigrant entrepreneurs. By using the term of opportunity immigrant entrepreneurs, he addressed immigrants who freely decide to start a business in order to take advantage of a business opportunity (Elie Chrysostome, 2010)

Additionally in their study of the large Salvadoran immigrant populations of Los Angeles and Washington DC, Landolt and her associates discovered a “vibrant entrepreneurial community embedded in a web of social relations” (Landolt et. al. 1999). The study identified four types of transnational enterprises (circuit, cultural, ethnic and returnee).

Followingly Sequeira, Carr and Rasheed, 2009, determined whether particular activities engaged in by transnational entrepreneurs can be accurately classified as activities of a circuit, cultural, or ethnic enterprise by developing Landolt et. al's classification.

Often, individual couriers travel extensively between countries importing goods to family-run businesses or large stores, and transporting money, letters, packages, and products to households and businesses in both countries. The circuit enterprise can

vary in terms of size and scope. Businesses of this type can range from the microenterprise which consists of one or a few individual(s) to large, formal businesses which provide courier types of services. Examples of other businesses that could be classified as circuit enterprises are those businesses involved in technology-related manufacturing (i.e., computer hardware/software, audio/visual equipment, electronic components), medicinal products, trade and finance, housing design, and immigration services (see Wong & Ng, 2002).

These multiple sites and spatiality of transnational business circuits some entrepreneurs are required to be mobile. This mobility requires that they be involved in transmigration travelling back and forth between two (or more) countries where these trips would often be a combination of business and vacation while visiting with family members (Llyod, 2004).

Cultural enterprises fill the role of promoting national identity and by interacting daily with the home country for their products or services. Businesses that produce or distribute newspapers, radio and television programming as well as ventures that distribute or produce home country beverages and food, are some examples of firms that are cultural enterprises.

Ethnic enterprises are small ventures located in immigrant neighborhoods that employ co-ethnics, or others of the same nationality, race, or culture as the business's owner, and cater to an ethnic clientele.

Return migrant enterprises are ventures based in the home country that have been started by individuals who have lived abroad and returned to their home country (termed returnee entrepreneurs).

Finally, elite expansion enterprises are those ventures that are established home country businesses that view the immigrant market abroad as an extension of their existing market (Sequeira, Carr and Rasheed, 2009).

Figure 3.5 summarizes five types of TE by including the service fields of entrepreneurships.

Type of enterprise	Start-up capital	Labor	Maintenance and expansion inputs	Consumption
Circuit (host and home country) (e.g., firms engaged in courier services; technology-related manufacturing; immigration-related services)	Transnational	Transnational	Transnational	Host and home country
Cultural (host country) (e.g., firms engaged in newspaper production, television/radio programming; organizing home country artist performances)	Host country	Host country	Transnational maintenance and host country expansion inputs	Host country
Ethnic (host country) (e.g., firms engaged in small retail outlets; convenience stores; small restaurants; small service-oriented businesses)	Host country	Host country	Host country maintenance and transnational expansion inputs	Host country
Return migrant (e.g., firms engaged in host country themed restaurants—pizza, chicken; automobile sales)	Transnational	Home country	Transnational	Home country
Elite expansion (e.g., firms engaged in home country-based beverage production for distribution in host country; fast food firm headquartered in home country with branches in host country)	Transnational	Transnational	Transnational	Host country

**Figure 3. 5:** Typology of TE (Sequeira, Carr and Rasheed, 2009).

Circuit enterprises are those acting technology-related manufacturing; immigration-related services or firms that engaged in courier services in both home and host countries. Cultural enterprises are firms engaged in media or organizing home country artist performances in host country. Ethnic enterprises are small firms engaged in retail outlets; convenience stores, ethnic based restaurants or small service-oriented businesses in host country. Reverse of ethnic enterprises, return migrant enterprises are those firms engaged in host country themed restaurants (pizza, chicken) or automobile sales...etc. in home country after the returning period. Elite expansion enterprises are including firms engaged in home country-based beverage production for distribution in host country; for example fast food; that firm headquartered in home country with branches in host country.

Immigrant societies of a Nicaraguan case examined according to the types of immigrant activities as presented in the table below summarizes the immigrants' participation to the different activities by location and inclusion.

## **4. IMMIGRATION FROM BULGARIA TO TURKEY**

### **4.1 History of Immigration from Bulgaria to Turkey**

Ottoman sovereignty in Bulgaria started in 1394, ended in 1878 when the Russians invaded Bulgaria after the Ottoman-Russian War (1877-1878). Afterwards, The Turks were gradually forced to leave the region. These events continued until the Balkan War. During and after the Second World War the pressure on Turks to leave the region again continued.

Following the assemble of Turkish Republic, a significant immigration waves occurred in Anatolia which moved from Bulgaria. These movements continued until 1989's with 4 periods of exact great migrations (Köy Hizm.Env.s.138).

With the migration between the years of 1925 - 1949 that 56.906 families consisting of 218.998 people moved to Turkey (DPT, s.6). Followingly the migration between the years of 1950 - 1952 37.851 families consisting of 154.393 people migrated to Turkey (DPT, s.6). As well as the 1968 – 1979 period which 32.356 families migrated including 116.521 of population (Köy Hizm.Env.s.138; Doğanay, 97).

The latest period of immigration from Bulgaria initiated with the forced political reasons that approximately 350 000 (or, according to Nurcan Özgür 250 000) Turks of Bulgarian citizenship entered Turkey as a result of deportation under President Todor Jivkov and Jivkov's policy of changing Turkish names to Bulgarian ones in 1989. 100 000 of Bulgarian Turks had returned home, but the rest are still living and working in Turkey, mainly in Bursa and Istanbul (Narlı, 2003). Intervally 27.224 families consisting of 73.957 person migrated to Turkey from Bulgaria until 1995.

Differing from the other groups of immigrants, the biggest strength of Bulgarian Turks to easily survive in a “new country” was that they could speak Turkish and they had similar cultural background with native people (Baycan, 2007).

There are many studies on the direction and type of the migration from and to Turkey. Former studies on international migration were focusing on the labor

migration, economic, social and psychological effects of the migrants (Abadan, 1964; Tuna and Ekin, 1966; Gökdere, 1978; Gitmez, 1979, Tunalı, 1988).

The studies after 1990's are mainly about the size and changing characteristics of the Turkish migrants in European countries (Martin, 1991; Çiçekli, 1998; Şen and Koray, 1993), the problems in Turkey with relation to international migration like transit migration and asylum seeking (Kirişçi, 2003, 2004; Erder, 2004; Timur, 2004, Peker, 2004; İçduygu, 2000, Mannaert, 2003), and Turkey and European Union relations on the topic of migration (Erzan et. al. 2004; İçduygu, 2004; Toksöz, 2004). Recent studies commonly discuss the changing role of Turkey in international migration agenda; form a sending country to both receiving and transit country. However, with the lack of reliable information on the number of migrants these studies considered limited (\*Compiled from Coşkun, 2005, Migration In Turkey).

Currently dual citizenship debates holds a prominent place. Traditionally, nation-states have frowned upon dual citizenship since it undermines the single and exclusive link between an individual and a sovereign nation-state. Reservations include split loyalties, dual military service, double taxation and conflicting diplomatic protection (Hammar, 1985). Students of transnationalism claim that the multiple belongings inherent in the contemporary world demand dual citizenship. Migrants', and, increasingly, countries', desire for multiple citizenship creates new 'deterritorialized' nation-states (Basch, Glick Schiller and Szanton Blanc, 1994). For scholars of postnationalism, the critique goes further: over the long-term, citizenship will cease to be relevant as rights increasingly are invested in the person, not in a legal relationship between individuals and the state. Dual citizenship can, at best, be an interim trend. (Bloemraad, 2004)

\*For scholars of transnationalism, dual citizenship recognizes that immigrants' lives transcend borders. Transnational researchers conceptualize a deterritorialized nation-state where "immigrants forge and sustain multi-stranded social relations that link together their societies of origin and settlement" and "in which the nation's people may live anywhere in the world and still not live outside the state" (Bloemraad, 2004).

**Table 4. 1:** Migrations from Bulgaria to Turkey

<b>Years</b>	<b>Number of Immigrants</b>
<b>1878-1892</b>	279,397
<b>1893-1902</b>	70,603
<b>1912-1920</b>	413,922
<b>1921-1922</b>	21,172
<b>1923-1939</b>	198,688
<b>1940-1949</b>	21,353
<b>1950-1951</b>	154,393
<b>1952-1968</b>	24
<b>1969-1978</b>	113,393
<b>1979-1988</b>	20
<b>1989</b>	313,894
<b>1990-1997</b>	209,500
<b>Total</b>	1,796,359

**Source:** B. Simsir B., (1985):51-55, D. Vasileva (1992):346., J. McCarthy (1999):175-177 (Çetin, 2008).

**Table 4. 2:** Settlements where Turks are densely located within Bulgaria

<b>Settlements</b>	<b>Turkish Population (%)</b>
Kırcaali	95.7
Kosukavak	94.0
Eğridere	98.3
Mestanlı	98.7
Dövlen	92.9
Darıdere	35.1
Pasmaklı	54.1
Nevrokop	43.0

**Source:** B. N. Simsir (1990):161, R.J. Crampton (2002):72.

As of 2006, the population of Bulgaria is 7,741,000 and an approximate 23% of this is composed of Turks. Projections for future reflect that this population is expected to be go down to 6,565,000 in 2025 and 5,075,000 in 2050 (Population Reference Bureau, 2006. www.prb.org).

Actually, there were certain positive outcomes of the 1989 migration on Turkish economy. Thanks to the migration, Turkey acquired a trained body of labor force and educated brain teams. The contribution of this educated labor force in the

consecutive agricultural and industrial development of the Marmara region-but most notably of Bursa and Istanbul provinces- could not be ignored (Yusuf, S., 2005).

## 4.2 Profile of the Immigrants

After 1989, Bulgaria takes the first rank of the immigrant list. Entrepreneurship was slowly increased but nearly all of the immigrants from Bulgaria worked as paid employees in Turkey in these terms. The tables below present the condition of foreign-born immigrants in Turkey.

**Table 4. 3:** Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 1985 (TUIK 1985 Cencus)

	Population Rank	Population	Working Population Rank	Working Population Rate	Paid Employment Rank	Paid Employed Rate	Entrepreneurship Rank	Entrepreneurship Rate
Afghanistan	16	2036	16	36,49	27	29,96	12	36,88
USA	7	6612	6	52,40	2	89,29	27	9,44
Albania	26		317	21	32,49	12	58,25	16
Australia	14		2959	25	28,86	21	43,91	11
Austria	6		7836	15	39,22	24	36,71	6
West Germany	1		288323	23	30,63	26	32,94	2
Belgium	10		4442	26	27,24	19	45,95	19
Bulgaria	20		954	12	41,72	3	80,40	26
Denmark	21		927	9	45,31	22	37,62	14
East Germany	27		220	17	36,82	11	61,73	17
France	5		9348	13	41,52	23	37,03	5
The Netherlands	2		14818	22	30,85	25	34,54	10
Iraq	13		2971	1	70,45	13	54,85	8
England	11		3183	4	56,77	7	72,05	20
Iran	8		5879	28	24,61	14	51,62	3
Israel	25		377	11	42,97	9	67,28	18
Switzerland	9		5403	20	33,46	18	47,73	7
Italy	18		1083	5	55,96	5	79,87	24
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus	3		11190	3	63,24	8	68,43	22
Lebanon	22		814	18	36,12	16	50,00	15
Egypt	28		212	7	50,47	1	89,72	28
Pakistan	17		1688	14	39,45	28	19,22	4
Romania	24		468	10	45,30	4	80,19	25
Russia	23		470	8	48,94	10	66,96	23
Syria	19		962	24	29,31	15	51,06	13
Saudi Arabia	4		9416	2	69,81	20	45,60	1
Yugoslavia	15		2200	19	34,27	6	74,54	21
Greece	12		3179	27	27,05	17	47,91	9

**Table 4. 4:** Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 1990 (TUIK 1990 Cencus)

	Population Rank	Population	Working Population Rank	Working Population Rate	Paid Employment Rank	Paid Employed Rate	Entrepreneurship Rank	Entrepreneurship Rate
Afghanistan	18	1417	11	44,04	22	34,46	5	34,94
USA	8	6944	7	54,22	2	87,01	22	11,08
Australia	16	2707	23	26,41	14	57,48	12	27,41
Austria	11	4064	14	38,71	18	48,82	7	33,82
West Germany	2	82654	20	30,73	17	48,90	10	32,76
Belgium	10	5522	19	31,06	15	55,28	14	23,38
Bulgaria	1	167089	10	50,28	1	92,49	23	4,44
East Germany	23	240	17	34,58	9	66,27	13	26,51
France	7	9588	12	40,37	19	45,91	6	34,56
The Netherlands	6	10052	22	27,33	21	41,06	9	33,35
Iraq	5	12058	3	60,21	23	21,64	4	35,51
England	14	3208	5	55,95	5	75,93	16	20,50
Iran	13	3397	18	34,27	13	57,82	8	33,76
Switzerland	9	6090	16	35,86	20	44,83	1	41,71
Italy	17	1460	4	58,90	4	76,05	15	20,81
Japan	19	1161	8	52,89	10	59,12	19	17,26
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus	4	12327	2	60,52	8	74,54	20	16,82
Egypt	22	310	6	54,52	3	76,33	21	15,98
Russia	21	627	9	51,67	7	75,00	17	19,75
Syria	20	1001	15	37,96	11	58,42	11	30,53
Saudi Arabia	3	25786	1	75,65	12	57,99	3	37,10
Yugoslavia	15	3080	13	38,80	6	75,31	18	19,58
Greece	12	3768	21	29,70	16	51,92	2	37,53

Throughout 1985 the Bulgaria originated immigrant population in Turkey was not in high ranks, however after 1990s (after the great migration wave in 1989), these ratios changed. Bulgaria took the first rank on the table. Yet Bulgaria originated immigrants' entrepreneurship was significantly low.

**Table 4. 5:** Working positions of immigrants in Turkey, 2000 (TUIK 2000 Cencus)

	Population Rank	Total Population	Working Population Rank	Working Population Rate	Paid Employment Rank	Paid Employed Rate	Entrepreneurship Rank	Entrepreneurship Rate
USA	8	7561	3	59,35	9	83,25	28	13,69
Afghanistan	22	1775	26	42,55	30	70,81	35	9,81
Germany	1	73736	35	37,90	48	35,54	5	33,54
Albania	23	1481	34	37,95	3	55,02	48	2,85
Australia	25	1369	39	33,53	37	63,83	15	21,79
Austria	11	5557	22	44,25	46	40,95	4	39,50
Azerbaijan	4	3127	19	46,28	23	77,23	45	4,62
Bangladesh	46	227	9	55,07	1	59,20	50	0,80
Belgium	16	2740	30	39,16	42	56,10	16	21,34
Bosnia Herzegovina	48	213	20	45,54	15	80,41	36	10,31
Bulgaria	2	27470	5	59,16	5	85,75	44	4,83
Chechenistan	41	388	48	19,07	31	70,27	35	10,81
China	42	378	17	47,88	14	80,66	27	13,81
Denmark	30	1107	33	38,03	60	81,59	8	28,50
Phalestine	50	207	50	7,25	7	86,67	29	13,33
France	7	7746	24	43,92	44	47,15	11	28,87
Georgia	20	1979	21	44,97	34	69,11	21	16,29
India	49	210	12	53,33	2	56,43	49	2,68
The Netherlands	6	8013	29	40,70	45	83,64	6	31,38
Iraq	14	4617	42	31,17	22	77,83	34	11,54
England	10	5708	11	59,52	21	78,06	23	14,83
Iran	13	8138	46	22,54	33	69,00	17	20,12
Spain	44	291	10	54,30	6	85,24	41	8,86
Israel	33	895	1	65,81	38	61,37	7	28,98
Sweden	32	984	43	30,69	40	57,62	12	24,17
Switzerland	12	8370	40	31,68	47	87,80	1	38,10
Itaky	28	1162	13	53,01	20	78,87	24	14,61
Japan	34	865	14	52,02	25	77,11	20	16,44
Canada	36	701	15	51,93	24	77,20	22	15,38
Kazakhstan	15	4153	23	43,99	17	80,13	37	9,91
Kyrgyzstan	26	1334	32	38,76	13	81,43	43	7,74
Kuveyt	45	275	9	55,27	41	56,58	2	38,88
Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus	3	13844	16	50,75	16	80,22	33	11,64
Libyan	27	1235	4	58,27	36	64,13	10	27,19
Lebanon	43	352	44	30,40	39	61,68	13	22,43
Republic of Macedonia	29	1154	36	35,27	8	83,29	42	9,11
Egypt	39	445	7	56,85	18	79,84	31	12,25
Moldova	35	721	31	39,11	10	82,27	46	4,26
Norway	37	678	47	20,80	45	43,37	9	27,66
Uzbekistan	18	2104	18	47,29	11	82,21	38	9,85
Pakistan	38	652	27	42,21	27	75,54	30	13,30
Romania	17	2730	25	42,78	29	71,83	26	14,04
Russia	5	8626	6	57,73	26	76,61	19	16,59
Saudi Arabia	9	6334	2	59,13	43	53,16	3	36,28
Tajikistan	47	216	45	28,24	4	31,80	47	3,28
Turkmenistan	24	1477	37	35,00	19	79,11	25	14,51
Ukraine	21	1800	28	40,94	12	81,68	40	9,09
Jordan	40	390	38	33,59	35	67,94	14	22,14
Republic of Yugoslavia	31	1090	41	31,56	28	73,55	32	12,21
Greece	19	2011	49	14,82	32	69,80	18	13,80

When we came to 2000s the Bulgaria origined Immigrants are also have high ranks, but Turk immigrants turning from Germany and the German immigrants totally takes the first rank. The entrepreneurship of Bulgaria coming immigrants never get high degrees in Turkey.

Immigrant workers from Bulgaria have notable aspects from the other migrant groups: half of the workers is male and the other half is female. However, looking at deeply, it can be observed that most of them are unpaid family workers. Paid workers are working in non agricultural production and service sector. Their education level is high school and age group is 25-35. Bulgarian Turks are at least high school graduated and in line with the 2000 census, about 10% had university degree. Another important point is that the education level does not differentiate according to gender (TUIK, 2000- Baycan, 2007).

With the migration flow from Bulgaria, the manufacturing industry of Istanbul and Bursa received new workers in 1990s. Immigrants employed in the other sectors were increased as well and in 2000 both immigrant population and workers decreased. Self employment rates among immigrants have been getting lower since 1985. Only in agricultural activities, self employed immigrants have a higher share. Economically active immigrants who migrated from Bulgaria are paid workers in non-agricultural production and services sectors. Bulgarian Turks are at least high school graduated and according to the Population Census in 2000, about 10% had university degree. Distinctively from the other groups of immigrants, the biggest strength of Bulgarian Turks is their language ability as they speak Turkish and their similar cultural background with Turkish native people to easily adapt themselves in a “new country”. (TUIK, 2000; Baycan, 2007).

With the migration flow from Bulgaria, the manufacturing industry of Istanbul and Bursa received new workers in 1990s and these sectors developed rapidly.

Self employment rates among BT immigrants have decreased since 1985 and they have become employed as wage workers. Self employed immigrants display a relatively higher share only in agricultural activities.

In Bulgaria the mentioned ethnic group, Bulgarian Turks, is employed in manufacturing industries and in agriculture. They are not qualified in services or administrative sector. They live as compact groups in the east regions of the country.

According to the 1992 census data of Bulgaria, the number of Turks was nearly 10% of national population.

About 94% of them are concentrated in 4 districts - Haskovo, Razgrad, Varna and Bourgas; whereas in Kurjali and Razgrad they constitute the majority of the population.

In the regions with mixed population the Bulgarians are concentrated primarily in the towns, and Bulgarian Turks - in the rural areas (Ilona Tomova, The World Bank, 1998).

In this regard we will examine the social, educational and economic characteristics of Bulgarian Turk immigrants.

#### **4.2.1 Social dimension**

Bulgarian Turks have socially specific characteristics as Turks in Bulgaria and as Bulgarians in Turkey; however adaptations of these immigrant did not take long time in regard of their mother language and their religions in Turkey.

Educational features of immigrants help us understanding the general framework of social adaptation and economic statuses of Bulgarian Turks.

1990 data collection demonstrates that 147.267 of 163858 immigrants (90%) are literate and of those 28.444 are primary school graduates, 45.242 are secondary, 44308 high school and, of 6128 having degrees in a post highschool/university education.

According to 2000 data, it is understood that the population moved from Bulgaria to Turkey increased to 27.470 people. 3.116 primary school graduates, 7.409 secondary school, 9.661 from high school and 1.514 of them are graduates from university.

#### **4.2.2 Economic dimension**

Another considerable effect of migration occurred on the economy, as ethic and human rights focused research topic, it also has economic dimensions. As a minority group on the whole Bulgarian Turks were not generally employed in educational, militarial or service sectors. However within the specific terms, when Bulgarian Turks had governmantal tasks, the social life of Bulgarian Turks differentiated and Turkish companies' investments, or lack of, had a considerable impact on the unemployment of Bulgarian Turks.

The Bulgarian Turk labor force within Turkey gives an idea about the economic profile of the immigrants; this employed group is generally within the age group of 25-40 and they are graduated from high school and worked for non-agricultural economies.

The Bulgarian Turk immigrants within Turkey and the economic activities of them is detailed in the tables below for the years of 1985, 1990 and 2000.

**Table 4. 6:** Bulgarian Turks' condition within the labor force (TUIK, 1985)

	Newcoming Bulgarian Immigrants' Population	Percentage of employed population	Percentage of wage working	Entrepreneurship rank among all immigrant groups
<b>1985</b>	954	41,72	80,40	26
<b>1990</b>	167089	50,28	92,49	23
<b>2000</b>	27470	58,16	89,75	44

As it would be understood from the table above, high portion of Bulgarian originated immigrants are employed, however they are not intended establishing their own businesses and worked as wage workers. The percentage of entrepreneurship tendency within this group decreases by years.

**Table 4. 7:** Entrepreneurship tendencies of new-coming Bulgaria originated immigrants (1985-1990 and 2000)

TOTAL WORKING BT- 85	OWN BUSINESS	%	TOTAL WORKIN G BT- 90	OWN BUSINESS	%	TOTAL WORKING BT-2000	OWN BUSINESS	%
398	56	14	84012	3378	4	15976	702	4

As shown in the table above, business owner Bulgaria originated immigrants' share within the total new-coming working group is decreasing by years; in 1985 the share of self-business ownership was 14% which decreased to 4% according to the census data of 1990 and 2000.

#### 4.2.3 Political dimension

The primary cause of this forced migration is the policy of Bulgarization applied by the Bulgarian government. In line with this policy, the number of Turks had to be

reduced yearly and they had to be assimilated. Changing their names with Bulgarian ones, propagation of Christianity, closing of Turkish schools and mosques, prohibition of Turkish language, religious practices, Muslim customs and traditions and cultural activities were the first steps of this forced Bulgarianization campaign. In 1984, these practices began to be applied systematically and some of those who resist were massacred, others were sent to concentration camps or prisons. Those who reached the age of military duty and thus wanted to come to Turkey were faced with obstacles and oppression. Bulgaria violated the articles of the Addendum of Turkish-Bulgarian Non-Aggression Treaty of 1925, which guarantee the rights of the Muslim minority (the rights that were secured in 1919 Treaty of Neuilly), Article 2 of Paris Peace Treaty of February 10, 1947 and Articles concerning the minority rights in the Final Statement of Treaty of Helsinki of 1975 and continued to practice its policy of assimilation.

In 1989, the Bulgarian government brought and abandoned more than 300,000 Turks on the Turkish border so as to force them to migrate to Turkey. Faced with this phenomenon, Turkey abandoned its usual policy of visa application and opened its doors unconditionally to the coming Turks. Bulgarians had assumed that Turkey would not open its doors unconditionally and Bulgarian Turks, now gathered at the border gates, hopelessly would go back and accept their new Bulgarian identities. However, when Turkey opened its doors unconditionally, more than 300,000 Turks entered their motherland. Following this, since the migrating Turks had a very important position as qualified workers in agricultural production and industry, Bulgaria experienced a serious financial crisis (Crampton, R. J., 2002).

While it may be purported that the immigrants were actually coming to their motherland, in reality their adaptation to the new land and surroundings is always very problematic. While the early stages of the migration might portray a picture to the opposite, later stages show that the newcomers do not forget their backgrounds and thus have difficulty adapting to the new cultural surroundings. Similar problems were witnessed in the case of 1989 as well (Çetin, 2008).

However, Çetin emphasizes that, according to unpublished statistical data of the Federation of the Balkan Immigrants, 366,625 people emigrated from Bulgaria and of these 154,937 returned to Bulgaria as of May 31 1990, making the total number of

Bulgarian Turkish immigrants in Turkey 212,688 (Balkan Göçmenleri Federasyonu, Yayınlanmamış Göç İstatistikleri 2006) .

#### **4.2.4 Physical dimension**

Physical dimension of migration from Bulgaria to Turkey would be explained by the locational choices of governments and immigrants. The table below displays immigrants' accommodations according to cities within Turkey.

**Table 4. 8:** The provinces of the first settlement by immigrants coming from Bulgaria between 1950-1988 and 1989

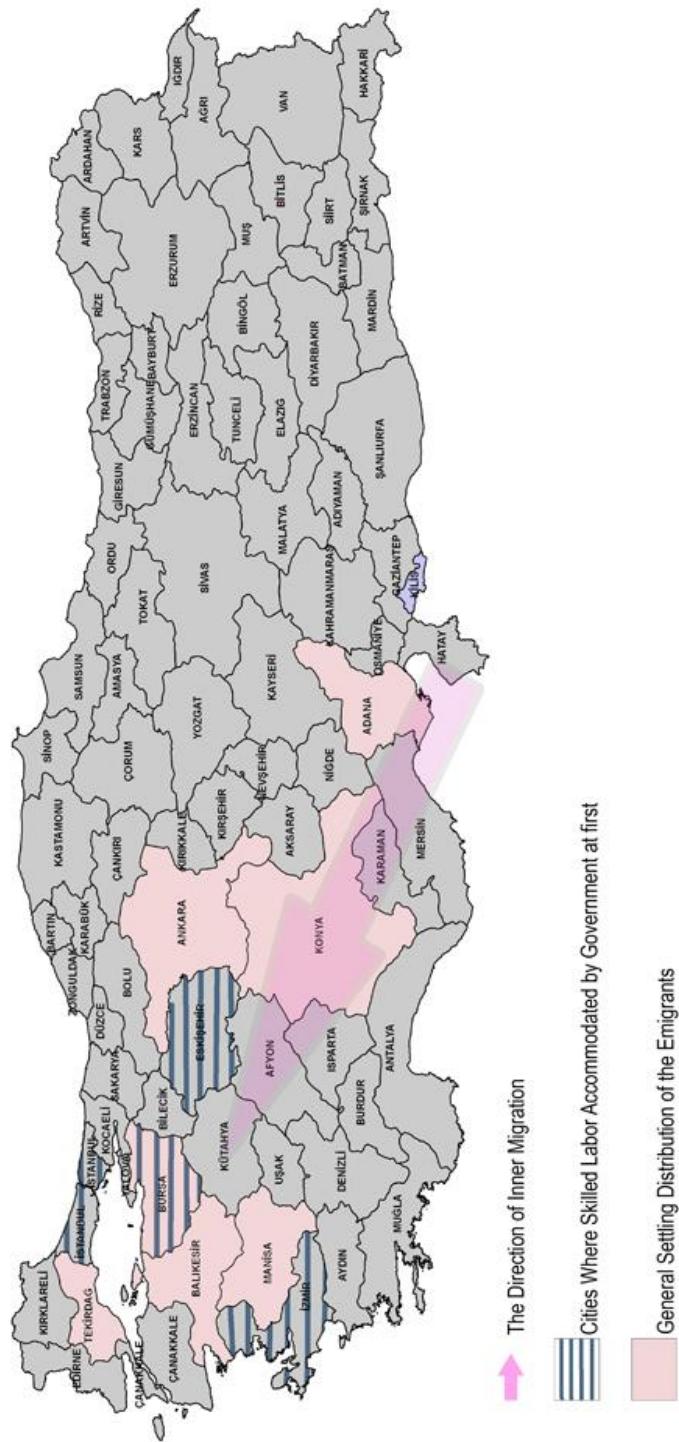
Provinces	Number of immigrants coming in 1950-1988 period	%	Number of immigrants coming in 1989	%
İstanbul	46,152	18.0	84,255	30.0
Bursa	46,301	17.0	67,378	24.0
Tekirdağ	14,957	5.5	30,828	11.0
İzmir	20,262	7.3	25,489	9.1
Kocaeli	7,114	2.6	12,276	4.3
Eskişehir	14,075	5.1	9,845	3.5
Kırklareli	11,266	4.1	7,045	2.5
Ankara	8,034	2.8	5,157	1.8
Balıkesir	11,883	4.3	4,852	1.7
Manisa	10,241	3.6	3,899	1.4
Other	80,633	29.7	30,035	10.7
Provinces	270,918	100.0	281,059	100.0
Total				

However a significant portion of return-back migration changed this balance. There are various key factors behind why some of the Turkish immigrants decided to go back to Bulgaria. The most important of these are the fragmented families, property left behind and the wish to benefit from their social rights.

The socialist regime in Bulgaria collapsed towards the end of 1989 and a democratic regime was established. Thus, Turks regained their rights and liberties of using their own names and having education in Turkish and practicing their religion. Our kindred, who also managed to organize politically and socially, gained 24 seats in the national parliament in the elections of 1991. Despite the fact that Bulgarian Turks still have many problems ranging from economy to education, they at least have partial cultural and religious freedom (Çetin, 2008).

On the other hand the BT immigrants who skilled for working in manufacturing industries had moved within Turkey for better working positions, namely an inner-migration had also occurred.

THE REGIONAL DISTRIBUTION OF BULGARIAN TURK MIGRANTS IN TURKEY



**Figure 4. 1:** Geographic distribution of immigrants who came from Bulgaria in 1989, by province's, 31 May 1990 (Çetin, 2008).



## **5. TRANSNATIONAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP ACTIVITIES OF BULGARIAN TURKS**

TUIK data shows us that Bulgarian immigrants avoided to establishing their private businesses or being entrepreneur and they employed as wage workers in the early years of the migration. Yet the ratio of Bulgaria originated migrants is low; however the economic crisis and average wages of both countries encouraged individuals to establish their own businesses, in general informally, by using their social ties.

According to the in-depth interviews; TEs are initially motivated by their language skills and familial or kinship ties for working transnationally. 100% of entrepreneurs have familial cross-border ties that motivated them to travel and work transnationally.

Today registered transnational entrepreneurs are incorporated legally, monopolized their businesses and developed their services over the region. Individual entrepreneurship activities are running illegally and those entrepreneurs avoid of getting contacted out of their social networks.

Capitalism itself is almost always a collective effort. The ethnic enclave economy expanded through both credit and a collective accumulation of experience and know-how, and this, despite the intense competition which existed between co-ethnic traders. Rivalry needed to be managed alongside trust. For the Turks coming from Bulgaria trust or social conflicts are not difficulties against entrepreneurship, on the other hand there were some other non-ethnic difficulties they met. The Immigrants come from Bulgaria are not highly self-employed or entrepreneurs due to:

-The places they dwelled and now choose to dwell are industrially developed cities and it's preferable to work as paid employer because of the risk of the entrepreneurship.

-The regions they firstly accommodated by Turkish government was not places promising for a long-stay for these immigrants and second inner migrations in

Turkey required the accumulation of the capital to survive in a new environment instead of risk taking.

-Moreover BTs main language was Turkish, their cultural background was same with the Turkish culture; this decreased the need to create themselves a different ethnic culture or group.

- The Bulgarian management system changed from Socialism in near past. In early years of migration; BT immigrants had no information about the economic system or the regulations of Turkey.

-Government also supported the immigrants as paid workers and government supplied housing facilities for this kind of labor.

-Cross-nationally working entrepreneurs have dual nationalities which is an economically supportive opportunity. However, due to the economic or legal limitations, the entrepreneurship intentions of these immigrants never displayed high degrees.

In addition to the information above, to evaluate the condition of Transnational businesses of Bulgarian Turks; it is intended to understand:

- What are the personal and demographic characteristics of TEs?,
- What is the economic scope of the subjected transnational entrepreneurship?,
- What are the initiative pushing factors?,
- Which languages the TEs speak while working transnationally?,
- Is the transnational entrepreneur dual citizen?,
- What are the types of TE between Bulgaria and Turkey? and,
- What are the social relations' impact on his/her TE activities?

The following section will be including the answers and evaluations about these questions.

## **5.1 Primarily Evaluations of Research Questions**

### **1- Personal and Demographic Characteristics' of TEs.**

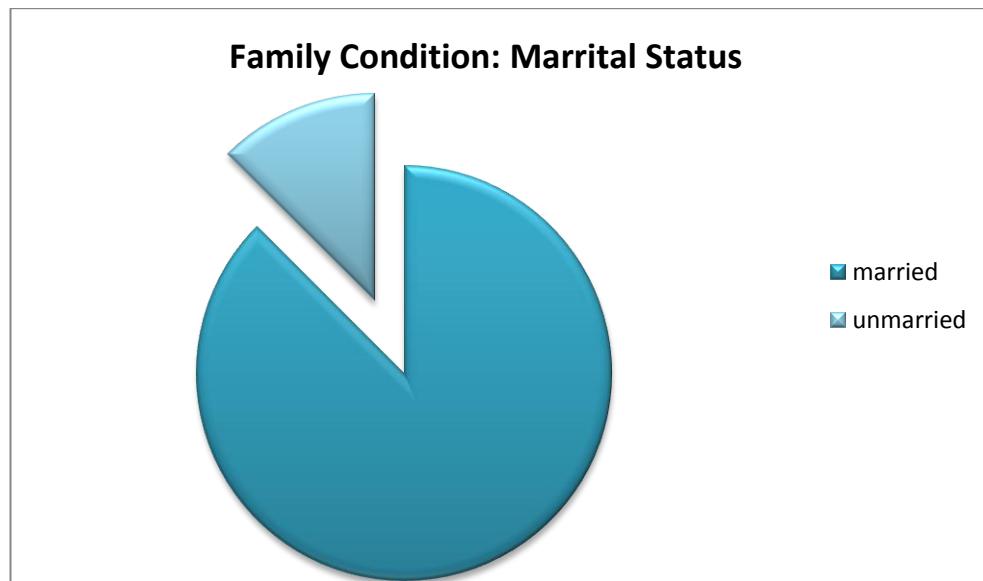
Age distribution of BT-TEs is presenting a range from 27 to 65 which also refers to economically active age group. 78% of these TEs are in the age group of 40 or older. The figure below displays the distribution of age.



**Figure 5. 1:** Age distribution of TEs.

As shown in the Figure 5.1, BT-TEs are densely within the age group of 40 to 50 and the Normal Q-Q plot of age displays a linear line.

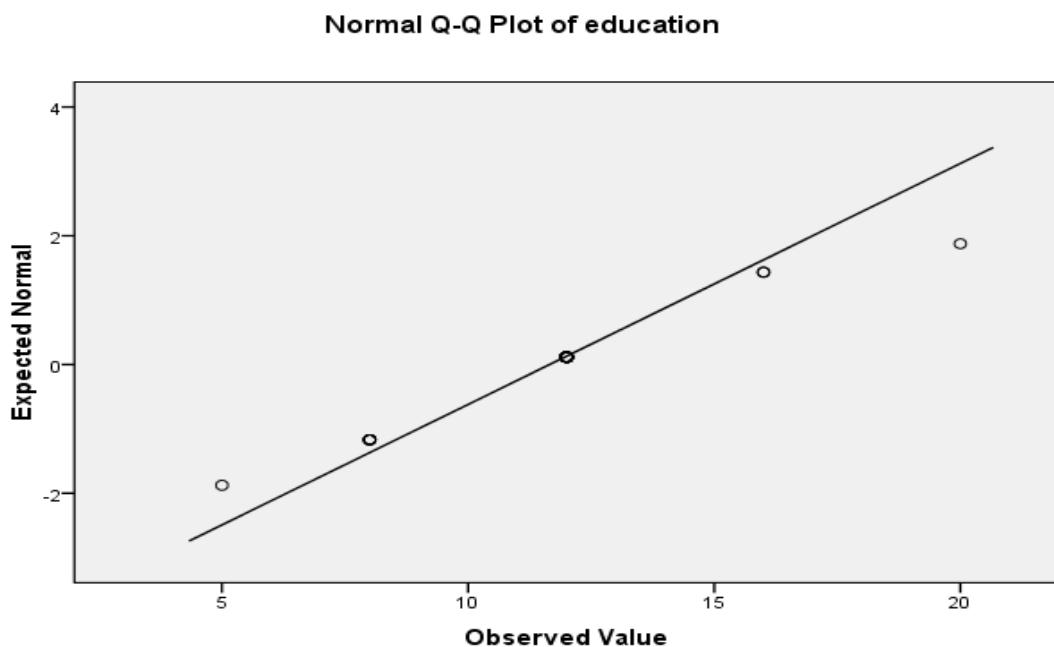
Familial features and demographic characteristics of TEs are basicly summerized as shown in the following graphs and percentages:



**Figure 5. 2:** Marrital status of TEs.

As the graphic above represents; 88% of the BT-TEs are married which means in addition to the personal expenditures; familial expenditures would be as neccessity working.

On the other hand as a social demographic feature; education level of BT-TEs is commonly educated for 12 years or they had further education which refers high school or university education (71%). 96% of these entrepreneurs are educated in Bulgaria. This feature increases the language abilities of BT-TEs for both speaking Bulgarian and Turkish which refers to percentage share of 96%.



**Figure 5. 3:** Distribution of education level.

65% of BT-Tes think that their personal features and risk taking characteristics are positively affecting the business they act.

Risk taking ability of immigrants effected entrepreneurial activities; migrations itself is a social and economic risk that has impact on individuals' lives. Some of BT immigrants had migrated back. These returnee BT entrepreneur immigrants present a percentage of 43%.

**Share of Returnee Transnational Entrepreneurs**

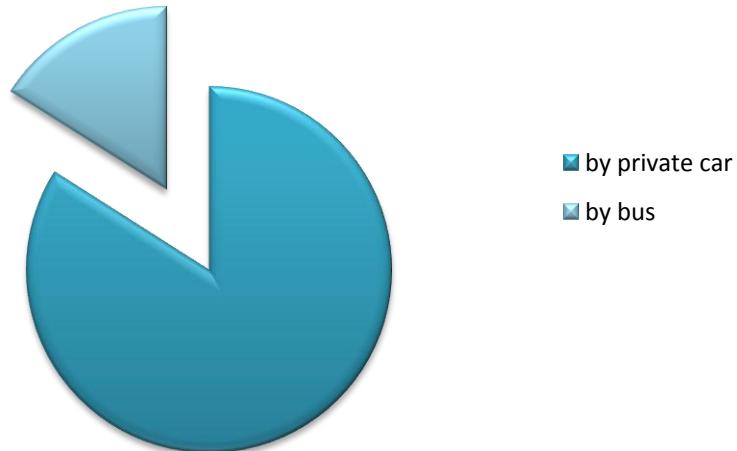


**Figure 5. 4:** Share of the returnee TEs.

Another significant feature of BT-TEs is their creativity; 71% of this group is working informally and mobile across national boundaries and transporting passengers. This action also includes other informal activities in addition to the mobilization of passengers which refers to 71% of the TEs. BT-TEs are also carrying food, packages and importing or exporting Bulgarian or Turkish produced goods.

72% of these entrepreneurs are travelling more than 50 times wthin the year among Bulgaria and Turkey and 84% of them are travelling by their private cars.

**TEs' Mode of Transport**



**Figure 5. 5:** Mode of TEs' transport.

In this research, our study case is identified as fitting to the term of circuit transnational entrepreneurship. Since owners of circuit and cultural enterprises continuously travel from host to home country, they may gain an enhanced ability to observe unfilled niches, unmet needs, new processes, and strategies enabling them to identify and act upon opportunities and engage in risk-taking behavior (Light et al., 2002; Yeung, 2007), which may in turn increase their self-efficacy.

## **2- The Economic Scope of the Subjected Transnational Entrepreneurship**

Several questions aimed to measure the economic scope and the profit of TE business among Bulgaria and Turkey. BT-TEs avoided announcing their monthly incomes, however 100% of TEs' profit last year was positive, 100% of TEs have one or more real estates and mostly they have 6+1 passenger capacity-private cars (84%). In addition to that they emphasized that their trip frequencies and demands of trips are defining the real income. Even TEs avoided giving information about the amount of their profit, as a cross-check question we asked "How much you benefit from 1 travel?" According to this information, by multiplying "profit per trip" by "number of circular travels per year"; we assume that 79% of TEs are benefit an amount of money between 10.000 and 32.000 Turkish Liras per year.

In this regard the economic scope of the business is strongly depending on the effort and the entrepreneurial creativity of entrepreneur, and usage of social connections' advantage.

## **3- The Initiative Pushing Factors**

Today legal limitations for TE are negatively affecting the business according to the 75% of entrepreneurs, and also 78% of TEs emphasized that the hardest difficulties they met while acting their businesses are custom controls and the current regulations for transnationally travelling and working. Yet there are several initiative pushing factors for TE worth risk taking and establishing their businesses.

It is understood that unemployment, dissatisfaction of the previous job, need of extra income, flexibility willness and idea of being their own boss encouraged BT-TEs creating their businesses. The graph below presents the share of pushing factors that TEs announced in the interviews.

## Initiative Pushing Factors for TE



**Figure 5. 6:** Initiative pushing factors for TE.

When we look at the further economic activities of these immigrants; 65% of TEs had worked as wage workers before they established their businesses.

On the other hand target client group of Bulgarian Turks are their own ethnic group (96%) and only 13% of TEs have TE ties with other European countries (Romania, France or Germany).

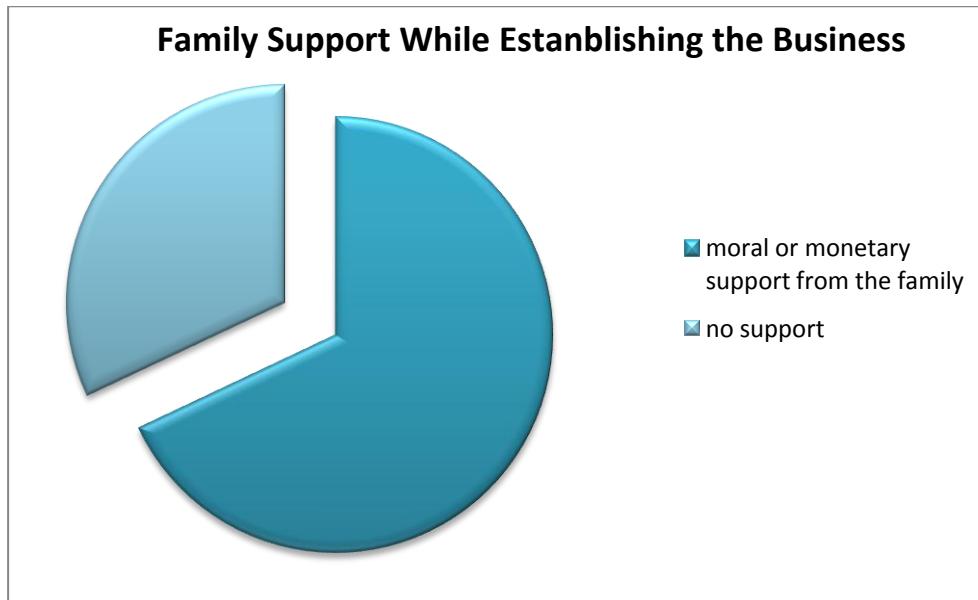
## Previous Economic Activity Before TE



**Figure 5. 7:** Previous economic activities of entrepreneurs before TE.

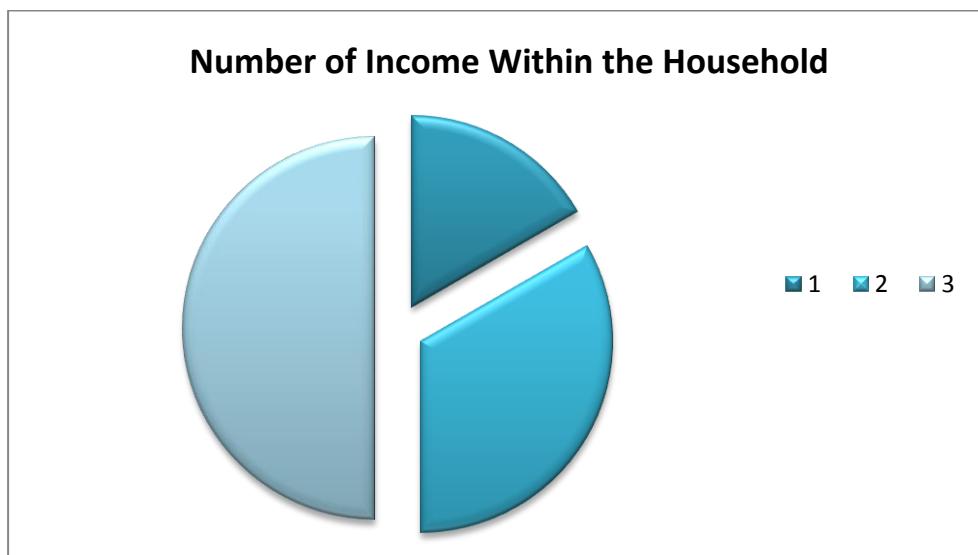
Today 50% of these people are experienced in these transnational entrepreneurship activities for more than ten years.

100% of TEs have family members both in home and host country. 68% of TEs' supported by their families. In addition to that familial support, cross-national familial and kinship ties are strongly (100%) pushing factors for TE.



**Figure 5. 8:** Family support while establishing TE business.

Number of income within the household is also another indicator for risk taking; 53% of BT-TEs' households have two or more different sources of income, that means their wifes/husbands or children are also working.



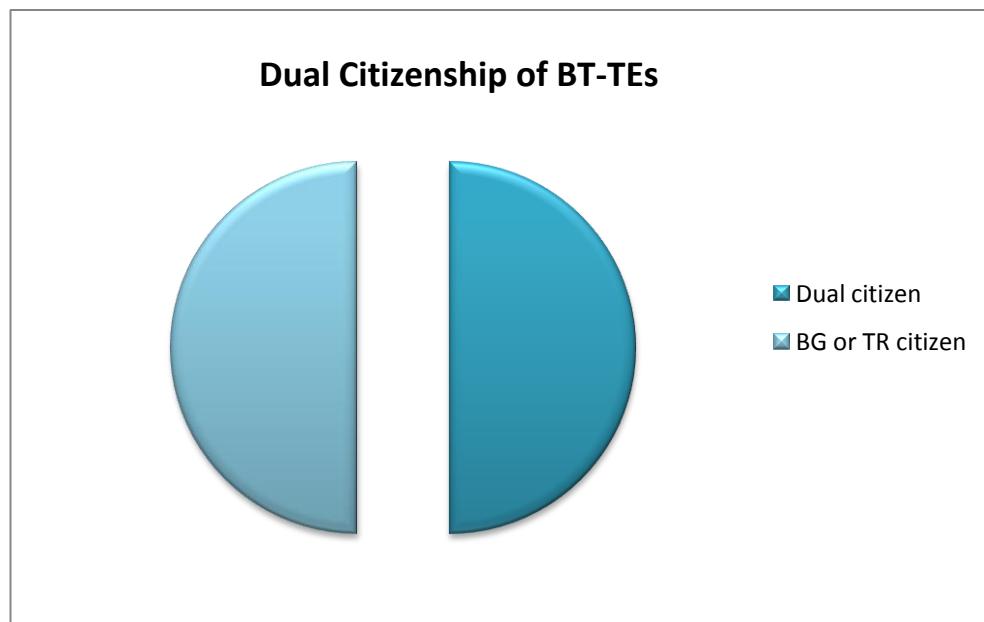
**Figure 5. 9:** Number of income within TEs' household.

#### **4- Languages that TEs Speak While Working Transnationally**

BT-TEs are commonly speaking Bulgarian, Turkish and Russian in general. While working transnationally they speak Turkish to their clients and speak Bulgarian to the custom officers. Language ability to speak both Bulgarian and Turkish fluently (96%) is also other initial pushing factors for these entrepreneurs.

#### **5- Dual Citizenhips of TEs**

As Bloemraad (2004) emphasized, for scholars of transnationalism, dual citizenship recognizes that immigrants' lives transcend borders. 50% of BT-TEs are dual citizen; most of these entrepreneurs attend to the electoral campaign in both countries. In addition to the electoral and social attributions of TEs in dual environments; real estate ownership is also an indicator of BT immigrants do live transcend borders. 50% of BT-TEs have two real estates which of one in Bulgaria and the other in Turkey.



**Figure 5. 10:** Dual citizenships of Bulgarian Turk TEs.

#### **6- Types of TE Between Bulgaria and Turkey**

According to the interviews; transnational entrepreneurship activities of Bulgarian Turks could be classified as; “passenger mobilization between two countries and working as courier”, “illegal and small scaled food and cosmetics trading”, “legal, big scaled food and goods trade” and “illegal sale of duty free products”.

## **7- Social Relations' Impact on Individuals TE Activities**

100% of TEs emphasized that their business is totally depending on social relations and networks. Especially illegally working TEs are not working with clients out of their social network. Clients reach entrepreneurs by private entrepreneurs' mobile numbers which is distributed within the network.

### **Further Information**

In line with the in-depth interviews, it is understood there exists some common features of transnational entrepreneurs working among two countries as following:

- All entrepreneurs that we could reach were **migrated** to Turkey in 1989 or in the following years,
- 86% of entrepreneurs **worked as wage workers** in the first years of their migration.
- Economic crisis or **economic conditions** encouraged them to work transnationally for their own businesses.
- 100% of TEs' **profit is positive** in the last year which means their regional economic impact is also positive. In this regard as a sucess indicator of business; the profit gathered from the acting job is positive and the transnational activites of Bulgarian Turks are effecting the regional (border-free space where TEs work mobile is assumed as the whole region) economy where they both earn and spend.
- **Geographical positions** ease mobilization of entrepreneurs and neighbourhood of two nations offers a potential for working transnationally.
- While establishing their businesses, Bulgarian Turk entrepreneurs generally **did not ask for economic assistance** from their families or social groups.
- TEs have an ability of **speaking both Bulgarian and Turkish** fluently.
- **Common history** and common cultures of two nations are motivating factors for entrepreneurs.
- All entrepreneurs **feel belonged to Turkey** even they are living in Bulgaria or refusing being Turkish citizen (55% of TEs are dual citizen, 41% are BG citizen).

- Most of the entrepreneurs are graduated from **high school**.
- All passenger transporter entrepreneurs are working with their private cars illegally and contacting passengers by their **social network** linkages.
- 100% of TEs have **family members** in both countries. Namely as a social network indicator familial ties and kinship relations of TEs are strong.

In addition to the research questions, and above listed common features; TEs shared further information. To summarize these in-depth interviewing notes and observations some conversation summaries will take their paces within this section.

For example Mr. M lives in Turkey he owns realestate in both countries. He is transporting passengers and trading goods between Turkey and Bulgaria. He is travelling all week long and completes twenty trips within a month. His average profit per trip is 500 Levas. He would rather work legally and has a card for promoting his job. He emphasizes that the economic crisis did not affect his job. While acting his business, he has not encountered many difficulties in this business other than custom controls.

He says: “The new regulations about the frequency of the trips which liberated the mobility between Bulgaria and Turkey is now relatively more supportive for people working for my own businesses transnationally. However another source of income, duty free products' sale is now limited by new regulations. It is not allowed to buy drinks or cigarettes while travelling to Bulgaria. Last year, the old regulations, allowed the trips for only once a week.”

The frequencies of the TEs are differing according to their trips; Mr. B; as a returnee migrant, is acting the business at weekends which means he travels only once or twice a week. He is a dual citizen and has relatives in Turkey who provide accommodation.

Mr. E has only Bulgarian citizenship and travels from Shumnu to Bursa generally once a week for the same purposes as Mr B and Mr. M. He retired from local government where he had been employed as a driver and started his own business to achieve an extra income source.

Immigrants do also work for the second income source due to the low average wages; their aim is to enhance the quality of their lives.

Differing from Mr. E; Mr. H's TE business is the only income of his household for eight years. His uncle is also a TE and supported him at the beginning of this business. He travels between the two nations twice a week and he emphasizes that custom controls and low quality transportation infrastructure are the thresholds of his business.

Mr. H remembers his first trip. He shared that he had only 200 Euros in his pocket when he first transported the passengers who hired him.

He is also a local entrepreneur in Bulgaria who has a small store where he sells cheap and useful household materials, some being illegally imported from Turkey. He says economic crisis affected the frequency of travelling demands.

Another entrepreneur, Mr. I, worked as a driver previously and quit his job because of the low salary. He lives in Bulgaria who is also a returnee migrant. He emphasized that after the economic crisis the number temporary workers who work in Turkey for three or six months (working as baby sitter, servant, agricultural laborer...etc) are decreased because of the low salaries and that diminished the travelling demands.

Entrepreneurs emphasized that due to the economic limitations; travelling demands among Bulgaria and Turkey have decreased.

As a relatively more experienced entrepreneur Mr. ME has been working transnationally for 20 years. He owned 2 busses for passenger transportation (between BG and TR) at the past and employed two drivers for this occupation. Interestingly while employing two drivers, he had driven truck for furniture carrying among two countries. Currently he travels between two countries for three or four times in a week. He was working for Bulgarian government as a local bussline driver and found himself unemployed after the collapse of the communism in Bulgaria.

Mr. R's relatives and familial ties encouraged him to work transnationally. In addition to that, unemployment and limited alternative options steered him towards this type of work. Mr. M is his role model. He travels twice a week for TE activities who previously worked as construction worker. The average income of his current business is 1500 TL per month. He emphasizes that after the economic crisis holiday or visiting travel demands of Bulgarian Turks who live in Bulgaria are nearly finished, on the other hand Bulgarian Turks that lives in Turkey are in relatively better condition and states that his customers are mostly from Turkey.

In addition to Mr. M; there exist other role model entrepreneurs who work for passenger transportation, Mr. A started working transnationally for experiencing an adventure. He has been working his private car for 18 years. He is a role model who is one of the first entrepreneurs who had also encouraged others for working transnationally. Having a sister in Turkey has lowered the costs of accommodations. He complains custom controls for causing loss of time. He says economic crisis has apparently affected this sector and today most of the travels are departing from Turkey, not from Bulgaria.

The role models who run TE business are encouraging other individuals for risk taking and working transnationally for earning money.

Mr A encouraged Mr V to quit his previous job who was working for a low salary. Mr. V complains about the regulations about travelling limitations for cars with a Bulgaria registered plate. Those regulations are not allowing BG licence plated cars to stay in Turkey more than six months in a year. He amphasized that economic crisis that has an effect on both countries' economies at least for two years and has decreased travelling demands. When Euro-Turkish Lira parity was low in Turkey BG Levas-Euro parity was high which means it was advantageous to earn in Turkey and spend in Bulgaria. Bulgarian Turks who live and work in Turkey and visit Bulgaria had a significant more purchasing power in the past, however today these parities are nearly same and it is not encouraging the travelling.

As a more educated entrepreneur Mr. H.H. holds a university degree yet he is still continuing his education. He is living in Omurtag-Targovishte and has been running his company 'Altrans' for the last 25 years even through the communist regime of Bulgaria. Today he employs 200 workers and nearly 40 of whom are working for transportation of goods. His business is based on transportation and logistics of wooden materials and goods native to Gebze, İstanbul and Çerkezköy. However it is only one way transportation which means the route from Bulgaria to Turkey his company -his drivers- transport wooden products or goods on the way back to Bulgaria as couriers, they transport what is demanded from the Turkish logistic bureaus.

His fleet of 17 trucks make the journey four or five times in a month (over 50 trips/year) making his business one of the larger transnational owned transport companies.

He established his business with his own capital and some politic support, none of his family member became a role model for his entrepreneurial activity or a supportive model within this job. His yearly income is nearly 1500.000 Levas, around one million dollars.

Only few entrepreneurs are working in different countries in addition to Bulgaria and Turkey.

Mr. Va is another BT-TE who had higher education; he had worked as a teacher after graduated from he university. He was not satisfied of the sallary and he created his own business. He was a returnee migrant who has only Bulgarian citizenship and travels between two countries twice a week. He loves his business and thinks the future of the sector is promising good income. He emphasizes the technical travelling difficulties and custom controls as the hardest part of his business. All his customers are geting in touch with him through network channels.

Most of TEs are travelling between the two countries from 50 to160 trips per year and they are happy with their job for being their own boss in the so-called unorganized and/or informal sectors.

It is recognized that a substantial part of economic action in the developing world takes place in the informal sector, which hosts unregistered or officially unrecorded activities. Agenor (1996) and references therein suggest that the share of informal employment may be as high as 70–80% in many developing countries.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that informal employment comprises one half to three quarters of nonagricultural employment in the developing countries and that informal work arrangements have not only persisted but have also expanded over recent decades (ILO, 2002). The self-employed are considered to be the largest component of the informal economy and this group is often used as a proxy for the sector in developing countries. Self-employment in non-farm activities has been increasing in all developing regions of the world.

Passenger transporter entrepreneurs are in touch with each other in case of any urgent situation or a **serious risk** that might occur at the border crossing. The first entrepreneur passes through the custom controls and calls the following driver and warns about the adverse conditions. That's why usually two or more transnationally working cars move together on the same route.

Entrepreneurs emphasize that if they could re-organize their businesses, work in cooperation with other transnational entrepreneurs and register their sector with government authorities, then larger transport companies would whether it be legal or illegal, petition for blocks against the smaller transport companies. 86% of entrepreneurs claim regulations and custom controls are the biggest factors in limiting the operation of their business. And while it would be mean paying higher taxes and more paperwork, 40% of this group have intentions of working as a legal documented company to ease their customs difficulties and ensure their routes were not compromised.

Even now the transport companies are scaling back their transnational activities. However, **thousands of immigrants are travelling between two countries** whose families are separated because of the migration and demand is irregular and high. Most of the immigrants are travelling between two countries for familial visits, citizenship issues or business visits. It is a potential for individuals working for passenger transportation transnationally because there is no time schedule or programme of their trips. All the trips are actualizing by travellers demands.

## 5.2 Answering the Main Questions

As we mentioned in the first section of this research, we intended to find answers to two main questions;

**Q1:** “Do the personal characteristics of TEs effect the success of business?”

**Q2:** “Do these business activities have some motivations and driving forces behind them?”

The information gathered from interviews transformed to the numeric data. The answers as Yes or No are evaluated as 1 and 0. The answers regarding year of education, age or number of the trips yearly are edited for their numerical values. Correlations of the answered questions help us understanding the positive and negative relations among the personal, social and business characteristics of BT-TEs.

As with any statistical analysis that is computed using sample data, the size of our sample (32) tested for finding the ‘value’ of the statistical results (Gross, 1973, p. 17) by a multiple linear regression (MLR) analyze’.

### **A Brief Explanation to Linear Regression**

The goal of linear regression is to adjust the values of slope and intercept to find the line that best predicts dependent from independents. More precisely, the goal of regression is to minimize the sum of the squares of the vertical distances of the points from the line. For each subject (or experimental unit), both dependent variable and independents are known and it is aimed to you finding the best straight line through the data. In some situations, the slope and/or intercept have a scientific meaning. In other cases, we use the linear regression line as a standard curve to find new values of independent from dependent, or dependent from independent.

Linear regression does this by finding the line that minimizes the sum of the squares of the vertical distances of the points from the line.

The linear regression does not test whether the data are linear (except via the runs test). It assumes that data are linear, and finds the slope and intercept that make a straight line best fit the existing data.

The regression equation appears to be useful for making predictions since the value of  $R^2$  is close to 1. The normal probability plot of the residuals shows the points close to a diagonal line; therefore, the residuals appear to be approximately normally distributed. Thus, the assumptions for regression analysis appear to be met. And in addition to these; at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  level of significance, there exists enough evidence to conclude that the slope of the regression line is not zero.

Another important issue about the multiple linear regression is the sample size; When the researcher has an accurate estimate of the overall model effect size,  $R^2$ , this research will provide some guidelines as to the minimum sample size needed for accurate predictions (Knofczynski, G., T., and Mundfrom, D., 2007).

The aforementioned researchers utilized theory and simulations to devise sample size recommendations for minimizing shrinkage of  $R^2$ , other authors simply state rules of thumb, some of which may be inconsistent with others. To provide minimal shrinkage of  $R^2$ , Pedhazur and Schmelkin (1991) state that a substantial subject to predictor ratio is 30 to 1 whereas Miller and Kunce (1973) suggest that a ratio of 10

to 1 is sufficient. One reason for so many different sample size recommendations is the numerous applications of MLR.

In the literature on the covariance structure model, more observations per parameter is often given. A rule of at least 10 parameter seems reasonable for some of the models. That rule does not imply that a minimum of 100 is not needed if you have only two parameters. Second if the data are ill conditioned (e.g., independent variables are highly collinear) or there is a little variation in the dependent variable (e.g., nearly all the outcomes are 1), a larger sample is required. (Long, J., S., 1997)

According to the data gathered from in-depth interviews and the answers handled from entrepreneurs by systematic questions ease to predict the transnationalisms of BT-TEs. By transnationalism we refer to the business trip frequencies of entrepreneurs. We took travelling as an indicator of economic impact of the business, business activity range and level of the entrepreneur as well. In general we assume travel frequency as a summary of business success. The transnational business itself is strongly tied to the back and forth trips among home and host countries. In respect to the literature; entrepreneurs who travel at least six times or more in a year (Portes, Guarnizo and Haller; 2002) for business purposes are taken as transnational entrepreneurs and the number of the cross-national travels evaluated as dependent variable. By linear regression we aimed to find the best line that explain the predictors. We analyzed two groups of independent variables.

As an important example from the TE literature, Portes used predictor variables in his analysis fall under three categories: (1) individual demographic traits, including age, sex, and national origin; (2) adaptation characteristics, including citizenship, monthly income, and perceptions of discrimination; and (3) relations with the home country. By referring to his study; we first aimed to understand if demographic characteristics of TEs have a relationship with his/her business activities and do the personal and demographic features shape a line that minimizes the sum of the squares.

**Table 5. 1:** Correlations of the variables- personal

Correlations						
	frequency	age	sex	national	education	language
Pearson Correlation	frequency	1,000	,002	,233	-,101	,676
	age	,002	1,000	-,159	,385	-,392
	sex	,233	-,159	1,000	,024	,346
	national	-,101	,385	,024	1,000	,044
	education	,676	-,392	,346	,044	1,000
	language	,672	-,378	,339	-,011	,672
Sig. (1-tailed)	frequency	.	,496	,100	,290	,000
	age	,496	.	,192	,015	,013
	sex	,100	,192	.	,449	,026
	national	,290	,015	,449	.	,406
	education	,000	,013	,026	,406	.
	language	,000	,016	,029	,476	,000
N	frequency	32	32	32	32	32
	age	32	32	32	32	32
	sex	32	32	32	32	32
	national	32	32	32	32	32
	education	32	32	32	32	32
	language	32	32	32	32	32

Correlation table displays if the variables' relations to each other are near to 1 or not. When the ratio of a group variable to b group is 1; it means the group of a and it's information is related to group of b. In our case the numbers of travel are correlated to the education level of TEs.

**Table 5. 2:** The model summary- personal**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Mod el	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,866 <sup>a</sup>	,750	,702	79,251	,750	15,588	5	26	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), language, national, sex, age, education

b. Dependent Variable: frequency

The linear regression of frequency of transnational travels is explained significantly by TEs's age, sex, education level, language skills and nationality. Sig. F change value is „,000” which presents a lower value than 0,05 and R<sup>2</sup> is near to 1. In this regard we assump that these variables strongly identifies the transnational activity and effort.

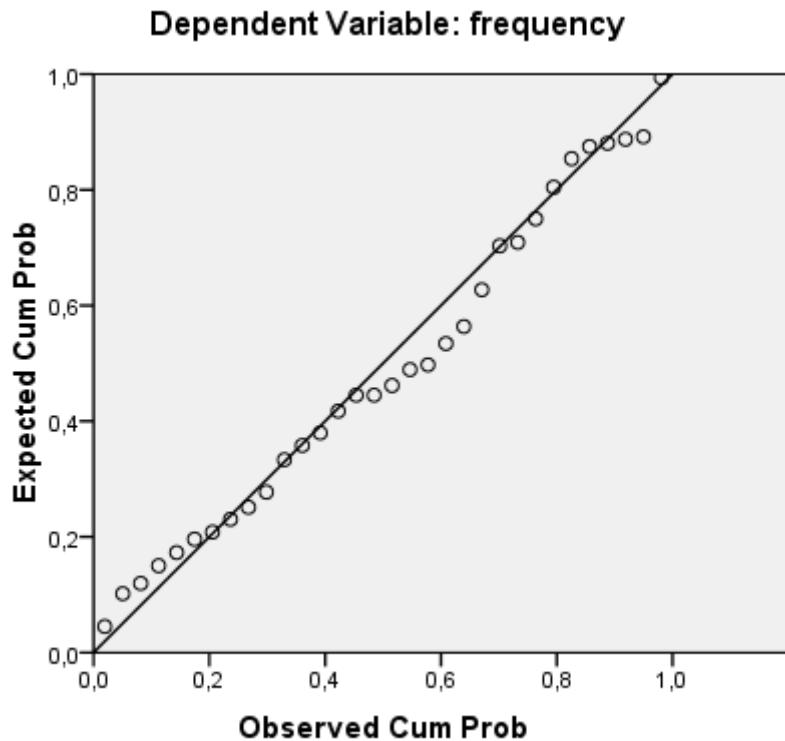
**Table 5. 3:** Analysis of variance- personal factors**ANOVA<sup>b</sup>**

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	489528,370	31	97905,674	15,588	,000 <sup>a</sup>
	Residual	163299,630		6280,755		
	Total	652828,000				

a. Predictors: (Constant), language, national, sex, age, education

b. Dependent Variable: frequency

When we look at the ANOVA table it is understood that residual values are explaining 25% of the model and regression itself can explain 75% of the analysis.



**Figure 5. 11:** Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual- personal.

Probability Plot displays a linear distribution of values which strengthens the meaning of the analysis.

In this regard coefficients of the model are shown as the table below.

**Table 5. 4:** Coefficients table-personal factors.

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients			t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	-566,658	97,660		-5,802	,000
age	4,974	1,327	,485	3,748	,001
sex	15,957	30,421	,060	,525	,604
national	-37,856	20,809	-,214	-1,819	,080
education	14,662	5,028	,436	2,916	,007
language	145,503	37,166	,573	3,915	,001

a. Dependent Variable: frequency

$$y_i = \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \varepsilon_i = x_i' \beta + \varepsilon_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

By the collected data, the analysis resulted as shown above. However, a hypothesis testing is required. For measuring how probable our data is, if we assume the null hypothesis is true, then “ $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_n = 0$ ”

$H_1$  hypothesis assumes  $\beta_j$  values are not equal to 0, “ $H_1 : \beta_j \neq 0$  for at least one  $j, j = 1, \dots, p$ ”.

Rejection of  $H_0$  implies that at least one of the regressors,  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_p$ , contributes significantly to the model.

In TEs' case in Bulgaria, our regression multipliers are effected by variables clearly, for this reason for  $H_1$  hypothesis; at least one  $\beta_1$  is not equal to zero. In this regard we deny the assumption of:  $H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_n = 0$ . (Newbold, 2000).

An additional regression model aimed to measure and test if motivation factors are explaining the number of transnational travels of TEs.

**Table 5. 5:** Correlations of the variables- motivation

		Correlations						
		frequency	experience	education	language	familyent	limitations	features
Pearson Correlation	frequency	1,000	-,010	,643	,706	,121	-,274	,242
	experience	-,010	1,000	-,036	,007	,034	-,196	,066
	education	,643	-,036	1,000	,672	-,150	,007	,481
	language	,706	,007	,672	1,000	,144	-,104	,319
	familyent	,121	,034	-,150	,144	1,000	-,277	,011
	limitations	<span style="border: 1px solid blue; padding: 2px;">-,274</span>	-,196	,007	-,104	-,277	1,000	,038
	features	,242	,066	,481	,319	,011	,038	1,000
Sig. (1-tailed)	frequency	.	,477	,000	,000	,255	,065	,091
	experience	,477	.	,422	,485	,426	,141	,361
	education	,000	,422	.	,000	,206	,485	,003
	language	,000	,485	,000	.	,216	,286	,038
	familyent	,255	,426	,206	,216	.	,062	,477
	limitations	,065	,141	,485	,286	,062	.	,418
	features	,091	,361	,003	,038	,477	,418	.
N	frequency	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	experience	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	education	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	language	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	familyent	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	limitations	32	32	32	32	32	32	32
	features	32	32	32	32	32	32	32

Table 5.5 displays the correlations of motivation factors towards TE. Due to these correlation ratios, we evaluate the limitations that TEs met while working transnationally are negatively affecting their business success, profit and transnationalism.

**Table 5. 6:** Model Summary- motivation.**Model Summary<sup>b</sup>**

Mod el	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	,781 <sup>a</sup>	,611	,517	62,350	,611	6,536	6	25	,000

a. Predictors: (Constant), features, familyent, experience, limitations, language, education

b. Dependent Variable: frequency

As shown in the model summary table above, if we analyze motivation towards TE, it will also be explaining the travellings significantly. By analyzing several independent variables as personal features' effect on the sucess of TE business, other entrepreneurs' encouragement in the household, year of TE experience, limitations while working transnationally, the education level and it's role; we measure the motivation factors towards TE. In this model it is understood that these independent variables are affecting the transnational travellings and they are positively or negatively effecting the business as well.

**Table 5. 7:** Analysis of variance – motivation factors.**ANOVA<sup>b</sup>**

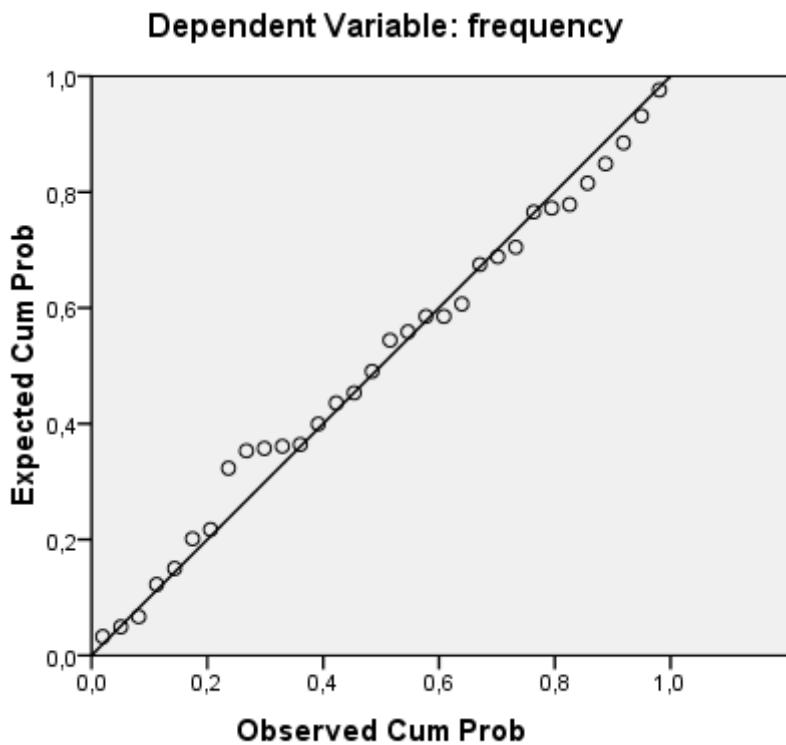
Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	152440,777	6	25406,796	6,536
	Residual	97187,223	25	3887,489	
	Total	249628,000	31		

a. Predictors: (Constant), features, familyent, experience, limitations, language, education

b. Dependent Variable: frequency

As displayed in Table 5.7; our analysis is explained by residual values as a percentage of 39% which is higher than the previous analyze.

Sample size and number of independent variables might be one of the significant indications of this condition. However as a result we are able to say with a significance level of „,000”; personal features' effect on the sucess of TE business, other entrepreneurs' encouragement in the household, year of TE experience, limitations while working transnationally, education level and it's role are explaining transnational travellings. Namely the sucess is depended to these motivation factors.



**Figure 5. 12:** Normal P-P Plot of regression standardized residual- motivation.

As shown in the figure above, motivation factors have a scientific meaning by explaining the model by a straight line.

**Table 5. 8:** Coefficents table- motivation.

Model	Coefficients <sup>a</sup>				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error			
1	(Constant)	-244,973	77,707		,004
	features	-14,376	26,833	-,077	,597
	experience	-,697	2,283	-,039	,763
	familyent	13,698	31,533	,061	,668
	limitations	-44,836	27,178	-,220	,112
	education	13,451	6,557	,400	,051
	language	109,218	45,538	,430	,024

a. Dependent Variable: frequency

For a last word, due to the common answers; as indicators of motivation and social network relations; “relative ties” and “effect of social network on business” are not included to our analysis.



## **6. CONCLUSION**

This study had examined the transnational entrepreneurship activities of Bulgarian Turks. Cross-border informal trade and mobility is an important issue between Bulgaria and Turkey. In our case it takes place between people who live a short distance apart, but who find themselves separated by an international boundary.

The people of international border areas believe that cross-border informal trade is a process to maintain a sustainable livelihood because it provides a livelihood to the unemployed (Sikder and Sarkar, 2005). Bulgarian Turk TEs had evaluated this opportunity for their livelihoods. As a result of our field study, it is understood that informal transportation of passengers and working as couriers are the main interests of Bulgarian Turk TEs.

As mentioned before; transnational entrepreneurship activities of Bulgarian Turks could be summarized as follows:

- passenger mobilization between two countries,
- illegal and small scaled food and cosmetics trading,
- legal, big scaled food and goods trade and
- illegal sale of duty free products (that is currently limited).

Due to the legal risks and limitations, and their informal way of working; transnational entrepreneurs are standing aside sharing their personal information or details about their businesses. In addition to that, the only way to reach these entrepreneurs is to contact them by social networks.

However in-depth interviews gave us an idea about TE between Bulgaria and Turkey:

- ✓ TEs' yearly average income is higher than both countries' yearly minimum wages. 84% of TEs who work transnationally for more than 10 years have private cars and two houses one in Turkey and one in Bulgaria which proofs

their income is positive and they have a role in regional economy. The size of the impact area is forming a “regional economy which is out of borders” including Bursa (TR), Istanbul (TR), Razrgrad (BG), Shumnu (BG), Tırnova (BG), and Blagovgrad (BG).

According to Wikipedia; yearly income per capita in Bulgaria is 3500 \$, and minimum wage is 300 Levs as well as income per capita in Turkey is 13000 \$ and minimum wage is 666 TL; these conditions are also increasing entrepreneurship intentions of individuals and encouraging them for risk taking while they are acting their businesses.

- ✓ All TEs business activities are actualizing within and by the help of their social network. Their personal features are significantly affecting the business success.
- ✓ TEs are motivated by other entrepreneurs' encouragement within the household. The year of TE experience, limitations while working transnationally and education level and it's role had several impacts on the business.
- ✓ Bulgarian Turk TEs activities are circuit enterprises, As Llyod emphasized in his research these entrepreneurs are mobile and this mobility requires to be involved in transmigration travelling back and forth between two countries where these trips would often be a combination of business and vacation while visiting family members.

Bulgarian Turk TEs travel extensively between two countries for importing goods to family-run businesses or large stores, and transporting packages, and non-ethnic products to households and businesses in both countries which can vary in terms of size and scope. As an overall evaluation, we can say that we can contribute to the circuit enterprise definition of Sequeira et al. by adding ‘passenger transportation’ from household to household as a creative way of entrepreneurship that Bulgarian Turks act.

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