

Neha Saxena
Aprajita Verma

LABOUR DIGNITY AND MOBILITY



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CHAPTER 1

FOUR IRRESISTIBLE FORCES TO INCREASE LABOR MOBILITY: A COMPREHENSIVE ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT:

The four reasons that are causing more labour mobility in the modern workforce are examined in this study. In quest of job opportunities, professional advancement, and a better work-life balance, people travel between sectors, organisations, and geographic places, which is referred to as labour mobility. Globalisation, technological development, changing demography, and changing job choices are the four factors that this research looks at. Cross-border labour mobility has been made easier by globalization, opening up possibilities for remote employment and overseas assignments. Digital platforms and communication technologies, for example, have made distant work and online collaboration more practical and enticing. Changes in demography, such as a workforce made up of more generations and a wider range of people, have an impact on preferences and patterns of labour mobility. Additionally, people are looking for new possibilities and modifying their professions in response to changing work preferences, such as a need for flexible work arrangements, professional advancement, and greater work-life integration. This study examines the effects and difficulties of greater labour mobility via a thorough assessment of the literature and case studies. It investigates the effects on people, businesses, and society at large.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Mobility, Workforce, Economic Growth, Productivity, Opportunities, Globalization, Technology, Demographic Shifts, Policy Interventions.

INTRODUCTION

Observed gains in labour mobility are now being caused by four unstoppable causes, each of which is expected to gain strength going forward. These factors include salary disparities, demography, globalization's "everything but labour" agenda, and the future of labour demand in industrialised nations in terms of services. The fifthinequalities in salaries between skilled and unskilled workers now are more than twice as great as those that started the industrial revolution in the late nineteenth century.

Massive pay disparities for skilled and unskilled labour have been generated as a result of the large wealth disparity between the poorest and richest nations, and these gaps will almost certainly widen as migratory pressure grows. The concept of disparities creating possibilities for trade is a cornerstone of economics. The wealthy nations especially those of Europe and Japan have started on a historically unusual demographic trajectory that will see rising lifespan and fertility rates below the level needed to replenish the population.

This will result in ratios of the people in retirement to the population in the labour force that have never been seen before during the course of the next fifty years. overlapping young population groups. This disparity in potential labour will provide yet another powerful driver that will promote labour mobility. The post-World War II era has been an experiment in "everything but labour" globalisation, in contrast to the first period of globalisation. However,

if everything else is global communications, financial flows, ideas, and goods the positives from higher labour mobility become more and more obvious and less and less likely to be resisted and the costs from cross-border mobility to the mover grow less. The "hard-core" nontradable service industries, such as truck driving, home health care, and personal services like haircuts, are where employment is growing the fastest in wealthy nations. Although "outsourcing" has drawn the majority of attention in recent years [1]–[3].

Irresistible Force One: Large and Increasing Wage Gaps across Countries

If all else is equal, the urge for mobility grows as the disparity between what individuals earn where they are now and what they may earn by moving increases. This is true even when people make complicated decisions about where to relocate that rely on various social, cultural, and family considerations. People who have sufficiently low earnings may not be able to afford to relocate, preventing increasing gaps from leading to higher mobility, especially if they are caused by the poor's declining wages. This may also imply that increased labour mobility will really be realized when the pay gap narrows as a consequence of rising wages in the world's poorest nations.

Let's examine three sorts of evidence first, starting with the well-known (differences in income between nations), and moving on to the pertinent (gaps in earnings for the same worker across countries, adjusted for education and abilities). First off, due to the tremendous historical widening of the income disparity between wealthy and poor nations, the difference in income between nations is now considerably higher than the gap inside nations. Second, despite the possibility that large income gaps reflect differences in capital or rents from resources rather than wages, the current wage gaps between many potential immigrant-sending and -receiving countries are significantly wider today than they were during the "age of mass migration." Third, regional disparities in wages or income led to a degree of mobility where individuals may alter their earnings by relocating. It's conceivable that cross-national disparities in worker qualities, such as schooling, fully explain cross-national pay discrepancies, rendering them unimportant for worker mobility. But in reality, rather than personal traits, the location of employees in wealthy and poor nations seems to be the main cause of the wage's discrepancy between them.

Divergence and Income Gaps across Countries

In a wealthy industrial nation, the average citizen has a greater standard of living than any monarch, duke, or richest banker in 1820 or even 1870.¹ The most luxurious carriage ever created cannot compare to the suburban chariot, the omnipresent minivan, which offers safer, quicker, and more pleasant transportation. Owners of cellular phones have access to a gadget that can connect with every location on the planet more rapidly and consistently than anything accessible to the most powerful global leader in 1900. Nearly every home in the industrialised world has flush toilets that are linked to incredible waste treatment and disposal systems that get rid of the odour and sickness that even the richest people in the nineteenth century experienced. Digital recordings have made it possible for consumers to access a greater range of better-performed music than even the wealthiest of courts could ever provide. Nearly every kid in the industrialised world is born with a higher chance to reach adulthood than the wealthiest might. This is because health conditions have greatly improved.

The slow but rapid rise in material well-being in those nations at the top of the global income distribution has led to this massive shift. According to traditional metrics, production has increased continuously in the majority of the modern industrialised nations at a rate of at least 2 percent per year since 1870, resulting in average earnings that are ten to fifteen times greater today. Not all nations, nevertheless, have taken part in this expansion. Many nations

continue to have very low incomes that are not just lower than those of the industrialised world today but even below those of the industrialised world in 1870. The combination of several nations underperforming at the bottom and consistent development at the top has prompted a "big time" historical divergence. The disparity in wealth between the richest and poorest nations has grown from 10 to 1 in 1870 to almost 50 to 1 now.

The heroic task of investigating the development of the personal distribution of income over a very long-time scale was taken on by Bourguignon and Morrison (2002). According to their calculations, in 1820, just 10% of the income disparities between all people in the globe were attributable to variations in national average earnings. Being a peasant in England, India, or Ethiopia did not really make a difference in 1820 since life was difficult and there was a wide disparity between the affluent and the poor in each nation. But the majority of inequality in the world today is caused by economic disparities between nations, as shown by the fact that this proportion of global income inequality has increased from 10% to 60% and stayed at this level. Figure 1 represents the equality in incomes over time, showing trend from differences of people within countries and differences across countries, 1800–2000.

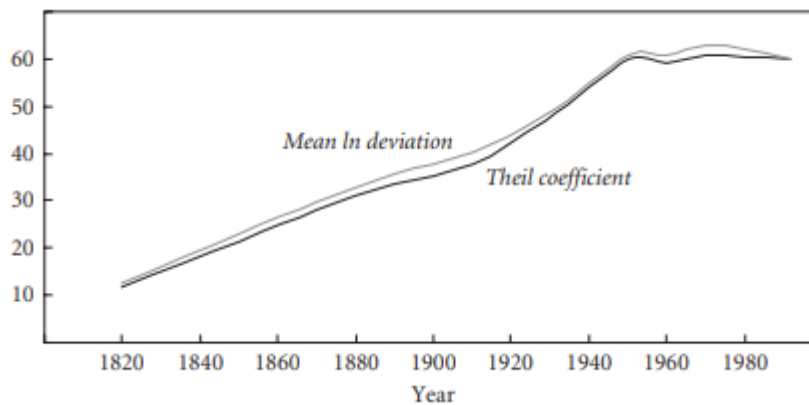


Figure 1: Represents the equality in Incomes over Time, Showing Trend from Differences of People within Countries and Differences across Countries, 1800–2000.

DISCUSSION

Gaps in Wages

The crucial issue for a worker is the difference in earnings that he or she would receive in the two nations, because gaps in income per capita simply hint to migration pressures. Starting with cross-national contrasts, we'll examine this before moving on to direct comparisons.

One may compare earnings per hour in industry across nations using a recent data collection on salaries and hours in the industrial sector. Wages between the OECD nations and the low-wage countries close to the OECD countries vary significantly when PPP is not adjusted. According to this figures from the late 1990s, the hourly pay in Japan is \$13.32, while the hourly income in Vietnam is \$1.32, a difference of 10 to 1. In contrast to Guatemala, where the hourly wage is 76 cents, the United States pays \$13.64 an hour, a difference of 18 to 1. Industrial earnings vary by a factor of 7 even when contrasting an OECD nation like Spain with a middle-income nation like Morocco.

For two reasons, comparing earnings at official currency rates is not the appropriate comparison when labour mobility is taken into account. First, since prices are often lower in poorer nations, official exchange rates tend to overestimate disparities in the value of consumption relative to an hourly worker salary. Second, it is difficult to compare the

"industrial sector" of two nations' employees since the sectors' makeup and skill levels vary. A straightforward example may assist explain the reality of the comparison of earnings based on their buying power in command over consumer items since the PPP calculations often seem to be impenetrable. How much wheat flour must be purchased per kilogramme, and how many minutes of labour must a construction worker put in? While it takes an American construction worker less than 4 minutes to earn enough money to purchase 1 kilogramme of wheat, it takes Mexican and Indian workers more than 1 hour and just under 2 hours, respectively.

What are the pay differences between probable migration partners, according to the fully adjusted PPP comparisons? And how would we be able to determine if these gaps are "big enough" to get beyond the labour movement's many obstacles? It is generally known that there was a great deal of labour mobility during the open migration era in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century. Although it is difficult to compare actual wages⁵, it seems that the pay differences that sparked the late nineteenth century mass migrations were far lower than the real wage gaps between possible migration partners today.

Insofar as they represent disparities in the earnings potential of the same worker, wage discrepancies put pressure on labour mobility. According to the available research, the location of the worker, not their particular traits, accounts for virtually all of the pay gaps between people in wealthy and developing nations.

When employees relocate, their wages mostly resemble those of workers in the new nation rather than where they originally relocated. Numerous empirical research on the factors affecting individual wages have shown that factors including education, work experience, physical strength, and even birth weight are associated with earnings. But upon contemplation, two things become clear. First off, these factors are only able to account for a very small portion of the observed pay differences across nations, given the sizes of these estimated impacts inside national labour markets.

The wage ratio of a person with twelve years of education to someone with only six years (primary education), then, is 1.8, as opposed to the national wage ratios in industry (which almost certainly significantly understate average national wage gaps overall) of six or nine to one. This is based on the straightforward Mincer earnings specification, which states that education increases earnings proportionally and that the wage increment to a year of education is something like 10 percent. While differences in observable individual attributes may account for part of the pay inequalities, these differences and the gaps they create in national labor markets fall well short of adequately explaining the variations between countries^{[4]–[6]}.

Even more revealing, current data on the earnings of migrants before and after moving reveals that their incomes are practically comparable to those of employees in the nation they migrate to and almost nothing like those in the country they move from when they transfer. Using information on worker earnings before and after immigration to the United States, Jasso, Rosenzweig, and Smith (2003) found that the same worker's earnings increased by \$17,000 to \$37,989 (in PPP), or almost twice as much merely by crossing the border.⁷

This is not meant to suggest that new employees would earn instantly 100% of what local workers with comparable education and experience earn. There is a wealth of economic research on the rate at which (and whether at all) the pay difference between native and immigrant workers narrows. The prevalent belief in the past was that salary differences disappeared nearly totally and quite rapidly, but more recent research have shown persisting gaps, especially with certain ethnic groups. However, one might easily miss the argument

concerning labour mobility pressures if they solely use statistics from the host nation (for instance, the United States). Assume, for example, that the earnings of employees with less than a high school diploma converge to just 80% of the pay of native workers with a comparable level of education.

The economic and social realities in the United States may make these fascinating, but basic math suggests that movers are paid far more in the United States than they are in their native countries. Even if newcomers only ever make 80% of the U.S. level, the wage is still \$8 per hour, which is four times higher than wages in the country of origin, something that cannot ever be revealed using only U.S. wage data comparisons. This is because wages for unskilled labour are typically \$10 per hour in the United States and \$2 per hour in another country.

Gaps as a Force for Migration

Greater labour mobility across borders is unavoidably being driven by the differences in wages between employees in different nations. In the age of unrestricted migration (among these nations), migrations from Europe to the territories of recent settlement—the United States, Canada, and Australia, as well as Argentina and Brazil—are extensively recorded. Labour flows were very large for the exporting nations and for some (but not all) of the receiving countries during the forty years between 1870 and 1910. Migration contributed to a growth in the labour force size of 21% in the United States, 40% in Australia and Canada, and 80% in Argentina. On the other hand, the cumulative effect of migration reduced the size of the labour force in Norway and Sweden by 22 and 18%, respectively, as well as in Italy and Ireland by 29 and 41 percent. Workers who are considered "unskilled" by rich-country standards, or who have minimal education, may make far more money working in wealthy nations than in almost any poor nation. In the modern world, the salary inequalities are at historically high levels.

The salary disparities between sending and receiving nations ranged from 2 to 1 (United States / Ireland) to 4 to 1 (United States / Italy, United States / Sweden), which served as the driving force behind the large-scale migrations of the nineteenth century. In the industrial sector, there are now wage gaps between possible sending and receiving nations (based on proximity to one another or shared history) of 6 to 1 (United States / Guatemala), 7 to 1 (United Kingdom / Kenya), or even 9 to 1 (Japan / Vietnam).⁸ Even though transportation costs were higher, travel was more dangerous, and communication with loved ones left behind was much more expensive and less reliable, a wage gap of 4 to 1 between the United States and Italy in 1870 was enough to spur migration that resulted in a population decline of 30% over a forty-year period.⁹ Therefore, it is at least plausible that current wage differences point to forces that could lead to much larger labour movements than those^{[7]–[10]}.

There are two significant limitations to this use of pay differences as a measure of the compelling power of migration, both of which are significant but none of which undercuts the core thesis of sizable and expanding labour movements. The push for labour movements and the tendency to migrate are two different things. The inclination to migrate relies on the worker's capacity to actually make a long-distance relocation, even when the urge for migration may be a monotone function of the pay disparity between two places.

The poorer and less fortunate cannot afford to migrate if there are high fixed expenses associated with migration and financing to cover these costs is expensive or difficult to arrange. The empirical research that looks at actual migration within and between nations and uses historical data supports the idea that the inclination to migrate initially increases with increased wealth, but not all of it does. More individuals are able to react to the need for migration and migrate when earnings rise from very low levels.

CONCLUSION

The four irresistible factors that are highlighted in this study are the main causes of rising labour mobility in the modern economy. Barriers are falling down as a result of globalisation, allowing people to look for possibilities elsewhere.

Technological innovations are transforming sectors and opening up new career opportunities, forcing employees to migrate and adapt. Labour migration trends are also being impacted by demographic changes including ageing populations and changing family configurations. Finally, through fostering favourable circumstances and minimizing possible negative effects, policy actions play a critical role in determining labour mobility. The results draw attention to the advantages of labour mobility, including knowledge transfer, innovation, the development of new talent, and economic growth. For sustainable and inclusive labour mobility, however, issues like brain drain, talent shortages, and socioeconomic inequities must be addressed. With the help of this study, governments, businesses, and people may better understand the factors influencing rising labour mobility and adjust their plans and policies to take advantage of its advantages while minimising its drawbacks.

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CHAPTER 2

ANALYSIS OF TRENDS AND PATTERNS IN INTRA-ASEAN MIGRATION

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ABSTRACT:

This study focuses on people moving inside the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) area and seeks to analyse the trends and patterns of intra-ASEAN migration. Intra-ASEAN migration is the term used to describe the cross-border movement of individuals among ASEAN member nations for a variety of reasons, such as work, education, and family reunion. The research looks at the economic differences, labour market pressures, regional integration initiatives, and cultural links that influence intra-ASEAN migration. It examines the characteristics of intra-ASEAN migrants, including their racial and ethnic backgrounds, educational levels, and industries of work. This study analyses the trends and patterns in intra-ASEAN migration, including the volume of migrant flows, well-liked migration corridors, and migration policy frameworks, via a thorough assessment of the literature, statistical data, and case studies. It also looks at the economic, social, and cultural repercussions of intra-ASEAN migration on both sending and receiving nations. The results draw attention to the advantages and disadvantages of intra-ASEAN migration, including labour market contributions, skills transfer, worries about brain drain, social integration, and remittance flows. Policymakers, academics, and stakeholders may use the insights from this study to better understand the dynamics of intra-ASEAN migration and develop evidence-based policies and strategies to maximise its advantages while mitigating its drawbacks.

KEYWORDS:

Intra-Asean Migration, Asean Region, Labor Migration, Education Migration, Family Reunification, Socio-Economic Impacts.

INTRODUCTION

In many parts of the globe, regional integration has been a key factor in promoting economic and social growth. By extending markets and increasing productivity via the interchange of ideas, it fosters growth. fresh concepts and manufacturing techniques. Sharing natural and human resources may significantly increase the efficiency of a highly linked area. This method makes growth more accessible and promotes significant non-economic advantages including local political stability and security (ADB 2008). Establishing a globally competitive area with a single market and industrial base one that welcomes the free movement of products, services, investment, and skilled labor is a primary goal of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The region has advanced its agenda and taken on new challenges to achieve greater regional cooperation and integration with the founding of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) in December 2015. The four goals of the AEC are to better integrate ASEAN into the global economy, increase competitiveness, promote equitable economic growth, and create a single market and manufacturing base. Members of ASEAN have already made significant investments in establishing physical infrastructure that spans borders and harmonizing market laws that promote investment and trade [1]–[3].

In order to establish a highly interconnected basis for production and commerce, ASEAN has been successful in attracting substantial amounts of FDI from across the world. According to the ASEAN Investment Reports, the area has developed into one of the investment hotspots with the quickest rate of growth in the world, accounting for 18.5% of all worldwide inflows in 2015, up from only 5% in 2007. In comparison to 2007, its total gross domestic product (GDP) has doubled, while the average GDP per person increased by approximately 80% to over \$5,000. Despite the region's variety in cultures, languages, and economic development levels, ASEAN discussions and summits have helped to maintain some degree of peace and stability.

The mobility of people and labor promotes the effective and efficient utilization of human capital as well as the regional knowledge transfer. It is an essential component of the AEC and contains regulations that make it easier for skilled workers, students, and visitors to move around. As several countries transition to knowledge-based economies that demand more innovation, there is a rising desire within the region to take a more proactive role in facilitating and fostering labor mobility especially in recruiting, retaining, and cycling ASEAN's talented workforce. Additionally, regional cooperation will be necessary for a more effective use of human resources due to ageing populations and shifting demographics. In light of regional economic integration, this introductory chapter offers an overview of the most recent trends and patterns in ASEAN's population movement. The dynamics of ASEAN labour migration are discussed in the next two parts, along with how they connect to the larger framework and regional integration strategies. The sections that follow examine potential functions that labour mobility may have in the AEC after 2015.

ASEAN Model of Regional Integration and Its Labor Mobility Framework

The mobility of people and labour promotes the effective and efficient utilisation of human capital as well as the regional knowledge transfer. It is an essential component of the AEC and contains regulations that make it easier for skilled workers, students, and visitors to move around. Within the region, there is a rising desire to play a more active role in facilitating and fostering labour mobility, particularly in recruiting, keeping, and circulating ASEAN's talented workforce. According to Hill and Menon (2014), the economic integration process of the ASEAN has been market- and foreign-oriented.

While maintaining that its major objective is to further the economic and political integration of its members, ASEAN also actively fosters connections with other nations and regions, particularly with the PRC, Japan, and the Republic of Korea (ASEAN13), as well as with the United States (US). The creation of a regional market with an investment environment that attracts both domestic and foreign direct investment (FDI) is one of ASEAN's core strategic goals. ASEAN members range from high-income to upper and lower middle-income nations, as well as numerous low-income ones.

The multifaceted initiatives that make up the ASEAN regional economic integration strategy are aimed at achieving high standards of connectivity, whether it be through physical infrastructures, institutional and policy arrangements (trade/investment agreements and standardised administrative procedure), or human-to-human interactions (in education, tourism, and skills mobility). For 2011–2015 and presently revised until 2025, the Master Plan on ASEAN Connectivity specifies benchmarks and objectives for each effort. The overall outcomes thus far have been outstanding. From \$68.7 billion in 1995 to \$276 billion in 2016, ASEAN's intraregional commerce increased mostly due to the supply of intermediate items for regional value chains. The bilateral export flows between ASEAN nations in 1995 and as those economies grow more knowledge-based and demand more innovation. Additionally,

regional cooperation will be necessary for a more effective use of human resources due to ageing populations and shifting demographics[4]–[6]. In light of regional economic integration, this introductory chapter offers an overview of the most recent trends and patterns in ASEAN's population movement. The dynamics of ASEAN labour migration are discussed in the next two parts, along with how they connect to the larger framework and regional integration strategies. The sections that follow examine potential functions that labour mobility may have in the AEC after 2015.

Each strip or line depicts the volume and direction of exports in proportion from the point of origin (outer circle) to the point of destination (inner circle). Early intra-ASEAN trade flows were dominated by transactions between Malaysia, Singapore, and Thailand. However, in 2016, members' shares of regional exports are distributed more fairly. One of the most economically connected areas in the world, the region established closely knit manufacturing and trade links (ADB 2017).

Between 1970 and 2016, the intra-ASEAN proportion of trade in goods and services, whether for imports or exports, stayed below 30% of annual trade volumes. PRC, Japan, and US are the country's three main commercial partners outside of ASEAN. Meanwhile, ASEAN gained significant FDI inflows from advanced countries, which made up 18.5% of all FDI inflows globally in 2015. By providing members-only benefits, ASEAN distinguishes itself from more institutionalised, official regional economic organisations like the EU. Its regionalism is well-integrated yet open.

DISCUSSION

ASEAN Initiatives on Labor Mobility

As a result of the development of services trade (also known as "Mode 4," or the "movement of natural persons"), which deals with the temporary entrance of skilled workers, ASEAN has long seen labour mobility as a logical extension of free trade and investment. Intra-cooperate transferees, investors, and highly skilled professionals make up this group of individuals. Even though none of the agreements have taken effect as of yet, members have signed at least three pertinent ASEAN-wide accords. In terms of scope, the 1997 General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) and the 1997 ASEAN Framework Agreement on Services (AFAS) are relatively comparable (ADBI 2014). However, AFAS (as of 2012) would be more open on trade in services than GATS if approved, according to the Hoekman Index¹, which measures the amount of openness (Fukunaga and Ishido 2015). The two other accords were made particularly to encourage travel inside ASEAN. According to the ASEAN Framework Agreement on Visa Exemption, residents of ASEAN countries are exempt from needing a visa for up to 14 days of travel. In order to further liberalise the trade in services within the region, the ASEAN Agreement on the Movement of Natural Persons was signed in 2012 (Fukunaga and Ishido 2015). Once again, these agreements have never been put into effect. ASEAN acknowledges that there has been "limited progress on freer mobility of skilled labour in ASEAN.

Migrant Workers in ASEAN

Despite the stagnant ASEAN skills mobility programmes, there has been a significant rise in the number of workers and persons migrating within ASEAN in recent years. With its proportion of all migrants entering ASEAN increasing from 57.6% in 1995 to 70.0% in 2015, intra-ASEAN migration to quadrupled from 2.1 million to 6.9 million. Brunei Darussalam, Malaysia, Singapore, Thailand, Cambodia, Indonesia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic (Lao PDR), Myanmar, the Philippines, and Viet Nam are the nations that make up ASEAN.

Instead of ASEAN-wide efforts, bilateral agreements between source and host countries and the labour and immigration regulations of the host nations generally govern intra-regional movements[7]–[9].

Using data from the UN's bilateral migration pool, it shows the trends of intra-ASEAN movement between 1995 and 2015. Each strip or line shows the amount and direction of migration (in stock) in a proportional manner from the source (outer circle) to the host (inner circle). It is evident that intra-ASEAN labour mobility is concentrated in the Greater Mekong Subregion (GMS), including movement from Malaysia to Singapore and from Malaysia, the Lao PDR, and Cambodia to Thailand. Due to the restricted employment prospects in Myanmar prior to economic reform, many employees are moving towards Thailand where there are greater chances in agriculture, fishing, construction, and domestic services. Despite growing in volume, labour migration from Indonesia to Malaysia and from Malaysia to Singapore showed a fall in their relative proportion. Due to bilateral disagreements, Malaysia's official labour migration from Indonesia was regularly halted during this time. Given its geography, Singapore has limited room to increase its migrant intake since it currently hosts a significant number of foreign people (46% of its present population).

Perhaps surprisingly, the Philippines, one of the world's greatest migrant source nations, has a relatively little impact on intra-ASEAN migration. Vietnam's contribution is likewise tiny and decreasing. The bulk of Filipino and Vietnamese migrants reside and work outside of ASEAN, particularly in the United States, the Middle East, and other Asian nations and territories. Then yet Labour mobility, notably between the Philippines and Malaysia, is probably understated.

According to UN statistics, there were 21,732 fewer Filipinos in Malaysia in 2015 than there were in 1995 (123,116). On the other hand, according to statistics from the Philippine Overseas Employment Administration (POEA), the number of employees leaving the Philippines for Malaysia climbed from 6,768 in 1995 to 26,199 in 2015. Where irregular or short/circular movement is prevalent or when a country provides statistics based on its own definition of international migrants, the UN data may not always give an accurate picture of labour mobility.

Despite the serious consequences it has on the border areas, irregular migration is a touchy subject for many ASEAN countries and is seldom discussed. Although there has been a significant increase in intra-ASEAN migration over the years, the main trends in intra-ASEAN labour mobility have not altered much.

This is in contrast to the commerce (export) trends mentioned above, where networks and linkages inside ASEAN have become stronger. The exchange of products and services and the movement of people vary significantly in that the former is more reciprocal than the latter. Mutual dependence manifests via trade, as in the case of intermediate commodities, although pay disparities often determine the direction and scope of labour mobility. It's interesting to note that the host and origin governments control the majority of the big unidirectional human flow inside ASEAN.

Thailand, for instance, has separate Memorandums of Understanding (MOU) with the governments of Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Myanmar that outline the steps to formalise labour migration. Malaysia has MOUs with a number of significant migrant-source nations, including Indonesia, to improve the governance and transparency of labour migration. With its neighboring ASEAN nations, Singapore primarily makes autonomous decisions regarding labour migration. Labour migration agreements often stay bilateral, in contrast to trade agreements, where multilateral systems are frequently used.

Wage Differentials and Remittances

The ongoing, unequal levels of economic growth in the area are the main cause of significant intra- and cross-border labour movement. In comparison to its neighbours Cambodia and the Lao PDR, Thailand's average monthly pay is three times higher. Between Malaysia and Indonesia, the same is true. Workers of all skill levels are drawn to Singapore by its large salary premium from around the region and beyond.

In 2016, intra-ASEAN worker remittances were \$7.8 billion (12.7% of the \$61 billion in international remittances to ASEAN). In Cambodia, the Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, and Malaysia, intraregional remittance percentages range from 56.7% to 68.0%. The Philippines, Indonesia, and Viet Nam are the three ASEAN nations that receive the greatest remittances, and as a result, the total intra-ASEAN share is still low.

Intra-ASEAN Skilled Worker Migration

It is difficult to assess the magnitude of high-skilled labour movement within ASEAN due to the lack of publicly accessible statistics. Despite continuous efforts, there is no comprehensive source of information on labour mobility by skill or education level. Combining the statistics and information now available reveals that mobility of skilled workers accounts for a very modest proportion of intra-ASEAN migration as a whole. However, its volume and share are probably growing over time.

Although there are many professionals and skilled employees in Singapore, detailed information on their nationality and skill level is not readily accessible. Over 200,000 Malaysians are thought to have higher education in Singapore, where there are 1.1 million of them, according to the UN (World Bank 2014, p. 36). According to data from the Singapore Nursing Board, the number of medical professionals moving to Singapore from other ASEAN nations including the Philippines and Malaysia has increased recently. The proportion of highly skilled migrants in ASEAN nations defined as managers, professionals, and technicians (and allied professions) remains low, with the exception of Singapore. With 18%, Brunei Darussalam has a little larger percentage than the other ASEAN nations, which are different. No more information is available to determine the percentage of ASEAN professionals that hold these roles [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

Recent years have seen remarkable trends and patterns in intra-ASEAN migration, reflecting the region's dynamic character. These patterns have been investigated in this research, emphasising the factors that influence migration, the profiles of migrants, and the socioeconomic effects on both sending and receiving nations. First off, intra-ASEAN mobility is significantly influenced by labour migration. People are looking for work in the neighbouring ASEAN nations due to economic differences and job possibilities. Both skilled and unskilled employees go to industries including manufacturing, construction, household labour, and services. By filling labour shortages in recipient nations and facilitating remittances that assist the development of sending nations, labour mobility within ASEAN has aided economic progress.

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CHAPTER 3

MANAGING LABOR MOBILITY: A MISSING PILLAR OF GLOBAL GOVERNANCE

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ABSTRACT:

This study focuses on the importance of controlling labour migration as a crucial component of global governance. A key feature of the globalised economy is labour mobility, which is the movement of employees across borders in pursuit of job opportunities. However, the current framework for global governance lacks a thorough strategy for managing labour mobility and addressing the benefits and difficulties it presents. The effects of uncontrolled labour mobility are examined in this paper, including problems like brain drain, labour exploitation, social injustice, and economic disturbances. It looks at the need of regulating labour mobility holistically, taking into account the rights and welfare of migrant workers as well as the interests of both sending and receiving nations. This study provides crucial ideas and solutions for regulating labour mobility at the global level via a thorough review of current policies, international frameworks, and case studies. It looks at how developing a just and sustainable system of labour mobility might include international collaboration, labour rights protection, skill recognition, social integration, and development cooperation. The results show the advantages of well managed labour mobility, including greater global governance, knowledge transfer, economic development, and cross-cultural interchange. This study highlights the significance of include labour mobility as a major pillar of global governance for a more inclusive and sustainable world and offers insightful information for policymakers, international organisations, and stakeholders.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Mobility, Global Governance, Globalization, Economic Implications, Social Implications, Political Implications.

INTRODUCTION

The rise in international migrant movements is one of the most obvious effects of globalisation. People traverse international boundaries to access commodities, services, ideas, and money in a world that is becoming more interconnected. on foreign land in their own nations. However, the international regulatory environment in which human movement occurs is constrained and fragmented, providing considerable opportunity for individual nations (mostly recipients) to enforce their national preferences and policies.

When it comes to labour immigration, such rules are often restrictive, particularly with respect to unskilled people. In this context, it appears that the phenomenon of migration is frequently linked to dramatic events that shock the public's sensibilities: individuals risking their lives during sea crossings in flimsy boats, navigating borders while strapped to the chassis of cars, stacked between loads of cargo, or concealed inside the fuselage of aeroplanes. We usually ignore the fundamental truth that most people do not leave their place of birth due to the emotional character of this sort of news (Strubhaar, 2000). Fewer people move than one may think.

Therefore, it is untrue and unfair to assume that if we don't secure borders, a great movement will occur, a kind of "avalanche" of people from the south of the globe. Even the European Union, which has largely removed immigration barriers between its members, has not seen a surge of this magnitude of migration [1]–[3]. In actuality, the United Nations estimates that there were 232 million foreign migrants in 2013. This equates to more than 3.2% of the world's population, relative speaking. When compared to the share of other cross-border business transactions, the ratio does not seem particularly large. However, migration has social and political significance that extends beyond simple statistics because it includes social agents with rights, interests, and personal goals people, not just production variables. International migration has thus emerged in the modern world as a potent driver for social transformation and cross-cultural contact. The spectrum of human abilities and freedoms is also increased by individuals having greater flexibility to select where they live and work.

Both theoretical and empirical research have proven that, when properly managed, migration may possibly increase the effectiveness and welfare of the broader international economic system. Additionally, history demonstrates that migration may, under some conditions, be a powerful force in addressing global injustices, even resulting in a narrowing of the wage gap between the home and host nations (O'Rourke and Williamson, 1999; Hatton and Williamson, 1999 and 2005). In addition to having an impact on the world, migration also increases opportunities for people to improve their own lives by boosting their income, health, education, and living standards. However, migration is noticeably selective. Therefore, it plays a crucial role in development, particularly if we think that individuals, not just nations, are essential.

There are, of course, costs associated with migration, both for the countries of origin (owing to the dissolution of family structures or the loss of human capital, for example) and the destination nations (raising the expense of social policy or decreasing local wages, for example). Additionally, under certain circumstances, when emigration develops into a pervasive and intense phenomenon, it may feed a vicious cycle that encourages the abandonment of productive activities and a regressive dynamic of depopulation in the communities of origin of migrants, or it may fuel aggressive responses in host nations. Through appropriate policies in both the countries of origin and the countries of residence, all of these expenses must be taken into account and, to the greatest degree feasible, reduced.

The attitude towards immigration that is being taken is one of restriction, while other economic flows are being more liberalized. This discrepancy demonstrates the imbalanced character of the present globalization process, which is a barrier to a fuller use of the advantages of migration. Additionally, given the ageing and stagnant demographics of developed nations, the restrictive approach to immigration regulation is in conflict with the demand for migrant labor in those nations.

It also runs counter to the pressure on young people in developing nations to find employment and advance personally. However, a significant portion of immigrants are now residing illegally in their host nations as a result of the disconnect between the powerful reasons that drive migration and the restrictive legislative responses to that phenomenon. This entails consequences for the operation of the society in which they dwell in addition to the immigrants and their families.

The precarious status of many migrant groups has only become worse as a result of the crisis. Increased unemployment among migrants, above and beyond that of the local population, stiffer requirements for new residents in crisis-affected nations, and a limitation - although a limited one - in remittances that migrants send to their family are all results of the economic

slump. The crisis has also stoked uneasiness about immigration, which has led to discriminatory and xenophobic responses even in nations with well-established democracies. This is the crisis' most worrisome consequence.

The significance of migration and the worsening of the circumstances under which it is created point to the necessity for international regulation of the problem. Countries must take action by regulating migrant flows in a realistic and orderly manner. The success of initiatives in this sector to far has been quite modest. Conflicting interests about migration exist across social groupings within nations as well as between the home and host countries, which is one of the causes of this relative failure. However, there is general agreement that better administration of migratory processes might improve the beneficial consequences of migration (and decrease the bad ones), distributing its advantages more equitably and effectively protecting the rights of individuals engaged.

DISCUSSION

Empirical evidence and welfare effect

The number of migrants in the globe now is not entirely accurate information. The irregular living arrangements of many migrants, the lack of a universal definition of what constitutes a migrant¹, and the flaws in the demographic data from low-income nations are all factors in the poor quality of this data. However, in recent years, the accessibility of such empirical data has increased. Data from the United Nations during the last 50 years reveals that, in line with the process of globalization², the trend in international migration has been rising. Due to the unexpected migrant status that former USSR residents gained as a result of relocating to areas other than their birthplaces (later transformed into independent nations), this increasing trend exhibits a (perhaps artificial) leap around the 1980s.³ Aside from that anomaly, the rising trend has been continued, with the exception of the USSR and Czechoslovakia. In terms of dynamics, the number of migrants rose overall at an average annual rate of 2.6% from 1980 and 2010, but following the crisis, between 2010 and 2013, this rate fell to 1.6%. Around 232 million migrants lived in the globe in 2013.

Because illegal immigrants are not well represented in the statistics, this number likely underestimates the full scope of the situation. Depending on the country in issue, estimates place the ratio of undocumented migrants to registered migrants in a broad range of between 5 and 30%.

Effects on global welfare

Economic theory predicts that increased global efficiency will result from migration, which enables people to move from labor-abundant economies, where they are least rewarded and least productive, to labor-scarce economies, where they are more productive and earn more. Therefore, this is not a zero-sum game; despite the fact that not every aspect of society benefits equally from the change, the aggregate outcome is undoubtedly favourable in terms of potential welfare^{[4]–[6]}.

It is intriguing to speculate on the size of the potential advantages under the fictitious scenario of unrestricted human migration. The general equilibrium model (AGE), which was used in the early publications on this topic (such as Hamilton and Whalley, 1984, or Moses and Letnes, 2004), presupposed complete labour mobility. The anticipated advantages were startling: in the first research, entirely unrestricted migration might result in a doubling of global GDP, and in the second study, an improvement in worldwide efficiency may raise GDP by as much as 6 to 47% under the most conservative scenario. A significant portion of the

gains would be realised in the early stages of liberalisation, notwithstanding the unrealistic assumption given by this research (complete labour mobility), which is a strong argument in support of more flexible regulation of migration.

The findings of these investigations were supported by further research. For instance, Iregui (2005) discovered that migration restrictions lower global GDP by 13 to 67 percent, depending on the scenario taken into consideration, using a fully equipped AGE model including commerce. According to Klein and Ventura's growth model, which took into account dynamic impacts, entirely unfettered migration would, under the given assumptions, raise the global GDP by 20–120%. Last but not least, Bradford (2012) used an AGE of one sector model with a continuum of skills and verified the impact of free migration on the growth of the global GDP (by 75%) and the decrease of poverty (by between 66.9 and 43.3%), depending on the assumptions.

Although quantitative estimates fluctuate widely, the impact of free movement is extremely obvious. Similar research was done by the World Bank in 2006, but with a more realistic premise: that the working population in industrialised nations would expand at a pace of 3% year between 2001 and 2025, with immigration being permitted to fill labour shortages as they arise. The net welfare benefits from the aforementioned growth scenario would be close to \$674 million, or 1.19 percent of global GDP, assuming as a baseline the same percentage of immigrants as in 2001. The benefits would amount to 0.63 percent of global GDP if this were modified to take into account the various living standards across nations (also known as Purchasing Power Parity). Given that these people would see a rise in income of roughly 1.8% while industrialised nations would see a 0.4% gain, the allocation of these benefits would favour developing countries. The findings from the World Bank (2006) are extremely comparable to those from van der Mensbrugge and Roland-Host (2009) and Walmsley and Winters (2005), two more recent studies.

A fragmented international order

Given the extent of its beneficial effects, it would be reasonable to anticipate that nations would support international labour migration and work together to establish a universal framework to regulate migrant flows. The contrary trend, however, may be seen: legislative barriers to immigration, especially for unskilled workers, and reluctance on the part of governments to cede their rights and discretion in this regard. As a consequence, there are a number of international organisations with overlapping jurisdictions and a patchwork of fragmented regulations that are poorly maintained. There are also many and diverse bilateral and regional agreements as well as informal channels for communication. Take a moment to scan this scene.

International regulatory framework

The most significant efforts to establish a unified worldwide regulatory framework for labour mobility did not start until the 1940s, with the exception of the occasional attempt in the years between the first and second world wars⁵. Since then, several regulatory attempts have been put out, but they have all only had a very little amount of international support. The ILO has taken the lead in these initiatives and supported some of the ideas that are most often connected to labour mobility.

The ILO Convention 97 (of 1949), which was approved by 42 nations, the majority of which were emigrant countries, was the first initiative. In order to combat employment discrimination against immigrants, the Convention's main recommendation was that nations provide immigrants "treatment no less favourable than that which it applies to its own

nationals." The following areas shall get equitable treatment: i) job conditions, including pay, union membership perks, and housing; ii) social security (including all of its provisions); iii) employment taxes; and iv) other judicial processes involving the Convention. The ILO Convention 97 urges nations to create bilateral agreements for effective migration management.

A second proposal on migration was accepted by the ILO 25 years later: the ILO Convention 143 of 1975, which was ratified by 18 nations. In this instance, combating unauthorised immigration and covert human trafficking was the main objective. In order to combat the end of temporary migration programmes and the effects of the crisis of the 1970s, the Convention also recommended measures aimed at promoting the integration of properly settled migrants. This was done to prevent workers who legally immigrated to new countries from ending up in irregular situations. It also restates the guidelines that say immigrants must be treated fairly and given the same opportunity as local employees. After another 15 years, the International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families was finally passed by the UN General Assembly in 1990. In order to "contribute to the harmonisation of States' attitudes through the acceptance of fundamental principles concerning the treatment of migrant workers and members of their families," the Convention was created.

The Convention takes a broader view than those advocated by the ILO, placing a priority on the complete acknowledgment of migrants' human rights, including those of illegal immigrants. The Convention (in part III) reiterates the requirement that migrants (whether authorised to work or not) receive the same pay and working conditions as natives who perform comparable jobs, recognises the right of migrants to join a union, and establishes the requirement that they benefit from social protection systems. Additionally, it affirms the right of approved migrants to travel around the host nation, to engage in political life, and to use employment services, public housing, and educational institutions under circumstances that are comparable to those of the local population. Only 41 nations, the majority of which are countries with net emigration, have supported the Convention to yet, and it only went into force in July 2003.

Two other conventions that are relevant to significant facets of the global movement of people should be addressed in addition to these, even if they are not specifically related to labour migration. First, there are the 1954 Convention Relating to the Status of Refugee and the 1967 Protocol Relating to the Status of Refugee, which try to control the forced movement of people and the criteria for granting asylum (142 nations have accepted the Convention and the Protocol, respectively). Second, there was the Protocol against Smuggling of Migrants (2004) and the Convention against Transnational Organised Crime (2003), both of which were ratified by 61 and 55 countries, respectively. The Convention was ratified by 107 countries, and the Protocols by 61 and 55 countries, respectively [7]–[10].

Other global legal instruments may even apply to nations that have not ratified the aforementioned Conventions. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights from 1948 and the United Nations Charter from 1944 are unquestionably the broadest of all. The International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights (1966, signed by 154 countries), the International Covenant on Economic, Social, and Cultural Rights (1966, signed by 151 countries), and the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1965, signed by 170 countries) are the other five legal frameworks that are pertinent to migration. It is obvious that all of these treaties provide a regulatory framework that governs people's rights, including those of migrants, regardless of their administrative status, and that nations should uphold these regulations.

CONCLUSION

Although it continues to be a neglected facet of global governance, labour mobility plays a key role in the globalised world. The economic, social, and political ramifications of labour mobility have been underlined in this essay, emphasising the necessity for its inclusion in international governance frameworks. Policymakers can harness labour mobility's potential advantages and mitigate its drawbacks by managing it well. Labour mobility has an impact on the economy via having an impact on productivity, knowledge transfer, and economic development. However, it is essential for inclusive growth to manage the distributional implications and guarantee fair labour standards.

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CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND DETERMINATION OF NON-BINDING MECHANISMS

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ABSTRACT:

This study focuses on identifying and analysing non-binding processes within the framework of global governance. Non-binding mechanisms, which encourage cooperation, norms, and standards among governments and other stakeholders, are voluntary instruments with no enforceable legal duties. Examining the efficacy, benefits, and drawbacks of non-binding systems in resolving global issues and furthering goals of global governance is the goal of this research. It examines numerous kinds of non-binding rules and regulations, such as declarations, rules, conduct codes, and best practises. This study evaluates the function of non-binding procedures in areas including human rights, environmental protection, commerce, and cybersecurity via a thorough evaluation of the literature, case studies, and empirical analysis. It investigates how they affect stakeholder involvement, policy convergence, norm dissemination, and state behaviour. The results underscore the benefits of non-binding procedures, including their adaptability, inclusiveness, and receptivity to new problems. To maximise their efficacy, nevertheless, issues with implementation, accountability, and enforcement must be resolved. Policymakers, international organisations, and stakeholders may benefit from these insights to better understand the function of non-binding mechanisms in global governance and to guide the development, acceptance, and use of these mechanisms.

KEYWORDS:

Non-Binding Mechanisms, Soft Law, Global Governance, Guidelines, Cooperation, Principles, International Relations, Norm Diffusion, Adaptive Governance.

INTRODUCTION

Along with the legally obligatory rule, the United Nations-sponsored World Summits of the 1990s addressed the status of migrants. All of them led to action plans that had the support of the international community, despite the fact that those accords lacked legal force. The Cairo Programme of Action of the International Conference on Population and Development (1994), which devoted a sizable portion (chapter X) to addressing different elements of migration, is the one that among them provided the most thorough analysis of migratory movements. There was a demand for "orderly international migration that can have positive impacts on both communities of origin and the communities of destination" in the Conference's comprehensive and well-balanced statement. Other agreements that have an impact on international migration include the Beijing Platform of Action of the Fourth World Conference on Women (1995), the Vienna Declaration and Programme of Action on Human Rights (1993), and, more recently, the Durban Declaration and Programme of Action, which was approved by the World Conference on Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia, and Related Intolerance[1]–[3].

NIROMP (New International Regime for Orderly Movement of People), supported by the United Nations and several European governments, was launched at the end of the 1990s with the goal of improving migration governance. The Berne Initiative, promoted by Switzerland, brought together policymakers, NGOs, and academics to study migration and its effects. The creation of an International Agenda for Migration Management, which provides a framework of non-binding agreements to encourage collaboration between States in the planning and management of human mobility, was one of the key outcomes of this most recent endeavour.

The ILO attempted to codify specific concepts, strategic directives, and best practices into a broad framework in a similarly non-binding manner in order to advance labor standards. The ILO Multilateral Framework on Labour Migration was one of several initiatives the ILO took in the middle of the 2000s to consider the social implications of globalization. At its 2006 Conference, the ILO decided to distribute this document, which, while predicated on the notion of acknowledging the sovereignty of states, aimed to increase the area of international cooperative action by adopting a strategy based on the recognition of migrant workers' rights and one that is sensitive to the needs of the market. The United States General Secretary decided to establish the Global Commission on International Migration in 2003 with the goal of "providing the framework for the formulation of a coherent, comprehensive and global response to the issue of international migration," given the scope of the theme and the paucity of the international response.

In its opening statement, the Commission acknowledged that "the international community has failed to take advantage of the opportunities and to address the challenges associated with international migration." Additionally, it emphasizes that "migration is an inherently transnational issue, requiring cooperation between states at the sub-regional, regional, and global levels" even if it is assumed that individual nations would determine migration regulations and policies. The Commission examines a number of pertinent areas related to migration, including its effects on labour markets, development processes, security concerns and unauthorised migration, issues with social cohesion and integration, the legal framework governing immigrant rights, and the governance of flows. Six action principles are included in its report, which serve as a summary of its key points.

Institutions

Regarding international solutions, the administration of migration is neither more organised nor less fragmented. Many organisations have overlapping responsibilities for different parts of migration movements. For instance, the ILO specialises in migrant workers' rights, ACNUR concentrates on the conditions of the refugee and asylum-seeking population, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights is charged with defending the rights of migrants who have been trafficked, and UNESCO, the FNUAP, and the Office of the United Nations Against Drugs and Crime all have mandates involving areas specifically related to migrants. Other agencies, such as DESA, the UNDP, and the World Bank, manage these sectors while not having regulatory authority. Last but not least, there is the International Organisation for Migration, which, although having no regulatory authority and not even being a member of the United Nations system, is charged with promoting technical support to countries to better the formulation of migration policy. These organisations are all a member of the Global Migration Group, which was founded to promote "the adoption of more coherent, comprehensive, and better coordinated approaches to the issue of international migration." The Global Migration Group was originally known as the Geneva Migration Group.

Economic policy of migration

There is a significant disconnect between what theoretical simulations of migration's advantages predict and the way the problem is actually managed internationally. This disparity calls into question the most widely accepted theoretical explanation for migration and forces us to develop a more plausible theory.

DISCUSSION

The difficult aligning of competing interests

Many research on the effects of migratory freedom on welfare utilize an analytical framework that is quite similar to that which is used to support the benefits of free movement of money and commerce (Mundell, 1968). However, because of the unique aspects of international migration, such reference points are not entirely suitable. Here, three factors stand out as being very important: the goal of gaining an ever-increasing absolute advantage through innovation and technological change, but in the medium term, the rate of change, along with the differences in income growth, functions as an adjustment mechanism that converts absolute advantages into comparative advantages that are distributed (not always equally) among the participating countries. As a consequence, a two-way flow (imports and exports) between nations is what is anticipated in the realm of commerce. However, in the case of international migration, the flow may only be in one direction due to the more developed nation's pursuit of higher productivity in numerous industries. Since it is unlikely that the pace of change acts as an adjustment mechanism in this situation, the perception of the flow as being unidirectional might persist over time.

The potential complementarity between physical and human capital, which is at the core of the developing new theory, is another explanation for this unidirectional flow. Qualified labour, unskilled labour, and physical capital might all move concurrently and cumulatively towards the more comparably developed economy under this situation. owing to the relative scarcity of the element in one instance (that of unskilled labour), and owing to the higher productivity that results from their complementarity in other instances (physical and human capital), respectively. This results in a compounding dynamic that drives the processes of divergence between emigration-producing nations and migrant-receiving countries.

The heterogeneousness of the labour factor

A second unique characteristic is the labour factor's notable heterogeneity, which is mostly caused by the diverse degrees of worker qualification. Skilled labour is said to have significant externalities if it increases productivity, fosters institutions with high institutional quality, and increases the economy's tax resources. Because of this, skilled labour exodus may result in unanticipated negative impacts for the home nation (as well as unexpected advantages for the host country). If we consider: (i) the public origin of the resources with which that human capital is produced to a considerable part; and (ii) the societal utility of certain of their tasks (health professionals, for example), those expenses become even bigger. In these scenarios, skilled worker migration would create a conflict between the social objectives of the nation of origin and the private interests of the emigrants.

Those who see benefits in the departure of professionals and skilled workers disagree with this viewpoint. The likelihood of emigration will boost the return on investment in human capital and encourage more individuals to pursue education if educational investments provide greater returns abroad than in the place of origin. Accordingly, this represents a "brain-drain-induced-brain-gain" The following three additional possible benefits of eligible

individuals migrating abroad: As long as the emigrant returns, experience and education acquired through migration can be an asset to the home country can also help build networks for international business and they can result in higher levels of remittances contests a few of these claims. The attempt to elucidate the controversy and provide empirical proof about this subject has been far from successful. Overall, it seems that the externalities associated with human capital, the rate of emigration taken into account, and the sensitivity of educational choices to prospects abroad all have a significant impact on the repercussions of the loss of skilled persons.

Effects on consumers

The manner that both movements influence consumers is the third way that international migration and commerce vary from one another. While migration-induced movements mostly benefit the migrants, trade-induced shifts in pricing and output benefit consumers in both exporting and importing nations. Undoubtedly, a decrease in manufacturing costs would help consumers in the host nation, but the impact would be minimal. The meagre benefits that international migration brings to consumers in the host country may also be offset by the negative externalities that the process creates in terms of sustainability, accessibility, and the standard of the goods and public services that the recipient State offers is one of the things that best explains why so many people in receiving nations are reluctant to immigrate or feel negatively about it. According to Hainmueller and Hiscox (2010), who used survey data from the United States, native-born residents of states that offer generous social benefits to migrants also prefer to reduce the number of migrants. In a similar vein, also using opinion surveys, found evidence to support their findings. Nevertheless, immigrants not only use social services but also help to pay for them.

Therefore, it is crucial to consider how well both flows are balanced. However, since the findings of empirical research heavily rely on the features of migration (such as skill level and age), we are unable to draw a firm conclusion on the subject. In general, a youthful, talented immigrant may contribute to the welfare state's finances, but an elderly, unskilled immigrant may place a net strain on social costs. Last but not least, emigration is a source of a particular kind of externality related to how the local community views the presence of groups with different languages and cultures from their own. Some individuals believe that the presence of people from different societies outside of their own threatens their way of life, culture, language, and religion[4]–[6].

communities. Others, however, see interaction with other populations as a chance to broaden their cultural perspectives. Taking into account these details would indicate that the most traditional doctrinal framework, based on trade theory, is insufficient to comprehend the consequences of migration and results in a less precise overview. Despite the fact that labour mobility may contribute to higher levels of overall wellbeing, it appears that: i) full labour market liberalization may not be the ideal way to allocate labour globally; and ii) given the asymmetrical incentives that accompany migration, it is logical to assume that there is no correlation between the positions of countries with net emigration and host countries.

The difficulties of cooperative action

unbalanced, making it difficult to come to agreements. The host country's lack of trained workers would actively be opposed to liberalization; on the other hand, the plenty of capital would make it possible for consumers to be neutral if the process' negative externalities were not taken into account. Since it is unlikely that the human capital, which is plentiful in the developed nation, would consider migration in the reverse meaning, to the developing country, as an option, reciprocity does not promote agreement in this scenario.

When we consider the freedom of capital mobility and the presence of negative externalities related to migrant access to benefits and social services in the host nation, the challenges of coming to a consensus are exacerbated. In the first instance, this results from the fact that capital loses interest in immigration if it can join nations with cheaper labour costs, and in the second, consumers may actively oppose liberalisation due to negative externalities. The action plan in this situation resembles a "bully game," in which it is challenging to achieve a cooperative equilibrium without altering the incentives under which the participants are acting. As in this case, there is no reciprocity of interest between the two groups of countries (sending and receiving migrants), there are imbalances in their bargaining positions, and there is no hegemonic power to promote and protect such an agreement. These factors make it difficult to reach an agreement.

The foundation for a more adequate international governance of migration

Despite the issues mentioned, it is necessary to establish an international framework to aid in maximising the advantages of human mobility and more fairly distributing those advantages. Many of the commissions that looked at the governance of the globalisation process have made this demand. For instance, the Willy Brandt Commission emphasised the need for a "framework that would be more just and equitable" for migration in the early 1980s; the Commission on Global Governance discussed the need for a new strategy for managing migration in the 1990s; and finally, the Commission on Migration and Development devoted a significant portion of its reflections to this theme, stating that "in the longer term a more fundamental overhaul of the current institutional architect is required." However, it also acknowledged that "at this time, there is no consensus regarding the introduction of a formal global governance system for international migration, involving the establishment of new international legal instruments or agencies." The examples mentioned indicate that creating a framework for better governance of migration is not an easy process. The objective is to strike a balance between the fundamental allocation advantages of unrestricted international migration and the contentious distribution and external impacts of cross-border migrations by defining an international framework based on the acknowledgment of human rights.

General framework

The number of migrants in the globe now is not entirely accurate information. The irregular living arrangements of many migrants, the lack of a universal definition of what constitutes a migrant¹, and the flaws in the demographic data from low-income nations are all factors in the poor quality of this data. However, in recent years, the accessibility of such empirical data has increased. Data from the United Nations during the last 50 years reveals that, in line with the process of globalization, the trend in international migration has been rising. Due to the unexpected migrant status that former USSR residents gained as a result of relocating to areas other than their birthplaces (later transformed into independent nations), this increasing trend exhibits a (perhaps artificial) leap around the 1980s.³ Aside from that anomaly, the rising trend has been continued, with the exception of the USSR and Czechoslovakia.

In terms of dynamics, the number of migrants rose overall at an average annual rate of 2.6% from 1980 and 2010, but following the crisis, between 2010 and 2013, this rate fell to 1.6%. Around 232 million migrants lived in the globe in 2013. Because illegal immigrants are not well represented in the statistics, this number likely underestimates the full scope of the situation. Depending on the country in issue, estimates place the ratio of undocumented migrants to registered migrants in a broad range of between 5 and 30%. Developed nations have taken over as the primary migratory destinations since the middle of the 1980s. In actuality, whereas the growth rate of the migrant stock in rich nations was 3.3% throughout

the time period, it reached 1.7% in emerging countries. 59% of migrants in 2013 were centered in wealthy nations. More precisely, Asia follows with a roughly comparable number of migrants, followed by Europe and North America. If the ratio of immigrants to host populations is taken into account, North America and Oceania have the highest coefficients (at 14.9% and 20.7%, respectively), with Europe coming in second at 9.8%. Less than 2% of the host population in the other areas are immigrants, and there are certain migration modes (such as family reunion) that are difficult to navigate. included in any of them, but the division makes sense inasmuch as the reasons for each kind of migration and the approaches that nations should take to Every one of them is really distinctive.

Assisting the refugee population necessitates a global approach since it is based on rights that are universally acknowledged and result from shared responsibilities. Any regulatory solution in this area should be built on the universality of the standards. That is what takes place at the moment. In reality, it is the only area of migration that has both a multinational agency (UNHCR) with a clear mission and a legal framework with broad backing[7]–[10]. On the other hand, there are the fewest formal governance institutions in the situation of labor mobility. It is the area where the most flexibility is needed to modify governance solutions to the unique circumstances of the nations. Therefore, formulas must be adaptable, restricting global action to the outlining of certain minimally agreed criteria and leaving it to the nations to specify subsequent commitments. That stands in sharp contrast to how refugees are handled.

A second crucial choice is whether the global governance framework should be envisioned as a centralised solution that operates through a single regulatory framework and institution (a top-down dynamic) or whether it is preferable to advance from more modest commitments (regional and bilateral) in the search for a more comprehensive framework (a bottom-up dynamic).

The first method has the benefit of allowing for a more cogent resolution and assuring an effective and equitable handling of the global externalities related to migratory phenomena. The drawbacks of this alternative, meanwhile, are the significant challenges involved in developing a unified institutional and legal framework that wins enough international acceptance. The lack of support for the prior rule that was put up in this area says a lot.

CONCLUSION

In a world marked by intricate interdependencies and disparate state interests, non-binding procedures, often known as soft law tools, have become crucial to global governance. The function and importance of non-binding mechanisms have been examined in this research, with an emphasis on their benefits, drawbacks, and potential uses. In order to handle global concerns, non-binding procedures provide a flexible and adaptive strategy. They promote collaboration and mould behaviour without imposing legally enforceable requirements by providing principles, guidelines, and best practises.

This adaptability enables nations to respond to changing conditions and encourages the development of novel solutions to challenging issues. crucial choice is whether the global governance framework should be envisioned as a centralised solution that operates through a single regulatory framework and institution (a top-down dynamic) or whether it is preferable to advance from more modest commitments (regional and bilateral) in the search for a more comprehensive framework (a bottom-up dynamic).

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The drawbacks of this alternative, meanwhile, are the significant challenges involved in developing a unified institutional and legal framework that wins enough international acceptance. The lack of support for the prior rule that was put up in this area says a lot.

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CHAPTER 5

THE INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF STUDENTS AND ITS LINKSWITH LABOR MIGRATION

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ABSTRACT:

This study looks at how student mobility abroad and labour migration are related to one another. It focuses on higher education and career training programmes as it examines patterns and trends in international student mobility. The research looks at the elements that influence students' choices to study abroad, such as academic possibilities, financial outlooks, and labour market concerns. The reasons, difficulties, and results for those who decide to stay in the host country after finishing their studies are also explored, as are the paths and transitions from student mobility to labour migration. The research also looks at the implications of student mobility on both sending and receiving nations, including changes in the labour market, the transfer of information, and the effects of brain drain. It also takes into account the policy ramifications and suggestions for maximizing the potential advantages of student mobility while minimising any negative effects.

KEYWORDS:

International Mobility of Students, Labor Migration, Education Abroad, Economic Implications.

INTRODUCTION

There are various reasons why international student mobility is high on policy agendas in many nations. First off, since 2005, almost all nations have seen an increase in the number of overseas students, who are becoming an increasingly significant component of temporary migrant patterns. This rise has mostly been fueled by Asia, whose significance as an area of origin and increasingly as a destination has expanded significantly. The rivalry for overseas students has grown as destinations have changed[1], [2].

an increasing number of nations see the movement of foreign students as a source of labour. Background: There is strong evidence that foreign education is often undervalued in the labour market of the host nation, especially if it was earned in a nation with a lower overall development level. Employers often have a misunderstanding regarding the value of degrees earned abroad. International students, on the other hand, graduate with tertiary degrees from local institutions that are quickly "recognised" by companies.

Thus, there is no ambiguity with respect to real worth or other recognition-related concerns. Promoting student mobility is often seen as a key component of a larger plan to encourage skill development and mobility. This is a crucial issue in regions with free movement, such as the European Union (EU)/European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the emerging Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) Economic Community, where a free movement zone for skilled labour is expected to be implemented by 2015.

and directly related to the second issue, there have been some reservations regarding the possible misuse of the student channel as a quick and loosely regulated "backdoor" for

labormigration. Last but not least, the market for international students is becoming a more significant economic component. Export education is a significant source of foreign currency, especially in nations with high tuition costs and big numbers of overseas students.

Trends in International Student Migration

Numerous students from throughout the globe continue to go to other nations for international studies. They currently number well over 3 million, up more than a third since 2005, in Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) and Asian non-OECD nations for which statistics are available. Keep in mind that these numbers only apply to students enrolled in full-degree programmes; they do not account for the large number of students who just study abroad for a semester or two but get credit for it at their home institution. In recent years, there have also been considerable increases in this area. Scholarships like the Erasmus Programme in Europe and other tools like the ASEAN University Network in Asia, which has a credit transfer system, make it possible for such very brief student migrations.

Also keep in mind that since international student data refer to students enrolled in full-degree programmes, which typically last several years, such increases in the stocks of international students frequently reflect much stronger increases in new international student inflows—for which data, however, are scarce. Additionally, several nations have had even higher rises, like the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic, New Zealand, and the Republic of Korea. The Republic of Korea and the Slovak Republic have had the largest relative rise, with an increase in foreign student migration of more than four times between 2005 and 2011.

The United States, which hosts 25% of all overseas students in the OECD, is the most significant destination nation in terms of absolute numbers, followed by the United Kingdom (15%), France (10%), and Australia (9%).

Thus, there is a substantial concentration among the nations that speak English. Market shares for Japan and the Republic of Korea are 5% and 2%, respectively. Since 2000, the Republic of Korea's market share has multiplied nine times, making it the highest market share growth of any nation. The Republic of Korea still has a small number of overseas students in comparison to the overall tertiary student population. It is the least popular of the top 10 destination nations, with just 2% of foreign students. With 20% each, Australia and Austria have the highest percentages, followed by the United Kingdom (17%).

The People's Republic of China (PRC), Malaysia, and Singapore are also significant recipients among Asian non-OECD nations. With around 300,000 foreign students in 2011, the PRC is currently the third-most popular study abroad destination in the world. Since 2005, the number of overseas students has more than doubled. Singapore welcomed 92,000 international students in 2010, closely followed by Malaysia, which had 90,000. Foreign students have significantly increased in number in Malaysia in recent years, more than tripling in only five years. Thailand is another rising travel destination. Although the numbers have more than quadrupled since 2005, its prominence still remains below that of the PRC, Malaysia, and Singapore. Foreign students from Asia currently make up 52% of all foreign students in the OECD region, with a total of about 1.5 million.

Over the last five to ten years, Asia as an origin area has shown disproportionate development. With the exception of the top 10 destinations for foreign students, its significance in comparison to other origin areas has grown. The proportion of international students to total foreign-born citizens in the population provides an alternative metric. Only a small number of OECD nations, including Austria, Finland, France, Japan, and the United

Kingdom, have a ratio greater than 1. The highest rates are seen in Asian nations, particularly the PRC, and they show a relatively considerable internationalization of their postsecondary education sector compared to the general population[3], [4].

DISCUSSION

Tuition Fees

International students pay a variety of tuition rates. International students sometimes pay greater tuition costs; it's not unusual for annual tuition to exceed €10,000 in several nations. Some nations, such as the Czech Republic and Finland, do not charge tuition fees to visitors who study in their native tongues, although they do so otherwise. High tuition costs and a sizable influx of overseas students have made education a substantial economic sector in nations like Australia, New Zealand, and the United Kingdom. The instance of Denmark is intriguing. The number of foreign students enrolling in degree programmes significantly decreased in 2008, from 12,700 to 6,400, after the introduction of tuition fees for international students in 2007. However, this reduction was quickly reversed the following year, and the number of international students increased to 20,300 in 2011.

Thus, it seems that the decrease in enrolment caused by the introduction of tuition fees was only a temporary blip. France and Germany, two popular study abroad destinations with low to no tuition fees, have experienced much slower growth in student enrollment than some of those with fees, indicating that there is little correlation between tuition fees and a country's "attractiveness" to foreign students. Nevertheless, given that English-speaking nations have a distinct edge, this appears to be at least somewhat related to linguistic concerns.

Fields of Study

In general, there aren't much distinctions in terms of specialisation between international students and the overall student population at least not at the aggregate level despite the fact that they are strongly represented in all major disciplines of study. They are more prevalent in the social sciences and business, as well as in the sciences and engineering, as compared to the general student body. However, they are underrepresented in the humanities, a field in which fluency in the language of the host nation is crucial. Additionally, there is a lack of international students among students who study health and welfare.

Attracting International Students

Many nations have put in place particular programmes to draw in foreign students. For instance, Japan launched a strategy in 2008 with the aim of enrolling 300,000 international students by the year 2020. The strategy has five pillars: (i) promoting study abroad; (ii) easing admission and enrollment processes; (iii) internationalising Japanese institutions; (iv) improving the study environment for foreign students; and (v) providing opportunities for status adjustments after graduation. Informational campaigns on studying in Japan, promotion of student exchange, international credit transfers, and joint degree programmes, scholarships and lodging for international students, and assistance with job hunting after graduation are some of the actions that have been taken in this regard. Japan has adopted a dual approach to language.

One aspect of the approach is the promotion of Japanese language instruction overseas and Japanese language instruction for foreign students. Additionally, full-degree programmes in English are being expanded, and the teaching staff is becoming more diverse.

International Students as a Source of Labor

The initial step towards future residence in the host country is often international study. Although many international programmes are offered in English, graduates may not have a wide selection of job options in their home countries of study if English is not widely spoken in the workplace. The latter may act as a transitional language in nations where a sizable section of the population speaks English while the immigrant learns the native tongue, which will probably be essential for proper assimilation into the host country. In recent years, an increasing number of nations have tried to entice foreign students as labour sources by granting them the ability to work while they are studying and by giving them the chance to alter their status and migrate to another country after completing their studies[5], [6].

Work during Studies

Nowadays, the majority of study locations let students to work while they are enrolled, often 20 to 24 hours a week throughout each term. There are often particular guidelines for extra work over the semester break. For instance, in Japan, during the summer and winter holidays, students are permitted to work a maximum of 8 hours per day or 28 hours per week. International students in Taipei, China, are permitted to work 16 hours a week while attending classes. Even though student employment may not always assist in eventual employment, it does provide the student some acquaintance with the regional labour market and practises. Work in one's area might be very crucial for boosting the probability of landing a job following graduation.

However, student labour is often seen in lower-skilled professions. On the one hand, this still gives students access to funding and their first job, which increases their likelihood of staying in the nation.

On the other hand, these are the occupations where competition with native youngsters with low education levels is most probable, and there may be worry about a detrimental influence on their opportunities in the labour market. Even in nations with a large number of overseas students, the little research suggests that such a negative effect is often modest. Over the last several years, there has been a major liberalisation of the rules governing overseas students' entry to the labour market, particularly in the non-English speaking European nations. The worry about compliance has also grown at the same time, particularly in light of pupils who work rather than study.

Status Changes after Graduation

Before committing to a longer-term decision to remain in the host country, students who study abroad have the chance to gain information about that nation and get acclimated to its culture. After completing their studies, these graduates obtain a local degree that is easily recognised on the job market in the host nation, which benefits employers. Despite attempts to make recognition easier, such as in the ASEAN area, such concerns with recognition remain a significant barrier for those with foreign degrees who want to migrate internationally for work. Although this isn't always true when the study language was a foreign language, having a degree from the host country is also often linked to improved language proficiency in that nation. The prospective immigrant's persistence, self-control, and determination to adapt to the milieu of the host country may also be indicated by this. People who have studied in the nation often have some awareness of job search strategies and working customs there, allowing a smooth transfer into the workforce. Finally, since student migrants are young, the financial benefits of their education really accrue over the course of their whole working lives[7]–[10].

Before recently, it was often forbidden for overseas students to alter their status. Sometimes, this was done in order to defend the native labour against foreign competition. However, it was more often believed that foreign students, especially those from underdeveloped nations, should return to their home countries after completing their studies in order to prevent a brain drain. Overseas graduates' post-study entrance into the labour market has also been given significant thought due to the effects of the recession on the local workforce. Countries are making an effort to prevent the use of overseas study as a simple "backdoor" for labour migration. The need for a match between the subject of study and the career chosen following graduation is notable in many nations.

In reality, creating such a relationship is not always simple. Such a prerequisite may also favour general courses (like management) over those that are more specialized. Globally, however, more liberal perspectives on employment possibilities and rights are still on the rise. In addition, there is a growing trend towards studying in English, which is increasing competition for foreign students and diversifying the countries that serve as destinations.

Skilled Labor Mobility in Asia

One of the primary forces behind international migration is the imbalance between labour supply and demand, particularly when globalisation fosters increased economic specialisation and rapid development. In Asia, where many nations have seen fast growth, notable changes in the educational backgrounds of young people, as well as significant changes in their roles in the global economy, these developments are especially obvious. As productivity in the industrial sector has increased and the farm sector in emerging Asian nations has shrunk, new skill demands have arisen. Asian economies are also affected by the global skills rivalry, which is already a policy issue in the majority of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) nations.

While the free movement of goods within the region and with other regions has increased, the free movement of labour is more difficult to achieve. Matching supply and demand is difficult due to the emigration policies in the country of origin and the immigration laws in the country of destination, in addition to the difficulty in recognising opportunities and finding compatibilities. In light of these factors, this chapter first examines Asia's contribution to skilled immigration to OECD nations and the magnitude of skilled immigration from Asian nations. Finally, it addresses recent policy trends in this area after examining how both the countries of origin and destination evaluate the needs of the labour market for skilled migrants.

CONCLUSION

Students' global mobility and its connections to labour migration have a big impact on people, cultures, and economies. The link between student mobility and labour migration has been examined in this study, with a focus on important results and factors. Student mobility, which is influenced by a variety of factors including high-quality education, job possibilities, and cultural exposure, often results in paths into the workforce.

Many students decide to study abroad with the hope of learning important information and skills that would improve their chances of finding job after graduation. While the free movement of goods within the region and with other regions has increased, the free movement of labour is more difficult to achieve. Matching supply and demand is difficult due to the emigration policies in the country of origin and the immigration laws in the country of destination, in addition to the difficulty in recognising opportunities and finding compatibilities. In light of these factors, this chapter first examines Asia's contribution to skilled immigration to OECD

nations and the magnitude of skilled immigration from Asian nations. This link between labour migration and student mobility underlines how closely related job and education are in today's globalised society.

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CHAPTER 6

ASSESSING LABOR MARKET REQUIREMENTS FOR FOREIGN WORKERS

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ABSTRACT:

The purpose of this study is to evaluate the labour market demands for foreign employees and how they may affect labour migration policy. Countries are challenged to satisfy their labour demand via both local and imported labour as labour markets grow more globally integrated. This research focuses on the evaluation of labour market needs, including skill shortages, demographic shifts, and sector-specific demands, which drive the need for foreign employees. It looks at the methods used by various nations to identify the demands of the labour market, including occupation listings, skill evaluations, and labour market testing. This study assesses the efficacy and difficulties involved in determining the labour market needs for foreign workers by a thorough review of the literature, policy papers, and empirical studies. It investigates how international labour affects domestic employment, economic growth, and social dynamics.

The results demonstrate the advantages of matching labour supply and demand, which include closing important skill gaps, encouraging innovation, and maintaining economic development. To establish a just and equitable system of labour migration, issues including exploitation, social integration, and labour market inefficiencies must be addressed. Policymakers, employers, and other stakeholders in labour migration governance may benefit from the insights provided by this study, which supports the establishment of effective and moral labour migration policies via evidence-based decision-making.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Market Requirements, Foreign Workers, Labor Market Analysis, Skills Assessment, Forecasting, Policymakers, Stakeholders, Sustainable Labor Market.

INTRODUCTION

The presence of a labour shortage is not a given; rather, it relies in part on an evaluation made in relation to benchmarks. Vacancies by themselves may not always indicate shortages; for instance, they can be brought on by inadequate pay or unfavourable working circumstances rather than a lack of labour.

However, the majority of industrialised nations analyse and assess labour shortages; for qualified workers, these conclusions of shortages are often connected to needs under migration regimes. Many OECD nations utilise shortage lists to decide who qualifies for immigration or to make it easier to find workers abroad for certain jobs. Various labour market indicators, such as registered unemployment, vacancy rates, and duration, as well as qualitative considerations, such as stakeholder testimony or negotiations with employers and employee representatives, are taken into account when creating shortage lists. For instance, the independent Migration Advisory Committee of the United Kingdom follows this paradigm. Skill shortage lists have not been widely used in emerging Asian nations, and they have very limited experience outside of OECD nations[1]–[3].

One strategy for addressing the skills gap via migration is to wait for companies to start the recruiting process. Another option is to consider applicants' personal traits and the possibility that they will find work while deciding whether or not to accept them without a job offer in hand. Ranking migrants according to various criteria (education, experience, age, etc.) using a points-based system and accepting those ranking highest is a frequent method for selecting probable successful migrants. This approach has been utilised widely in Canada and New Zealand as well as adopted to a lesser degree in other nations. It has been in use in Australia since the 1960s. However, point-based systems did not always produce employees who were well-suited for the labour market, often because their qualifications did not transfer into actual job benefits.

Recognising credentials is one aspect of skilled migration where institutions from the origin nation may have a role. The acknowledgment of credentials is a crucial procedural step if labour market analysis is one of the criteria for admitting skilled foreign employees. Processing timeframes and accessibility of foreign recruiting are determined by the actors and the recognition process. Australia, for instance, delegates the recognition of foreign credentials to 36 national and 18 state bodies, and evaluation must be finished before application. Australia employs shortage occupation listings in its admission procedure. Institutions in the countries of origin may be crucial in fostering skilled migration and determining a worker's suitability for the job market. For instance, the Overseas hiring Corporation (OEC) in Pakistan encourages the hiring of professionals, highly trained employees, and other workers abroad. The National Vocational and Technical Training Commission (NAVTTTC), a vocational training and certification organisation, seeks to ultimately award employees' credentials that are recognised by employers and destination nations in the global labour market.

The shortages and skill requirements of destination nations must be considered by origin countries seeking to improve the mobility of their skilled labour force. An example of this research may be seen in India, where the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) conducted a study on the labour market assessment with particular reference to many European Union (EU) nations, including Sweden, Denmark, France, the Czech Republic, Poland, and Romania (MOIA 2012).

The main objectives were to identify new industries, analyse the educational and skill standards necessary (qualifications and recognition of qualification and abilities), and determine the necessary skills within those industries. The goal is to determine India's competitive edge, the skills needed to meet these objectives, and a framework for standardized skills training.

According to the nation under investigation, the research highlighted several prospects, from the conventional sector of computer technology to the health care industry and construction, but it also called attention to the shortcomings of the present Indian certification structure. Two significant barriers are the lack of standardised training and the acceptance of Indian credentials by European stakeholders. Through the use of a national credential's framework and collaboration with destination nations, the Indian government is taking action to overcome these barriers.

The purpose of talent assessments in India is to identify skill sets where India has a competitive edge in the context of migration. In order to do this, it is necessary to identify skill shortages in relation to the skills in demand abroad and to interact with strategically key destinations in order to understand demand outside. State actors may have a substantially lower role in connecting businesses in destination countries with employees in origin

countries for skilled migrants than for low-skilled migrants. Highly talented professionals often relocate internally within their companies, via headhunters or other agencies, or on their own initiative. Bilateral agreements for the movement of less skilled people are rather widespread, but they are far less common for skilled workers.

Policies to Favor Regional Skills Mobility

Policy attempts to make it easier for talented employees to transfer have grown in importance along with the global rivalry for talent. Favourable visa policies for highly qualified professionals have not drawn many foreigners to the Republic of Korea. Instead of engineers or scientists, language teachers or speciality chefs are the most common skilled professionals granted visas.

Since they must provide the qualified foreigner with employment in order for the visa to be given, this is partially due to a lack of demand from businesses in the Republic of Korea. Since 2010, Japan has undertaken methods to encourage the immigration of highly skilled individuals. In order to provide permit holders and their spouses expedited access to permanent residency as well as extra rights, a points-based system was created in 2012. However, there hasn't been much take-up since most people who get the permission are already in Japan with another work visa rather than being lured from elsewhere.

Both Singapore and Taipei, China, provide good circumstances for hiring competent labour and permit long-term residence. Around 100,000 skilled professionals in Singapore had Employment Passes in December 2007, but by 2011, that number has increased to 175,000. In Taipei, China, there were 27,000 "white collar" or competent foreigners in 2012, yet one in four of them taught languages. A variety of governmental efforts have been launched by the PRC to entice highly qualified international workers.

For instance, the "1000 Talent Plan"'s Recruitment Programme of Global specialists provides qualified overseas specialists and entrepreneurs with financial support as well as quicker access to permanent residency and naturalisation for themselves and their families.

The EU Blue Card, adopted in 2009 by Council Directive 2009/50/EC and incorporated into the laws of 24 participating EU countries (three, including the United Kingdom, opted out), is one example from OECD nations of a larger effort to develop a regional tool for skilled mobility. The directive seeks to establish a permit with standardized entry requirements and derived rights in order to facilitate family reunion and family members' access to the labor market. After admittance, the Blue Card also facilitates travel between EU nations under the condition that the holder be in gainful work.

The Blue Card had two purposes: first, to promote the EU as a single, alluring destination; and second, to communicate to the outside world that the EU welcomed highly educated and qualified employees. The Blue Cards have not yet been evaluated for their applicability to intra-European movement, and their issuance has fallen behind expectations.

DISCUSSION

Managing Low-Skilled Labor Migration and Fostering

Abuses during recruiting and employment are extremely widespread and have been widely documented, despite the fact that labour migration in Asia creates significant advantages for countries of origin in terms of jobs and remittances (and for countries of destination, in terms of human resources). High prices and fees, false representations, noncompliance with

placement requirements, and contract replacement are a few of them. Matching job seekers and companies is mostly done by private recruiting services. Low earnings and hefty recruiting expenses have left employees with significant debt loads. Female domestic migrant workers are among the most vulnerable and encounter hurdles to getting job abroad.

When working abroad, migrants are often concentrated in industries with weak labour laws and enforcement. Withholding salaries, keeping passports or other forms of identification, and threatening to report someone to the police are all examples of abusive behaviours. The least protected against abusive practises are female domestic employees in private homes and male migrants working on fishing boats or in agriculture. More often than males, women work in positions where they are not covered by regulations that protect other employees.

The topic of social protection, which includes having access to necessary health care and having a secure source of income, has been brought up by the region's growing significance of labour migration. Social safety programmes are often only available to non-migrants and the formal economy. The bulk of the working population in Asia, including migrant workers, is engaged in informal industries that aren't completely protected by social safety nets or labour regulations. The fact that most Middle Eastern and Asian nations have not yet given domestic workers the same minimal safeguards that apply to workers generally presents a particular issue for women migrants (ILO 2013a). The recent expansion of weekly rest to migrant domestic workers in Singapore and Thailand may be a sign of future attempts to improve legal protection, motivated by the 2011 Domestic Workers Convention (No. 189) of the International Labour Organisation (ILO).

Memorandums of understanding (MOUs) haven't always been effective in accomplishing their goals. Although the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) has acknowledged the importance of the protection of migrant workers' rights, national legislation in East and Southeast Asia generally provides for equal treatment between nationals and migrants in terms of remuneration and labour protection. However, some of the main issues that remain for migrant workers in Asia are: Contracts for migrant employees should not be tied to employers since this leaves them open to exploitation and the possibility of losing their legal status.

1. Migrant workers in domestic and fishing jobs, for example, are either not protected by labour laws, or the laws' enforcement is lax.
2. Due to restrictions on trade union rights in certain nations (and the absence of such rights in particular Gulf nations), migrants working in low-wage industries are often unorganised.
3. In general, Social Security is neither portable or accessible.
4. In several nations, a significant percentage of migrant workers lack legal status.
5. The availability of support services varies by country of origin.
6. In general, public perceptions of low-skilled migrant workers are unfavourable (ILO 2011a).
7. During crises and calamities, migrant labour may not be protected or treated fairly.

The sections that follow emphasise some of the crucial issues for improved low-skilled labour migration and decent employment governance.

International Legal Framework for the Protection of Migrant Workers

The United Nations system as a whole has become more concerned with the preservation of the rights of employees operating outside of their own nations. There are several international treaties that set norms for labour and human rights. As with any other person, migrants are

entitled to the same rights and freedoms outlined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948), as well as those included in any later human rights treaties created by the United Nations. However, international agreements that safeguard migrant workers often do not curtail a state's sovereign authority to control the entry of migrant workers into its territory. For the management of low-skilled labour migration and the promotion of decent work, it is crucial that all migrant workers and their families have their human rights respected and that international labour standards be put into practise. The most comprehensive document on migrant workers' and family members' rights is the 1990 International Convention on the Protection of the Rights of All Migrant Workers and Members of Their Families, which also extends rights to migrant workers who are here illegally. It includes measures designed to guarantee that all migrant workers, regardless of their status, enjoy a minimum degree of protection, together with the Migrant Workers (Supplementary measures) Convention, 1975 (No. 143). Despite the fact that these documents serve as a baseline for the development of national laws and practises, countries of destination in Asia have not ratified them.

26 nations worldwide, including two in Asia and the Pacific, have ratified the ILO Convention on Private Employment Agencies, 1997 (No. 181), the relevant international labour norm for recruitment. The treaty forbids employers from charging candidates for jobs any recruiting fees. However, governments in Asia have often chosen to permit fee charging as long as it stays within a certain range[4]–[6]. The Domestic Workers Convention, 2011 (No. 189), the most current ILO convention, recognises domestic labour as employment and offers a historic chance to make decent work a reality for domestic workers. Several nations throughout the globe ratified the pact first, including the Philippines. Thailand has passed a new rule on domestic labour that gives domestic employees certain additional rights and safeguards under the Labour Protection Act.

The Need for Well-Conceived Admission Policies

The reason for establishing a labour migration scheme is perceived labour shortages. However, it might be difficult to anticipate or predict labour shortages. across order to determine the need for foreign employees, a recent ILO research undertook a desk assessment of procedures across East and Southeast Asia. Through the Ministry of Manpower's quarterly Labour Market Survey, Singapore actively analyses labour market inequalities.

Jobs open, the job vacancy rate, and the job vacancy to jobless ratio are all indicators of a labour shortage or mismatch. These statistics are gathered by industry and occupational group in Singapore. The Foreign Workforce Policy Committee (FWPC), which is made up of many ministries, is used by the Government of the Republic of Korea to yearly estimate the level of the labour shortage (and the quota for foreign workers).

The FWPC bases its determination of the foreign worker quota on estimates of economic growth as well as the stated demands of the small and medium-sized businesses that mostly host the employees. According to HRD Korea (2013), the quota was 62,000 in 2013 and 57,000 in 2012.

There is a revealed labour shortage in Malaysia, which means that even though there does not appear to have been, at least in the past, any systematic attempt to measure or estimate the extent of the labour shortage in Malaysia, the reality is that there has been a significant inflow of foreign workers due to the strong demand from businesses in the manufacturing, agricultural, and construction sectors. Similar to Malaysia, there doesn't seem to be any systematic effort being made in Thailand to assess the severity of the labour shortage there or to try to limit the number of foreign employees based on that assessment. Instead, the large

influx of foreign workers, mostly from nearby nations, into Thai industry, agriculture, and services has been a direct result of the labour crisis. Thailand and Malaysia both have permeable borders with their nearby, less developed nations[7]–[10].

Therefore, except of Singapore, countries of destination in the area seem to be depending on a single source of data (company applications for employing migrant workers) to determine the needs of the labour market. However, a number of data, including employer requests, labour force surveys, vacancy statistics, and economic growth, may be used to obtain a more precise assessment of the labour market's needs for foreign employees. Based on these sources, indicators of labour shortages would be in the areas of labour demand, supply, and matching.

CONCLUSION

One of the most important steps in controlling labour migration and sustaining a healthy and sustainable labour market is determining the labour market needs for foreign employees. The need of performing thorough analyses to ascertain the requirements and wants of the labour market has been stressed in this study. Understanding the present labour market circumstances, including skill shortages, occupational needs, and sector-specific requirements, is fundamentally based on labour market analysis. Ministry of Manpower's quarterly Labour Market Survey, Singapore actively analyses labour market inequalities. Jobs open, the job vacancy rate, and the job vacancy to jobless ratio are all indicators of a labour shortage or mismatch.

These statistics are gathered by industry and occupational group in Singapore. The Foreign Workforce Policy Committee (FWPC), which is made up of many ministries, is used by the Government of the Republic of Korea to yearly estimate the level of the labour It entails gathering and studying pertinent information on employment patterns, open positions, and the dynamics of supply and demand in the labour market. Such assessments provide policymakers and stakeholders information into the precise skills and credentials required to successfully address labour shortfalls.

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CHAPTER 7

PROTECTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS: CHALLENGES, POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT:

In light of rising labour mobility and globalisation, the protection of migrant workers has become a crucial concern. In this essay, the significance of protecting migrant workers' rights and welfare is discussed, as well as the difficulties and vulnerabilities they encounter. It covers the agreements, treaties, and policies that make up the international legal framework and safeguards for migratory workers. Recruitment alternatives are generally restricted to private recruitment companies, and regulations governing employment agencies are sometimes inefficient and difficult to access. In Sri Lanka, attempts have been made to control subagents and create a grading system. In Vietnam, organisations of recruitment agencies have created rules of conduct for its members. In the Republic of Korea, MOUs with public placement agencies have been signed. In the area, there are occasional instances. In order to ensure that migrant workers are effectively protected, the article also examines the roles played by governments, employers, and civil society. Policymakers can establish equitable and inclusive labour markets that preserve human rights and advance social justice by giving priority to migrant worker safety.

KEYWORDS:

Migrant Workers, Protection, Human Rights, Labor Migration, Vulnerabilities, International Legal Framework, Government, Employers, Civil Society, Social Justice.

INTRODUCTION

Regulation of Recruitment

Recruitment alternatives are generally restricted to private recruitment companies, and regulations governing employment agencies are sometimes inefficient and difficult to access. In Sri Lanka, attempts have been made to control subagents and create a grading system. In Vietnam, organisations of recruitment agencies have created rules of conduct for its members. In the Republic of Korea, MOUs with public placement agencies have been signed. In the area, there are occasional instances of authorised employers hiring directly (Malaysia, for instance), and there is possibility for employers' organisations to hire their own employees (like Unio de Pagesos in Spain). These techniques have decreased expenses. Sub-Decree 190, titled "Management of Sending Khmer Migrants to Work Abroad through Private Recruitment Agencies," was published in August 2011 and governs recruitment in Cambodia (MOLVT 2013)[1]–[3].

'Improving the recruitment process' (ADD) and recommendations on concrete actions towards "effective recruitment practises and regulations" (AFML) have been top priorities at various international forums on international labour migration in Asia, including the multi-stakeholder ASEAN Forum on Migrant Labour (AFML) and the inter-state Abu Dhabi Dialogue (ADD) covering the Gulf Cooperation Council and South and Southeast Asia. Maximum recruiting costs that are reasonable and simple to comprehend, rewards for private

employment agencies that perform well, and accurate labour market data have all been proposed as agreed-upon criteria in the ADD. The AFML has proposed a wider range of recommendations, including an accreditation system for foreign employers for direct recruitment, severe penalties for infractions, favourable ratings for ethical recruitment, stakeholder monitoring of recruitment agencies (along with regulators), transparency and affordability of costs, streamlining of emigration procedures, information dissemination, and establishment of efficient complaint mechanisms and support services.

Support Services

A contributory welfare fund to cover protection and emergency needs in the country of destination, insurance coverage, the posting of labour attachés to protect and assist workers abroad, and subject to the laws of the destination countries—the operation of shelters and migrant service centres are just a few examples of the support services that can be provided to labour migrants. MWFs, or Migrant Welfare Funds: MWFs have the potential to be a creative and financially viable method of offering assistance to vulnerable and in need migrants. MWFs are used in a number of South and Southeast Asian nations and might be beneficial for all labor-sending nations.

The main goals of the funds are to protect foreign workers on the job site and to advance their welfare; to provide health insurance, including benefits and services in case of disability or death; and to provide funding for the involuntary return of remains and transportation costs. Other services offered by the funds include pre-departure counselling, assistance with education and training, and loans for a variety of uses (such as paying for small companies, housing, and migration).

Public or semi-public organisations, such as the Overseas Pakistanis Foundation (OPF), the Overseas Workers Welfare Administration (OWWA) of the Philippines, and the Overseas Workers Welfare Fund (OWWF) of Sri Lanka, administer MWFs. Contributions from employers and/or employees, set at around \$25 per person, are used to fund them. In addition to the MWF, Bangladesh launched the Probashi Kallayan Bank in October 2011. This specialised financial organization offers low-interest migration loans among its other services. (MEWOE 2013) More than 1,200 loans have been approved.

the placement of labour attachés Labour attachés are often stationed in regions with a large migrant worker population who may need government help with issues relating to employee-employer interactions. Given the sheer volume, it may be very difficult for labour attachés or other diplomatic staff to watch out for the wellbeing of their countrymen. Mechanisms for complaints and grievances: Asian countries of origin with more developed labour migration policies have set up a complaints process for alleged violations during hiring and employment. A recent study and analysis of Sri Lanka's complaint channels was conducted by the ILO and the Ministry of Foreign Employment Promotion and Welfare (ILO 2013b).

A extremely low officer-to-migrant worker ratio, the need for knowledge and training among the officers, and improved teamwork were among the barriers to effective on-site help and resolution that were noted in the research. Coordination with the host authorities was found to have gaps, and detailed documented processes were missing. In the form of an Operational Manual for Labour Sections in Sri Lankan Diplomatic Missions in Labour Receiving Countries, the latter has since been produced. The safety of their migrant employees must also get enough monetary support from the countries of origin since it is these workers who are responsible for sending money home. Furthermore, the establishment and implementation of international human rights and labour standards related to migrant workers are equally vital in order to set an example and since countries of origin are often to some degree also

countries of destination. In this regard, the Philippines stands out due to its aggressive and comprehensive measures to safeguard both male and female migrant workers, as well as its widespread ratification of international labour and human rights norms.

DISCUSSION

Countries of Destination

Post-admission policies in countries of destination are focused on a variety of interconnected aspects for regulating the labour market, assuring worker protection, and promoting integration. The following significant actions are typically needed: t labour market regulation, including access, mobility, and recognition of qualifications; t protection of migrant (and national) workers in the employment context, including remuneration, working conditions, trade union rights, social security (including health), access to legal remedies, access to suitable housing, and access to vocational training, language, and integration courses; t social and civil rights, in paInternational human rights and labour standards are quite explicit that fundamental human rights of all migrants should be respected, that there is due process for each individual case, and that there are no mass expulsions even though generally accepted principles of international law recognise the competence of the state to control and regulate the movement of people across its borders. The legislation of that country, whether it be the labour code, employment legislation, or other rules concerned with the regulation and protection of foreign workers, applies and builds on the minimum norms accepted at the international and regional level/This ensures the protection of migrant workers while they are working in the destination country. Unhappy migrant workers are often unwilling to complain about their employers or are unsure of where to report, according to ILO studies conducted in Thailand and Malaysia. This is true even in countries where they have equal protection under the law.

Bilateral Cooperation

By establishing a framework for fair and orderly migration management, bilateral cooperation on international labour migration may help both sending and receiving nations. It is also a key instrument for protecting migrants' rights and protection. MOUs might be used to formalise the collaboration. Through this method, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, and Thailand, with varied degrees of success, meet their low-skilled labour demands. The ILO also supports cross-border trade union cooperation as a kind of bilateral co-operation. Trade unions have signed memoranda of understanding (MOUs) on the protection of migrant workers in both the countries of origin and destination, and in certain instances, they are actively putting the accords into practise. For instance, an Inter-country Trade Union Collaboration in the Protection of Migrant Workers has been established between the General Federation of Nepalese Trade Unions (GEFONT) and the Korean Confederation of Trade Unions (KCTU).

Addressing Irregular Migration

Large irregular migrant flows between neighbouring nations with different economic development levels and a lengthy, open land border are quite typical in the area. Legal migration pathways could not exist or irregular migration channels can be less onerous. Additionally, those who are admitted on a regular basis risk losing their status if they violate the conditions of their work permits or overstay their visas. Thailand signed MOUs with Cambodia, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Myanmar in 2002 and 2003. However, as of April 2013, only 109,320 of the estimated 2.5 million–3 million migrant workers in the country—both regular and irregular—had entered through the MOU channels

and had a valid work permit, while 963,243 were irregular migrants who had successfully completed the regularisation process and had a valid work permit (IOM 2013). The remaining ones are either irregular or being regularised. Between 2004 and 2012, there were seven registration rounds in Thailand.

In 1999 and 2004, the government of Malaysia announced amnesties that let unauthorised migrants to leave the country without facing legal repercussions and to return if their employer chose to legitimately hire them. A more comprehensive 6P Programme was put into effect in 2011, and it includes measures for amnesty, registration, legalisation, monitoring, enforcement, and expulsion of migrants. Despite the fact that 2.3 million migrant workers registered (1 million regular and 1.3 million irregular), many believed that the registration procedure was difficult and expensive despite the fact that just a small window for registration existed.

The majority of Asian destinations lack enough barriers to discourage brokers and businesses from hiring unauthorised immigrants. The 1975 Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention (No. 143) urges nations to take further measures to punish these offenders rather than migrants. The Employment of Foreign Manpower Act was amended in Singapore in 2012, substantially enhancing the Ministry of Manpower's ability to penalise bad employers. Similar rules are in place in Malaysia and Thailand, although it's unclear how strictly they're enforced. In Malaysia, 112 employers were discovered to have hired unauthorised immigrants between mid-2002 and mid-2004, but as of December 2006, none had been found guilty due to a dearth of evidence and ongoing trial delays

Labour shortages, demographic shifts, economic development, and pay differences between countries of origin and destination are anticipated to continue to be the main factors driving labour migration in Asia. Such labour migration is often transient and is done for "low-skilled" jobs. It is now more widely acknowledged that migrant workers contribute to the development of both their host and country of origin, and that migration improves the standard of living for many migrants and their families in Asia. The majority of immigrants work in positions that locals either cannot or do not want to do, filling a gap in the labour markets of their destination countries. However, a lot of migrant workers are victimised by unfair labour practises[4]–[6].

Even though national law in East and Southeast Asia typically allows for equitable treatment between citizens and migrants, this chapter has identified some of the major difficulties low-skilled migrant workers in Asia confront as well as the decent work shortfall. Key areas for improving low-skilled labour migration governance and to promote decent employment have been recognised in response to these difficulties.

They include the need for well-thought-out admission policies, improved support services for migrant workers, successful bilateral and subregional cooperation, and dealing with irregular migration. They also include respecting the human rights of all migrant workers and their family members and implementing international labour standards.

Economic impact of migration

Migration does not always have a positive economic influence on the nations of origin, particularly in terms of economic development, productivity, and the reduction of poverty. The kind and volume of migrant movements, as well as the local context, all have a role.³⁰ The degree of education, age, gender, profession and industry of employment, and employment status are all likely to have a significant impact on the wages of migrants in the working age group. There are other benefits that may be obtained. Numerous studies

(especially in Latin America) indicate, for instance, that remittances have a good effect on schooling. According to one research, immigrants might, on average, lead to a -fold decrease in infant mortality and a doubling of educational enrolment rates.

By assisting in the funding of education and lowering the need for child labour (such as in Ghana), remittances may enhance spending on education. The receiving of remittances may increase girls' school attendance and educational achievement (for example, in Pakistan and Peru). Recent ILO research in Moldova shows that children from remittance-receiving families have better access to information technology, a better grasp of foreign languages, and a greater ability to afford continuing their education at the tertiary level (50.5% of the respondents receiving no money from abroad Those to attend secondary vocational schools rather than pursuing university studies).

The possibility for return migrants to contribute favourably to the economic growth of their home nations exists. Migration might boost a return migrant's chances of starting their own business since they accumulate funds and human capital while they are overseas. Additionally, as consumers who represent sizable groups, migrants may contribute to the facilitation of trade and investment flows between their home countries and those of their destination, as well as generate new needs for products and services. Brain drain has significant repercussions for the long-term growth of the country of origin.

The effect is determined by the scope and degree of growth, the industries and professions engaged, and the kind of migration (temporary, permanent, or cyclical).³⁷ Loss of potential tax income and public investment in education are both consequences of skilled worker exodus. High-skilled workers leaving the workforce might hinder innovation and technological advancement, which would therefore have an impact on productivity and growth.

Due to worldwide demand, certain professions, such as health care and education, may be more impacted by migration, which might result in a failure to provide essential social services in the nations of origin. Additionally, migration boosts domestic skill levels by spurring interest in skill improvement, which may be advantageous for the local labour market^{[7]–[10]}. The ILO claims that one of the most effective approaches to combating the problem of brain drain is based on the idea of talent circulation, which calls for more collaboration between origin and destination nations in order to benefit both³⁹. Some approaches include peer reviewer procedures, virtual return and e-learning, short-term trips and assignments, mentor-sponsor programmes in certain companies or sectors, and cooperative research projects. Additionally, networks for knowledge sharing might be set up in order to tap into the capabilities of diasporas.

CONCLUSION

Promoting social justice, preserving human rights, and developing inclusive labour markets all depend on the protection of migrant workers. This essay has emphasized the importance of protecting migrant workers' rights and wellbeing and has looked at the difficulties and vulnerabilities they encounter. Throughout their migration trip and at their destination countries, migrant workers often run across several risks. Recruitment alternatives are generally restricted to private recruitment companies, and regulations governing employment agencies are sometimes inefficient and difficult to access.

In Sri Lanka, attempts have been made to control subagents and create a grading system. In Vietnam, organisations of recruitment agencies have created rules of conduct for its members. In the Republic of Korea, MOUs with public placement agencies have been signed. In the

area, there are occasional instances. These weaknesses might take the form of exploitation, prejudice, wage theft, unfavorable working conditions, and restricted access to social safeguards. An all-encompassing strategy that takes these issues into account and guarantees the protection of migrant workers' rights is necessary to protect them.

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CHAPTER 8

ECONOMIC CONTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS IN DESTINATION COUNTRIES

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ABSTRACT:

The analysis and evaluation of the economic consequences and advantages of migrant workers in their host nations are the main objectives of this study. The economy of the destination nations benefit greatly from the labour of migrant workers, who contribute to a variety of industries including manufacturing, construction, healthcare, and hospitality. The objective of this research is to investigate both the quantitative and qualitative elements of the economic contribution made by migrant workers, including their function in bridging labour shortages, fostering economic development, raising productivity, and encouraging innovation. It investigates the consequences of migrant labour on employment and income production, as well as their impact on tax receipts, consuming habits, and entrepreneurship. This study assesses the beneficial benefits of migrant workers on host nations' economy by a thorough review of statistics, case studies, and economic models. It also takes into account the effects on society and culture, such as how diversity and social cohesiveness affect knowledge and skill transmission. This research also discusses difficulties and problems associated with the economic contribution of migrant workers, including exploitation, rivalry on the labour market, and the need for efficient labour market integration regulations.

KEYWORDS:

Migrant Workers, Economic Contribution, Labor Markets, Labor Market Gaps, Economic Growth, Productivity, Policymakers, Inclusive Labor Markets.

INTRODUCTION

Immigrants accounted for 47% of the employment growth in the United States during the previous ten years, 45% in Canada, and 70% in Europe. They contributed 31%, 21%, and 14%, respectively, to the growth in the highly educated work force in Canada, the US, and Europe. Foreign workers contribute significantly to the entire labour force in developing nations like Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Brazil, and India. The results show how having migrant workers in destination nations has a major positive economic impact and how critical it is to fully use their potential.

In order to establish evidence-based policies that maximise economic benefits while preserving the rights and well-being of migrant workers, policymakers, corporations, and other stakeholders need to understand the economic dynamics of migration.

The vibrant economic sectors may benefit greatly from the contributions of immigrants. In the United States and Europe, new immigrants made approximately 22% and 15%, respectively, of entrants into growing professions between 2000 and 2010⁴¹. These include STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) and health care vocations, in particular. At the same time, immigrants are supplementing the shortage of less qualified employees in many OECD and G20 nations by taking on positions that domestic people find undesirable or without promising career paths.

Although it is sometimes claimed that immigrants supplant native labour, the evidence that is now available refutes this claim. The effect of migration on recipient labour markets has been extensively studied in the literature. Results vary depending on the methodology, the nation, and the geographic scale used, but the majority of research reveal very little impacts on average income and employment, with potential for greater impact on low-skilled employees or previous migrants[1]–[3]Evidence reveals that immigrants pay more in taxes and social contributions than they get in individual benefits in the majority of nations, with the exception of those with a high proportion of elderly immigrants. Recent research on the budgetary effects of migration for all OECD nations in Europe, as well as Australia, Canada, and the United

According to the analysis, the fiscal effect of all of the migratory waves that have entered OECD nations over the last 50 years has been around zero on average, seldom topping 0.5% of GDP in either positive or negative terms. Although arguably to a lower amount than the native-born, immigrants do help pay for public services and infrastructure. The OECD analysis comes to the conclusion that immigrants are thus neither a drain on the public budget nor a solution to financial problems. Contrary to popular assumption, immigrants with low levels of education are in a better financial position than their native-born counterparts in terms of the gap between their contributions and benefits. Furthermore, if immigrants are in a less advantageous fiscal situation, this is not due to a larger reliance on social assistance but rather to the fact that they often earn lower income and, as a result, tend to make less financial contributions.

Cross-country variations in the financial health of immigrant families are influenced by how tax and benefit systems are constructed as well as by variations in the age and immigration status of the immigrant community. Even while there is some convergence over time, the OECD analysis demonstrates that labour migrants typically have a far higher positive effect than other migrant categories. On the other hand, immigrants' financial situations are often worse in nations with large populations of long-term immigrants and little recent labour immigration. Economic development is impacted by both direct and indirect consequences of international migration.

Migration has a tendency to increase the workforce due to the age distribution of inflows, which boosts overall GDP growth. The impact of immigration on productivity, however, is significantly impacted by the education pattern of inflows. First, migration has an effect on the demographics of the receiving nations, influencing the age distribution as well as the population size. When compared to locals, migrants are more concentrated in the younger, economically active age groups, which helps to lower dependence ratios.

Second, immigrants add to the host nation's human capital pool because they bring skills and competencies with them. More particular, data from the United States demonstrates that talented immigrants support technological advancement by fostering research and innovation. However, this insight would only be applicable to G20 nations that see substantial inflows of highly qualified immigrants. Few empirical studies, however, have attempted to gauge the overall effect of net migration on economic development, in part due to a dearth of harmonised comparative data on international migration by skill levels (See Annex A for a more thorough explanation). The research that is currently available points to a beneficial but modest influence of immigrant human capital on economic development.

Statistics on labour migration are vitally required to guarantee that employment, social protection, education/training, and development policies are informed by labor-related aspects of migration. The existing statistics methodology used to track international

migration⁴⁵ is inconsistently applied and ill-suited to account for various types of labour mobility. International statistical norms for labour migration need to be reevaluated, and procedures for capacity building and data collecting need to be strengthened.

DISCUSSION

International transferability of skills

One of the main challenges facing both the nations of origin and destination is releasing the full skill potential of immigrants. As their economies become increasingly knowledge-based, many nations are seeing an ageing population and an increase in the need for skilled workers. In terms of social cohesiveness and global growth, the topic is also quite important.

In truth, immigration can only have a beneficial effect on economic growth if immigrants are well-integrated and where their abilities are effectively used in their destination nations. This is true for both origin and destination countries. However, most destination nations still have a ways to go before properly recognising and using the abilities of migrants.

⁴⁶ Over the last 10 years, the number of immigrants with advanced degrees has grown significantly throughout the advanced nations. However, most of this potential is still untapped, and credentials and job experience obtained overseas are generally undervalued in the labour market. Regardless of age, gender, or area of study, highly educated immigrants in almost all OECD nations have lower employment rates than native-born individuals with the same formal qualification level. Additionally, highly talented immigrants are almost twice as likely to be overqualified for their jobs when they are employed. Ten million highly educated immigrants in total were unemployed in the OECD in 2010–2011, and an additional eight million were technically underqualified for their positions (OECD and EU, 2014). This is a classic example of a "triple-lose" scenario, meaning that everyone loses: the immigrant, the origin country, and the destination country.

Nearly two thirds of immigrants in OECD nations obtained their degrees and job experience overseas, often in labour markets and educational systems that were quite unlike from those in their final destinations.⁴⁸ Such foreign degrees are linked to lower levels of literacy. These include linguistic abilities, which may be difficult to separate from other abilities in practise. However, even after taking into account variations in these abilities, a gap still exists, which is presumably due to the fact that employers find it difficult to evaluate the worth of foreign degrees. In fact, the provenance of the credential matters more for results than the migrant's own country of origin^{[4]–[6]}.

An appropriate solution to this problem is to use fair and effective recognition methods that "translate" a foreign degree into a local one. Evidence shows that immigrants who successfully seek for and get official acknowledgment for their foreign degrees are more likely to find employment and hold better occupations than those who do not⁵⁰. However, only a small number of immigrants with foreign credentials have taken advantage of these incentives to yet, which may be explained by a number of obstacles to the recognition processes in place⁵¹. One is the opaqueness and complexity of the frameworks for recognising talent. Recent revisions have established contact centres to educate applicants and streamline the process in a number of nations.

Another problem is lack of access, which some nations have attempted to solve by creating a right to the evaluation of foreign credentials and by giving subsidies or stipends for the sometimes-expensive processes. Access to the majority of employment still rests on the discretion of specific employers, even with such interventions. Therefore, it is essential to

create recognised relationships and include employers in the process. Additionally, it is essential to communicate and promote the advantages of recognition systems for migrant employees as well as their importance to employers. Since SMEs often are not aware of the potential of migrant workers to address their skill shortages, this is especially pertinent to them. For return migrants as well, connecting skills to the right jobs remains difficult. When they return home, they usually have trouble converting their experiences in the target nations into better career results. Recognising earlier (non-formal/informal) learning may be crucial in improving the employability and career prospects of returnees who have developed new skills overseas but lack the required credentials. This will help them successfully and sustainably reintegrate into the domestic work market. However, procedures for the acknowledgment of past learning are still underdeveloped and underfunded to have a substantial influence on the acknowledgment of migrant talents, especially in developing nations.

Labour migration costs and earnings

The considerable economic and social costs that migrants bear are becoming more widely acknowledged as significant barriers to achieving the benefits of international migration for sustainable development. The ILO and the World Bank are conducting surveys of workers under the auspices of the Thematic Working Group on Low-Skilled Labour Migration of the Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD) to better understand the costs associated with labour migration. These costs include recruitment fees as well as lost wages as a result of underpayment, late payment, or non-payment of wages, and a lack of compensation for work-related illness or injury. A bilateral matrix on migration expenses, with an emphasis on agricultural, construction, and domestic workers, is presently being prepared by KNOMAD. This matrix will demonstrate the migration cost structure.

Because there is often a shortage of highly qualified individuals, employers frequently foot the bill for their economic migration; however, this is not the case for low-skilled workers. Low-skilled employees may spend up to a third of their overseas income on recruiting fees if they anticipate earning five to ten times as much abroad as they do at home.

According to KNOMAD study, recruiting fees for agricultural labourers engaged in Spain for four to nine months ranged from 6 to 12 percent of predicted earnings, while worker-paid expenditures in Korea and Kuwait generally ranged from 1 to 1.5 months of usual earnings and 4 months of typical wages, respectively.⁵⁶ There are restrictions on worker-paid recruiting fees in several countries of origin, although these restrictions aren't always followed. For instance, Bangladeshi labourers paid an average of USD 2,445 rather than the USD 1,027 cap imposed by the Ministry of Expatriates' Welfare and Overseas Employment. Few of the social advantages granted to high-skilled immigrants are likewise given to them. Informal intermediaries or employment agencies, some of which operate outside of the regulatory framework, can make migrant workers more vulnerable.

Too often, migrant workers are subjected to abusive practises throughout the hiring and placement procedures, such as physical and sexual abuse, exorbitant costs, debt bondage, or unlawful income deductions tied to the payback of hiring fees. Every year, around 10 million individuals travel for work via normal methods.⁶² At least half of them utilise recruiters, presumably paying each one USD 1,000 on average but in certain corridors it may be USD 2,000 or more. If migration expenses were to be cut in half, migrants may save between USD 2.5 and 5 billion annually in direct expenditures, and much more if pre-departure loans and their associated interest rates which can sometimes range from 24 to 36 percent a year were taken into account.

In fact, lowering the expenses of recruiting migrants might be four to eight times more advantageous than just lowering remittance transfer fees. This form of savings has an interesting example. A low-skilled employee who makes USD 200 per month for three years (a total of USD 7,200) is allowed to send USD 5000. A reduction in remittance costs from 10% to 5% might result in a \$250 USD savings for the worker. If the same worker had paid a recruiter USD 1000–2000 for the contract, halving these recruiting expenses would result in savings for the migrant of USD 500–1,000, which is two to four times more than the savings from remittance fees.⁶⁷ The savings may be eight times this amount if recruiting costs were completely abolished, as required by ILO standards. To boost the growth potential for workforce migrants, both sectors are crucial.

Migrants may make less money working overseas than locals performing the same profession. According to the ILO Global Wages Report 2014–15, there are still sizable wage gaps between foreign-born workers and citizens in comparison to high- and low-wage earners, which are only partially accounted for by differences in experience, education, occupation, and other labour market traits. The unexplained portion of this salary discrepancy may be due to employer discrimination against immigrants, variations in the returns to education earned overseas, or an absence from or underrepresentation in mechanisms of collective representation. The ILO determined that there is an average salary disparity of 17.5% in Europe between native-born workers and immigrants, 11.3% of which may be attributed to these mysterious causes. It is important to note that highly competent women migrants may face "double wage penalization" since they are treated unfairly in comparison to native and migrant males.

social security benefits, have less ability to contribute to the countries where they work or may return, or to reach their potential for growth. When compared to the native population, migrant workers are frequently disproportionately affected by higher rates of occupational injuries. For instance, an analysis of studies from various world regions found that immigrants were involved in occupational injuries twice as frequently as native workers on average. Migrant workers also bear the consequences of incoherent employment and labor migration laws as well as limitations on mobility within destination nations[7]–[10].

Remittance

The first and most obvious connection between migration and development is remittances. Migration and remittances can be used to raise development financing in the context of global discussions on how to pay for the implementation of the Post-2015 development goals by lowering remittance costs, lowering the cost of hiring low-skilled migrant workers, and mobilising diaspora savings and philanthropic contributions.

Through future-flow securitization, remittances may also be utilised as collateral to support international borrowing with potentially lower rates and longer maturities. Additionally, by raising the recipient nations' sovereign credit ratings and debt sustainability, they may make it easier to access global financial markets.

According to a World Bank analysis, policies that aim to lower costs and improve transparency in the delivery of remittance services—for instance, by fostering increased bank competition and supporting alternative providers like microfinance institutions, credit cooperatives, and postal savings banks—are likely to have a positive effect on the remittance market. In the process that resulted in the determination of a worldwide objective for lowering the cost of remittance services, the World Bank Group (WBG) was instrumental. At the G8 meeting in L'Aquila, Italy, in July 2009, the G8 nations adopted the goal of lowering the cost of remittance services by five percentage points in five years (the 5x5 aim). At the

G20 meeting in Cannes, France in 2011, the G20 subsequently endorsed the pledge. Although remittance costs have been falling over time, they were still significant as of the second quarter of 2015, accounting for 7.72 percent of all transfers to poor nations worldwide and 9.7 percent in Sub-Saharan Africa. The World Bank Group (WBG) calculates that since the start of the worldwide initiative to reduce the cost of remittance services, migrants and their families have saved a combined total of close to \$63 billion as a result of decreased costs. Despite these successes, it is important to remember that the 5% goal has not yet been met. The situation is still highly varied, with certain nations still lagging behind and other areas, including Sub-Saharan Africa, maintaining average costs of over 10% in the first quarter of 2015.

CONCLUSION

The financial support that migrant workers provide to their host nations helps to shape labour markets and promote economic progress. This essay has analysed the issues and difficulties surrounding migrant workers' economic contribution while highlighting the advantages and economic influence they have on society. Various ways that migrant workers support their host nations' economy. World Bank analysis, policies that aim to lower costs and improve transparency in the delivery of remittance services—for instance, by fostering increased bank competition and supporting alternative providers like microfinance institutions, credit cooperatives, and postal savings banks are likely to have a positive effect on the remittance market. In the process that resulted in the determination of a worldwide objective for lowering the cost of remittance services. They often solve skill shortages and match the needs of certain businesses by filling labour market gaps in fields where there is a lack of local personnel. Their involvement in labor-intensive industries like agriculture, construction, and healthcare promotes economic growth and ensures the viability of these sectors.

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CHAPTER 9

BILATERAL AND OTHER AGREEMENTS FOR MANAGING LABOR MIGRATION

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ABSTRACT:

The goal of this study is to evaluate the tactics and results of bilateral and other agreements in regulating labour mobility. Countries enter into bilateral and multilateral agreements to control and manage labour migration flows in an increasingly globalised environment. This research intends to investigate the many kinds of international conventions, regional frameworks, and bilateral labour agreements that have been developed between nations. It examines the goals, clauses, and processes included in these agreements, including the protection of labour laws, hiring procedures, skill recognition, and social integration. This study assesses the tactics used and the results obtained via bilateral and other agreements through a thorough review of case studies, policy papers, and empirical research. It evaluates their efficiency in promoting ethical hiring practises, defending the rights of migrant workers, and fostering collaboration between sending and receiving nations. It also examines how well they facilitate safe, orderly, and regular movement. This report also examines these agreements' difficulties and prospects, including implementation, oversight, and enforcement concerns.

KEYWORDS:

Bilateral Agreements, Labor Migration, Regional Frameworks, Multilateral Initiatives, Managed Migration.

INTRODUCTION

BLAs on labour migration have become into crucial instruments for facilitating the hiring of low-skilled employees and ensuring the preservation of their rights. Since the 1990s, BLAs have seen a worldwide rebirth, notably in new nations of origin and destination. Through the ILO Convention on Migration for Employment, 1949 (No. 97)⁷⁶ and the associated Migration for Employment Recommendation (Revised), 1949 (No. 86), which includes a sample bilateral agreement in its Annex, the ILO encourages the use of bilateral labour agreements. The results underline the significance of well thought out and successfully executed agreements in managing labour migration, maximising its advantages, and minimising its risks and vulnerabilities. Policymakers, governments, and other stakeholders in labour migration governance may improve their tactics and methods in bilateral and multilateral agreements for the control of labour migration thanks to the significant insights provided by this study.

In 151 BLAs from various locations, the ILO and the World Bank's KNOMAD project⁷⁷ discovered significant variance in terms of the aims, length, protection provisions, and systems for monitoring and assessments. The desire in creating standard or model employment contracts for migrant workers is expanding, and new immigration regulations now contain sections on the function of bilateral agreements. Additionally, there have been more agreements between governments, which seem to have helped down the costs

associated with labour movement. There has been modest progress in extending the scope of BLA terms to encompass the whole migration cycle (pre-departure, arrival, stay, return, and reintegration) in the case of temporary labour migration programmes. Numerous specialised bilateral agreements for domestic workers have been made in recent years, addressing particular issues that this group often faces and which are not typically addressed by national legislation. The majority of the contracts we evaluated (93%) had 78 methods for monitoring implementation via a joint committee from both signing parties; however, the actual use of such processes is not always evident and need more investigation[1]–[3].

Only a small number of agreements specifically address migrant workers' protection, including equal treatment with domestic labour. Almost no agreements have addressed gender issues, social discussion, or the ban on seizing identification or travel papers. Some BLAs have clauses that aim to advance the economic and social progress of the country of origin. However, it is crucial to make sure that these regulations are really implemented and do not only allude to development issues. The New Zealand Recognised Seasonal Employer (RSE) agreements with Pacific Islands have been rated as a successful arrangement by the World Bank in Asia. Language and occupation-specific training, as well as a return programme, are all parts of the Republic of Korea's Employment Permit System (EPS)⁸¹. However, evidence from BLAs in the context of French-African relations and Europe and South American countries of origin⁸³ show contradictory development outcomes.

There are several ways that future agreements might be reinforced. First, a multilateral approach focused on regional and cross-regional interaction may be more successful to pursue in the future given the regional or multilateral character of many migrant movements. Second, whether bilateral or multilateral, there must be efficient processes in place to ensure that the agreements are used and followed up on, particularly those that encourage transparency, distribution, monitoring, and assessment. All parties should be thoroughly informed of their rights and responsibilities, and all relevant parties should take part in the follow-up. Thirdly, agreements would be implemented more quickly if their normative underpinnings were strengthened by explicit references to relevant international norms and ratification of international Conventions. Finally, by including policies that are especially pertinent to the countries of origin, such as consular services, voluntary insurance programmes, and reintegration help, current BLAs might be strengthened even more.

Key policy issues

Labour mobility is increasing throughout the G20 nations, and its makeup is changing as well, with a greater proportion of skilled migrants. Many G20 nations are now dealing with significant migration intakes because of geopolitical issues. In order to maximise migration flows in the future for the advantage of both the nations of origin and destination as well as for migrants themselves, a number of significant hurdles must be overcome. These primarily include strengthening international collaboration in the sphere of migration, boosting the international transferability of talents, and lowering labour migration and remittance costs.

International organisations have given support to nations because they understand how complicated the issues associated with migration are. For instance, the ILO Director-General has urged ILO members to establish a Fair Migration Agenda,⁸⁵ which emphasises labour market factors, fair treatment of migrant workers in comparison to natives, and other migrant workers' rights. The OECD's migration ministers emphasised the need to increase public trust in migration problems by providing accurate and unbiased information to the public in order to inform the public discourse on migration during their meeting in December 2014 at the OECD High Level Policy Forum on Migration.

Harnessing the full potential of migrants' skills to support inclusive economic growth

By contributing the labour and skills necessary in crucial vocations and industries like construction, care and domestic services, or STEM, migrants significantly contribute to the economy of their host nations. However, due to ongoing obstacles in the immigration process, the full potential of migrants' abilities is not always realised. transferability of talents across borders. These may be caused by, for instance, a lack of qualification equivalency and/or recognition, a language barrier, a restriction on entry to certain jobs, or qualitative gaps between the supply and demand of talents. The G20 nations are aware of this problem, and several have implemented proactive initiatives to address skills mismatch, which disproportionately impacts immigrants. However, given the significance of labour mobility and the rising level of education among migrant workers, this problem has grown increasingly urgent. A platform might be created to disseminate information on best practises and promote cross-country exchange of information on skill demands and educational systems, building on previous OECD and ILO work on skills evaluation and recognition.

Reducing the costs of labour migration to enhance the benefits for migrant workers and countries of origin and destination High labour migration costs may lessen the advantages for migrants and their families as well as the beneficial impact they have on both their home nations and those they migrate to. The amount of remittances sent home and the amount of money that migrants spend in their destination countries may both be negatively impacted by worker-paid recruiting costs. By establishing just and efficient labour migration governance frameworks, labour migration expenses may be decreased and contribute to inclusive economic growth. Goal 8 of the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDG) on economic growth, productive employment, and decent work, which includes the target to "protect labour rights and promote safe and secure working environments for all workers, including migrant workers, in particular women migrants, and those in precarious employment," and Goal 10 of the UN's 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (SDG) on reducing inequality within and among countries, which includes the target to "facility for economic growth, inclusiveness, and sustainable development, Building on current collaborative work in these areas by the World Bank, ILO, and OECD, the G20 nations may take the initiative in shaping this agenda[4], [5].

Goal 10c states that "By 2030, reduce transaction costs of migrant remittances to less than 3% and eliminate remittance corridors with costs higher than 5%." The G20's efforts to lower remittance costs would be strengthened by action in this area. The G20 average cost of sending remittances has dropped to 7.98%, its lowest level ever, after the G20 Leaders' agreement in 2011 to aim towards lowering the worldwide average cost of doing so from 10% to 5% by 2014. The G20 leaders reaffirmed their resolve in 2014 to take significant, doable steps to bring these expenses down to 5% while making financial inclusion a top priority. The G20 Development Working Group is now debating the prospect of lowering transaction costs even further, to less than 3% by 2030. The World Bank Group's vigorous backing of this agenda has been advantageous. In the Addis Ababa Action Agenda, which served as the Third International Conference's final report, it is promised to "work towards reducing the average transaction cost of migrant remittances by 2030 to less than 3% of the amount transferred.

Multilateral dialogue and international cooperation

In order to promote just, secure, orderly, and well-governed labour movement networks, combat human smuggling and trafficking, and address recurring migration problems, dialogue and international collaboration are essential. In accordance with international norms

and best practises, bilateral and multilateral regional agreements continue to be some of the primary tools for managing international worker recruiting. Regional consultation procedures are crucial in fostering communication between the nations of origin and destination. The G20 nations may want to continue their work on how these instruments might be enhanced and what other steps can be taken to promote ethical hiring practises. The G20 might expand on current ILO and OECD work on best practises in this area.

The Economic Contribution of Labour Migration and Available Empirical Evidence

Like any other group of employees, migrant workers contribute to the employment and production of their host nations, albeit their economic impact is sometimes the focus of heated discussion. The considerably more limited availability of information and indicators on migrant labour hampers such discussions as well as economic research. Additionally, determining the economic impact of labour migration poses a number of methodological concerns, and assumptions made about the relationships between migrant and local workers have a significant impact on empirical findings. On the assumption that migrant employees and local workers contribute equally to economic production, a straightforward computation of the present contribution of migrant workers may be made. In other words, their economic contribution is equivalent to 10% of GDP if migrant workers account for 10% of the employed population.

DISCUSSION

However, given that immigrants are concentrated in certain industries, this assumption may be false. For instance, migrant workers are more likely to work in industries such as mining, utilities, and business services in Indonesia, hospitality, business services, and education in Mexico, and agriculture, hospitality, and private household services in the United States, compared to native workers. The contribution of migrant workers at the national level is influenced in part by their sectoral employment distribution since worker productivity differs among industries.

When sectoral productivity differences are taken into account, the GDP contribution of the foreign-born population in Mexico is equal to the employment share for this group, whereas in Indonesia the contribution is higher than would have been predicted based on the employment share for this group. The reason is that while in Mexico the high proportion of foreign-born workers in, for example, the hospitality industry, limits the overall foreign-born contribution to the economy, in Indonesia the foreign-born population is more likely than native workers to be active in sectors with high productivity such as mining and utilities. Less than 0.1% in Indonesia and little over 0.5% in Mexico, respectively, of the workforce in 2010 was made up of people who were foreign-born. In comparison, this proportion was 17.5 in the US in 2010. Due in part to the comparatively high share of foreign-born employees in low productivity industries like agriculture and private home services, the economic contribution of the foreign-born population in the US was lower at 15.8%.

Additional data indicating the productivity of employees within sectors may be taken into account in the assessment of the present economic contribution of migrant workers, for example by using proxies like years of schooling. Although foreign-born people in several US industries have less years of schooling than those who were born there, this is not the case in Indonesia and Mexico. It appears plausible to believe that these discrepancies have an impact on worker productivity in each industry, leading to a substantially bigger economic contribution from migrant workers in Indonesia and Mexico than would be predicted based on the percentage of foreign-born employees in those countries.

In Mexico, the GDP contribution of the foreign-born population is equal to the employment share for this group when sectoral productivity differences are taken into account, however in Indonesia, the contribution is larger than would have been expected based on the employment proportion for this group. The reason is that, unlike Mexico, where there is a high proportion of foreign-born workers in high-productivity industries like the hospitality sector, Indonesia has a higher proportion of foreign-born workers than native workers in industries like mining and utilities. People who were born outside of their country made up less than 0.1% of the workforce in Mexico and less than 0.5% in Indonesia in 2010. In contrast, in the US in 2010, this ratio was 17.5. The economic contribution of the foreign-born population in the US was lower at 15.8% due in part to the relatively large percentage of workers in low productivity sectors including agriculture and private home services.

In determining the current economic contribution of migrant workers, additional information on employee productivity within industries may be used, for instance by utilizing proxies like years of education. Despite the fact that foreign-born workers in several US businesses have less education than locals, this is not the case in Indonesia and Mexico. It seems reasonable to assume that these differences have an effect on worker productivity in each industry, causing migrant workers in Mexico and Indonesia to make a much larger economic contribution than would be anticipated based on the proportion of workers who were not born in those countries. Although empirical findings are inconsistent, it is often discovered that labor mobility has little economic consequences.

Differentiating between the many sorts of migrant employment such as temporary/seasonal, permanent, regular, or irregular) in empirical research is sometimes challenging. Since information on country of birth may be connected to other crucial features and outcomes in the labour market available from the same source, analytical study often focuses on the foreign-born population recorded in population censuses.

A population census is unlikely to fully capture certain kinds of migration, hence more regular data gathering using the right tools is required. In addition, as addressed in this research, the kind of migrant labour will have an impact on native employment results and labour market outcomes[6]–[8].

CONCLUSION

In order to control labour migration and promote orderly and controlled labour mobility between nations, bilateral and other agreements are essential. This essay has looked at the importance of these agreements as well as their goals, elements, advantages, difficulties, and ramifications. accords between two nations that provide a framework for the hiring, employing, and protecting of migrant workers are known as bilateral labour accords. They often include rules on labour standards, pay, social security, and dispute resolution as well as the rights and duties of the sending and receiving nations.

By guaranteeing the protection of migrant workers' rights and taking into account the demands of the labour markets in both countries, these agreements seek to establish a mutually advantageous and well-regulated system for labour mobility. The findings of studies carried out in the United Kingdom serve as examples. For instance, it was shown that, between 1997 and 2005, an increase in the proportion of migrants by 1% of the population who were born in the UK led to an increase in average salaries of 0.20 to 0.30 percent. According to another research that focused on the years 2000–2007, a comparable rise in the proportion of migrants was linked to a 0.3% drop in salaries. Although this research reaches different findings, they all emphasise how little immigration has on average salaries.

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CHAPTER 10

REDUCING MIGRATION COSTS INCURRED BY THE LOW-SKILLED

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ABSTRACT:

The goal of this study is to lower the expenses of migrating for low-skilled workers. It also examines ways to lessen financial constraints and advance ethical migration practises. When moving for work, low-skilled people often incur significant costs, such as recruiting fees, paperwork charges, transportation costs, and other connected costs. These expenses may have a negative effect on their financial situation and may prevent them from taking advantage of better employment prospects. In order to evaluate the effects on low-skilled workers' labour mobility, this research will examine the numerous elements that contribute to the high migration costs for these individuals. It looks at creative finance methods, ethical hiring procedures, and regulatory changes that may lower migration expenses and guarantee honest and open migration procedures. This study assesses the efficiency of several techniques in lowering migration costs for low-skilled employees by a thorough review of case studies, policy papers, and empirical data. It also takes into account the possible advantages and difficulties of using these tactics, as well as how governments, employers, staffing firms, and international organisations may be involved. The results emphasise how crucial it is to remove the financial obstacles that low-skilled individuals encounter in order to encourage inclusive and sustainable labour mobility. In order to reduce the migration costs for low-skilled workers and increase their access to better employment opportunities while preserving their rights and well-being, policymakers, practitioners, and stakeholders can benefit from the insights provided by this research.

KEYWORDS:

Migration Costs, Low-Skilled Workers, Fair Migration, Recruitment Fees, Financial Barriers, Policy Interventions, Ethical Recruitment, Labor Mobility.

INTRODUCTION

The considerable economic and social costs that migrants bear are becoming more widely acknowledged as significant barriers to achieving the benefits of international migration for sustainable development. The ILO and the World Bank are surveying workers to learn about their labour migration costs, which include recruitment costs, foregone wages due to underpayment, late payment or non-payment of wages, lack of compensation for work-related sickness or injuries, among other issues. This research is being done under the auspices of the Thematic Working Group on Low-Skilled Labour Migration of the Global Knowledge Partnership on Migration and Development (KNOMAD). KNOMAD is putting up a bilateral matrix on these expenses with an emphasis on domestic, agricultural, and construction labourers.

A major impediment to increased labour mobility is the expense of migration, particularly for low-skilled workers. They are often costly, opaque, and regressive; the lower the skill level of

the immigrant, the greater the cost of migration. Globally, there has been growing push for increased low-skilled labour mobility as industrialised economies, particularly those with ageing populations, have need more workers to fill positions in non-tradable services (such as construction, caregiving, and domestic support). The truth is that the low-skilled prefer to pay their migration expenses since there are often more workers than jobs, notwithstanding ILO norms stating employers should cover all direct and indirect migration costs. Many finance the expenses of relocation at high rates of interest so that a significant amount of their income may be spent to pay off debt. For instance, in Nepal, debt repayment accounts for approximately half of migrant remittances[1]–[3].

Cost savings during relocation may have significant advantages. First, cheaper labour would encourage poorer employees to relocate. The poorest people in developing nations may not immediately gain from international migration as a result of their inability to afford it, according to studies. Additionally, lowering the cost of migration would increase the discretionary income of migrants and their families. Third, destination nations could have fewer overstayers since high expenses tempt some migrants to extend their stays in order to save more money, leaving them subject to exploitation. Fourth, protecting employees via legitimate procedures helps lower migration expenses. According to household surveys conducted by the World Bank on migration in Indonesia in 2014, regular migrants incur average migration expenses that are 55% greater than those of irregular migrants.

Comprehensive statistics are needed for evidence-based migration cost reduction programmes. In order to calculate the costs of migration for low-skilled workers and create a bilateral database that is comparable across migration corridors, KNOMAD, a programme run by the World Bank in partnership with the ILO, has performed migrant surveys. Although data on more occupations and corridors is being gathered, the initial emphasis is on migrants working in the agricultural, construction, and domestic service sectors. In the framework of the post-2015 development agenda, this study seeks to contribute to the establishment of a worldwide objective to lower migration costs, such as to one month's projected salary.

Any stage of the migration cycle might result in expenses. Actors may incur fees at any stage of the migration cycle, from the issuing of employment orders through the repatriation of employees. In order to hire foreign employees, for instance, firms may have to pay for labour market or economic needs assessments. At the deployment stage, employees' expenses may be broadly divided into three categories: compliance or paperwork costs (such as visa and medical exam fees), transportation costs, and recruiting service fees.

High migration costs might be caused by predicted wages that are greater overseas than they are at home. Workers may be motivated to move because of salary disparities between their native country and other nations. For instance, migrant Vietnamese labourers earned US\$ 1,186 more per month in South Korea than they did in Vietnam. The willingness of employees to pay significant upfront migration expenses may help to explain why companies prefer to spend little in bringing in low-skilled foreign labour and are enticed to hire a large number of workers at low salaries.

Weak enforcement of immigration-related laws in both the nations of origin and destination pushes expenses, such recruiting fees and visa trading, over the ceiling. Because of visa (sponsor or kafil) trading, Bangladeshis spent an average of seven months' wages in migration fees to Kuwait, ranging from US\$1,675 to US\$5,154. In Kuwait, buying and selling visas is prohibited and punishable by steep penalties. Other intermediaries participating in this trade include family members and friends. According to Shah visa costs vary by place of origin, with Bangladeshis paying greater costs than Indians and Sri Lankans.

The KNOMAD poll reveals that Indians spent an average of \$344 for visas. Most of the expenditures incurred by Indians in Kuwait were related to recruiting fees, which are limited by the India Emigration Act to a maximum of INR 2,000 (or US\$312) each month. Indians spent nearly three times as much per month in Kuwait. This indicates that attempts to control recruiting fees haven't been very successful. Migration expenses were lower in corridors with strict enforcement. Under the bilateral labour mobility agreement, Ecuadorians who travelled to Spain for seasonal agricultural occupations were paid less than one month's salary since employers paid for one-way flights and employees searched for positions at public job fairs or via employment agencies.

DISCUSSION

Regional Integration and Labor Mobility

The United Nations' regional development agency, ESCAP, acts as the organization's principal hub for economic and social advancement in Asia and the Pacific. Its mission is to promote collaboration among its regular members and associate members. The strategic connection between international and national projects and concerns is provided by ESCAP. It assists regional governments in strengthening regional positions and promotes regional solutions to the region's particular socioeconomic problems in a globalising environment.

Studies In Trade and Investment

The Asia-Pacific region is seeing a dynamic rise in labour migration. Many of the world's most important sending and receiving nations are found in this area. Strong incentives have been established for people to migrate abroad due to the uneven rates of economic development, increasing regional connectivity, and widening income gaps both within and across nations. The old idea of labour migration as moving from "South" to "North" is no longer accurate enough to describe the diversity of movements throughout the Asia-Pacific. Migration patterns are also getting more complicated. There is general agreement that, under some circumstances, international labour mobility may favourably impact development and poverty reduction. In general, migrants and their families benefit from the potential to earn greater income overseas as well as the communities left behind in the sending nations.

Additionally, contrary to the widespread misconception that immigration causes social and economic damage, host nations may profit from the talents and economic vitality that newcomers bring. However, there are also expenses related to migration, such as high transaction costs for migrants, inadequate protection for workers' rights, and significant human and social costs related to distance from home countries. In nations of destination, migration may increase demand for public services and contribute to social tensions if poorly handled.

The international labour markets are still less linked than the markets for goods and services, despite the strong incentives for employees to migrate for greater earnings and the significant potential for growth of increasing migration. Similar to how the WTO regulates international commerce, there is no global body that oversees labour mobility. Instead, a patchwork of, usually ineffective, international treaties, regional agreements, and bilateral agreements sometimes included in larger trade deals manage labour movement [4]–[6]. In order to increase the openness of global labour markets and control the circumstances surrounding labour mobility, it is necessary for governments in both sending and receiving nations to strengthen their policies. This will ensure that labour mobility is "development friendly" and maximise its beneficial effects on poverty reduction and inclusive growth. According to UN Secretary General Ban Ki Moon, "migration can promote development with the right policies."

However, national policy alone won't be sufficient. The facilitation of safe, well-managed migration that benefits both sending and receiving governments as well as the migrants themselves calls for international, regional, and bilateral cooperation. The Asia-Pacific region's most recent patterns in labour migration are examined in this article. The primary pathways connecting commerce, labour migration, and development are then discussed, along with an examination of the policies that may maximise the influence of migration on development. Finally, regional cooperation activities in the field of migration are outlined, and regional and bilateral reform suggestions are made.

Recent trends in global and regional labour migration

Migration and the global economy

Over the last fifty years, international migration has more than doubled. Approximately 216 million persons were registered as foreign migrants at the end of 2010 compared to 93 million in 1960. However, as a percentage of the overall population, the number of migrants has remained relatively stable at roughly 3%. This stability is in contrast to other indicators of globalisation and economic integration, such as trade and capital flows, which have seen significant increases - of several multiples - during the same time period. This suggests that the movement of people has not been liberalised to the same degree. The movement of individuals across borders for employment or settlement seems to be the most constrained and limited of all cross-border migrations, yet there is no easy way to compare flows of various sorts. For instance, according to one set of estimates, the proportion of the global population that moves has remained mostly consistent since 1995 at around 0.6% across periods of five years. On the other hand, the contribution of yearly worldwide exports to global GDP has rapidly increased from approximately 14% in 1970 to over 30% in 2010. The fact that wages in similar professions vary more across nations than prices for comparable commodities and services suggests that labour markets continue to be the least linked sector of the global economy.

In some ways, the limited liberalisation of labour markets is expected given the greater and more complicated effects of population migrations than those of the interchange of tangible products or cross-border service delivery. Apart from limited efforts to attract groups of highly skilled workers, governments have refrained from widespread commitments to labour market opening due to concerns that migration will lower wages or result in job losses among local workers. Countries are generally eager to maintain sovereignty over access to domestic labour markets. Governments are also concerned about the potential implications of migration on social cohesion in addition to any economic repercussions. Many people worry that immigrants from diverse linguistic, racial, religious, and cultural backgrounds will have a hard time assimilating into their new cultures. Migration-driven population growth may also increase demand for public services like healthcare, education, and transportation. In contrast to the broad international consensus in favour of openness to trade and investment that has supported successive waves of trade liberalisation over recent decades, there has been no agreed global agenda on facilitating the movement of people. This is one difference between the global political economy of labour migration and that in the sphere of trade and investment. The sections that follow investigate this discrepancy in further depth.

The rising complexity of global migratory patterns is another noteworthy aspect. Some of the traditional classifications used to categorise migrants are muddled by this. 'Labour mobility' or 'labour migration' and 'migration' more generally are often distinguished in policy debates of cross-border human movement. According to a typical definition, "labour mobility" simply refers to the ability to enter the labour markets of the host nation, whereas "migration" refers

to broader claims to rights or citizenship. In addition, "labour mobility" is understood to refer to movement largely driven by the desire to work and earn money abroad, while "migration" might be driven by a variety of reasons, such as the need to obtain political asylum, flee violence and civil war, or reconnect with family. 'Labour mobility' is seen to be transient, and 'migration' is linked with permanent relocation, which is another area of divergence.

These differences are difficult to maintain in real life. When moving, people often have numerous goals in mind; temporary migration might become permanent; and even migrants who have attained citizenship in their new country may decide to go back. Statistics on international migration often do not distinguish between these groups. So, inasmuch as it considers the effects of individuals travelling abroad for work on development, this research is focused on "labour migration." The suggestions it makes focus on how nations may work together to make it easier for people to enter the employment market in order to promote growth. For instance, it doesn't discuss policies towards asylum seekers.

We must be mindful of the complexity of international migration and the challenges in completely isolating discussions about "labour migration" from more general questions about the movement of people across borders. Many nations are transitioning into origin, transit, and destination countries at the same time. Large numbers of labour migrants enter and leave the borders of nations like India, China, and the Russian Federation. Although the Philippines is well recognised as a net emigration country, there are also inflows of highly trained foreign labourers, the bulk of whom work for multinational firms. Migrants' own movements are becoming more diverse. Many people relocate back and forth between their countries of origin and destination over a long period of time, keeping social and professional networks in both. Others relocate to third nations after acquiring skills and resources in their first country of destination[7]–[10].

Global politicians are likely to keep immigration at the top of their list of priorities. Cross-border labour movement is still being fueled by a number of important factors, all of which are predicted to remain constant or even grow over the next several decades. Despite the recent good economic performance of developing nations (see the next section), disparities between what employees may earn at home and abroad are at an all-time high. In fact, when viewed historically, salary disparities now are bigger than they were during the late nineteenth century, a time of increased population migrations as a percentage of the world's population (Pritchett, 2009). Second, contrasting labour demand and supply patterns across nations will result from some countries' ageing populations and others' disproportionately young populations, which will stimulate migration to fill the gaps. Third, increased connection has reduced the cost of migrating, both financially and in terms of "psychological cost." Modern communications technology has made it simpler for migrants to settle in new places and stay in touch with their family back home, and diaspora groups are expanding. Fourth, there will continue to be "pull" pressures for inward migration as a result of the growing amount of low-skill, non-tradable occupations in wealthy nations. The next section examines the shifting migratory patterns peculiar to the Asia-Pacific area, which show all of these tendencies.

CONCLUSION

In order to control labour migration and promote orderly and controlled labour mobility between nations, bilateral and other agreements are essential. This essay has looked at the importance of these agreements as well as their goals, elements, advantages, difficulties, and ramifications. accords between two nations that provide a framework for the hiring, employing, and protecting of migrant workers are known as bilateral labour accords. They

often include rules on labour standards, pay, social security, and dispute resolution as well as the rights and duties of the sending and receiving nations. increased connection has reduced the cost of migrating, both financially and in terms of "psychological cost." Modern communications technology has made it simpler for migrants to settle in new places and stay in touch with their family back home, and diaspora groups are expanding. Fourth, there will continue to be "pull" pressures for inward migration as a result of the growing amount of low-skill, non-tradable occupations in wealthy nations. By guaranteeing the protection of migrant workers' rights and taking into account the demands of the labour markets in both countries, these agreements seek to establish a mutually advantageous and well-regulated system for labour mobility.

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CHAPTER 11

CHARACTERISTICS AND ANALYSIS OF ASIA-PACIFIC LABOR MIGRATION

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ABSTRACT:

The goal of this study is to analyse the dynamics and features of labour migration in the Asia-Pacific area, looking at trends, patterns, and consequences for sending and receiving nations. Millions of people have crossed international boundaries in quest of job opportunities, with the Asia-Pacific area serving as a prominent centre for this movement. The purpose of this research is to pinpoint the essential elements of labour migration in the area, including the industries, jobs, and skill levels of migrant workers. It examines the variables that influence labour market dynamics, demographics, and economic inequality as well as the causes and determinants of labour migration. This study evaluates the patterns and trends of labour migration, including the countries of origin and destination, gender composition, and work arrangements, via a thorough examination of data, case studies, and statistical models. It also looks at the cultural, societal, and economic effects of labour migration in sending and receiving nations, including remittances, brain drain, social integration, and the effect on labour markets. The results show the variety of labour mobility in the Asia-Pacific area as well as its effects on social cohesion and sustainable development. To better understand the features and dynamics of labour movement in the area and to develop evidence-based policies and initiatives that support migrant workers' rights and well-being, policymakers, researchers, and stakeholders would benefit greatly from this study.

KEYWORDS:

Asia-pacific, Labor Migration, Trends, Drivers, Challenges, Economic Disparities, Demographic Shifts, Labor Market Demands.

INTRODUCTION

Outward migration from Asia-Pacific countries

A significant factor in the economic growth of the Asia-Pacific area has been international worker mobility. Since about 1970, the Asia-Pacific has been a net sender of migrants; the number of Asian-Pacific residents residing abroad climbed from 40 million in 1970 to an estimated 80 million in 2010. However, it is difficult to collect precise data on migration due to flaws in the statistics that are currently available.

The majority of the data comes from censuses, which measure the number of citizens who were born abroad (although those who cross international borders often may also be included as "foreign born". Additionally, migration information derived from administrative records does not differentiate between movement for work and migration for other reasons. Where migration is irregular, migrants are often missed by official statistics, which might lead to an underestimation of the overall migrant population. So, although it may be assumed that labour migration is the main driver, the data on regional migration patterns shown below provides aggregate migration stocks[1]–[3].

Additionally, migration may have an impact on labour markets even when it is predominantly driven by non-economic factors. For instance, those who migrate to be with family may find employment and send money back to their home country. To the extent practicable, country-level statistics are also utilised to supplement global comparison data. Less than one-quarter of foreign migrants were returned to the Asia-Pacific area in 2010, despite being the origin of 38% of them. China, India, Pakistan, and the Russian Federation are four of the top 10 nations from which people migrate internationally. In 2010, almost 40% of immigrants from Asia-Pacific nations travelled inside the region.

South and Southwest Asia (SSWA) is the subregion of the Asia-Pacific that sends the most migrants overall. About two-fifths of all foreign migrants who came from Asia and the Pacific in 2010 were classified as SSWA. India (11.4 million migrants), Bangladesh (5.4 million), Pakistan (4.7 million), Turkey (4.3 million), and Afghanistan (2.4 million) are the five out of the ten nations in Asia and the Pacific that send the most migrants. Contract labourers from South and Southwest Asia often go to the Middle East to work as domestic assistance or in low-skilled construction occupations.

Just under 25% of regional migrants come from North and Central Asia (NCA). Between 1980 and 2010, the percentage of South-East Asian immigrants to the Asia-Pacific region more than quadrupled, from 7% to 16%. More people (4.3 million) left the Philippines than any other nation in the area. More recently, the ASEAN region's market has been more interconnected, which has increased worker movements within the area. Approximately 15% of people who leave Asia for the Pacific come from East and Northeast Asia (ENEA), with approximately 70% coming from China (8.3 million). While several of the bigger economies in the Asia-Pacific area rank among the top sources of international migration in terms of volume, some of the smallest nations in the region have some of the highest net migration rates when measured by population. Particularly, the economies of certain Pacific Island nations have exceptionally high net emigration rates. Eight Pacific Island states are among the ten.

Inward migration to countries in Asia and the Pacific

International migration to Asia-Pacific nations has significantly increased on an absolute basis during the 1980s. Due to the region's rapid economic expansion and demographic changes, several areas are experiencing a growing labour shortage. However, although the proportion of migrants travelling to North America and the Middle East has increased, the region's share in worldwide inward migration has decreased from 40% in 1960 to around 23% in 2010. North and Central Asia gets more foreign migrants than other Asia-Pacific subregions combined. 37% of all foreign immigrants entering Asia and the Pacific arrived in the subregion. Nearly 70% of these travelled to the Russian Federation, but Kazakhstan has also become a significant destination as a result of its growth as an economy. About 24% of all immigrants to Asia and the Pacific come from SSWA. Of the SSWA immigrants, 27% immigrated to Pakistan and 35% moved to India. Other estimates place the number of migrants in the Russian Federation in 2010 at 5 and 7. About 1.5 million migrants from Ukraine, 1.2 million from Uzbekistan, and 0.8 million from Tajikistan have entered the Russian Federation. Approximately 400,000 of the estimated 600,000 migrants from Kyrgyzstan in the Russian Federation are thought to be labourers (Aburazakova, 2010).

South-East Asia received around 14% of the migrants who entered the Asia-Pacific area. Malaysia (35%), Singapore (29%), and Thailand (17%) are the main entry points for labour migrants into the SEA. Notably, Singapore has the greatest net immigration rate in Asia and the Pacific with almost 14 immigrants per 1,000 inhabitants because to its open economy,

especially for employment/Singapore limits the intake of low-skilled migrants while giving talented immigrants the chance to obtain permanent citizenship. A total of 1,321,600 non-resident employees were employed in Singapore as of December 2013, including 214,500 domestic workers and 319,100 construction workers (Government of Singapore, nd). Additionally, Malaysia draws a sizable number of migrants. roughly 1.8 million legally registered foreign workers were present in the nation in 2010, with Indonesia accounting for roughly half of them. An estimated 4 million migrants reside in Thailand, the most of whom are low-skilled labourers from the surrounding nations of Cambodia, Myanmar, and the Lao People's Democratic Republic. The great majority of migrants still have undocumented status and live in Thailand. Therefore, the number of migrants in Thailand is overstated by official statistics[4]–[6].

DISCUSSION

About 12% of immigrants to Asia and the Pacific came from East and North East Asia. Japan (42%), Hong Kong, China (34%), China (10%), and the Republic of Korea (8%), are the main destinations. ENEA got less immigrants than other Asia-Pacific subregions in comparison to other subregions. However, three ENEA economies—Macau, Taiwan Province of China, Hong Kong, China—are among the 11 Asia-Pacific nations with positive net immigration rates.

The majority of foreigners in Japan are family members or students rather than workers who are legally residing there. There are, however, certain visa categories that permit taking on particular jobs, including "entertainers" or "special internships." Japan has somewhat more than 2 million foreign residents in 2011, including all types of immigration. Around 80% of foreign residents in Japan come from Asia, namely China (32%) and the Republic of Korea (26%) and their respective nations. There are numerous programmes in Hong Kong, China, that permit entrance for work. A number of measures are designed to draw in highly qualified experts. However, domestic workers, who number an estimated 312,395 in Hong Kong, China, make up the bulk of foreign employees. About half of them are from the Philippines and half are from Indonesia[7]–[9].

The Republic of Korea publishes rather in-depth information about immigrants in the nation, broken down by kind of immigration and country of origin. 1,117,481 foreign-born people lived in the Republic of Korea in 2012, including 588,944 migrant workers, including 231,248 who arrived under the Employment Permit System (EPS) and 300,554 on a "working visit." Viet Nam (27%) is the primary country of origin for individuals who arrived via the EPS, followed by the Philippines (11%), Indonesia (11%), Thailand (10%), and Sri Lanka (9%), while 96% of those travelling for business are from China. Since 1992, the Chinese province of Taiwan has struggled with a manpower shortage, leading to the creation of programmes for temporary foreign workers. By the end of November 2011, Taiwan Province of China had an estimated 420,000 foreign contract employees, the majority of whom were working in industry and in service jobs like domestic helpers and carers. The top nations of origin for these contract workers are Indonesia (38%), Viet Nam (23%), the Philippines (19%), Thailand (18%), and Malaysia (2%).

Intra-Regional Migration

Labour movements within regions are becoming more significant. Currently, neighbouring Asia-Pacific nations are home to more than 40% of emigrants from the region. Europe (21%), North America (17%), and the Middle East (15%) are other popular travel locations. Subregional study, however, indicates radically different migration trends amongst subregions. Nearly 70% of immigrants from South and Southwest Asia migrated to countries

outside the Asia-Pacific area. Particularly, the Gulf States are a sought-after location since, as was already said, many South Asian migrants work there as domestic workers or in the construction industry. In contrast, emigration from the Pacific islands, where Australia and New Zealand are the main destinations, is dominated by intraregional movement. In other Asia-Pacific subregions, between 40% and 50% of immigrants picked intraregional destinations.

The fact that most intraregional migration occurs within a single subregion emphasises the value of proximity. For instance, Australia and New Zealand received 99 percent of the intraregional migration from the Pacific islands. 94% of intraregional migration within South and South-West Asia was intra-subregional, with India and Pakistan being the main transit countries. Since the borders remain open, it is impossible to keep track of how many Nepalis travel to India thanks to a free-trade agreement between the two nations. According to some estimates, there are around 1 million Nepalis living in India.

Around 75% of intraregional migration in South-East Asia occurs within the subregion, mostly to neighbouring nations with noticeably higher earnings, such as from Myanmar and the Lao People's Democratic Republic to Thailand. 68% of intraregional migration in East and Northeast Asia occurs inside the subregion. A significant portion of this is between the economies of Chinese-speakers, especially between China and Hong Kong, China. On the receiving end, Asia and the Pacific received international migrants from over 70% of intraregional sources. With the exception of the Pacific, between 60 and 80% of immigrants entering each Asia-Pacific subregion come from inside the region. The majority of inbound migrants come from within-subregional migration, which is similar to the situation for outbound migration. In North and Central Asia and South and Southwest Asia, the majority of immigrants come from countries within the aforementioned subregions. A significant portion of immigrants from the Asia-Pacific area in Southeast Asia (68%) and East and Northeast Asia (87%) may also be attributed to intra-subregional migration.

South-South migration in Asia and the Pacific

South-South movement, often known as migration between emerging nations, is garnering more attention but is typically less understood than migration from the "South" to the "North." In the context of the Asia-Pacific area, determining which nations are "developing" and, hence, fall within the category of the "South" is not straightforward.

Using the World Bank's income classifications as a reference, the data reveals that, worldwide, South-South movement accounts for around 35% of total international migration whereas South-North migration makes for about 50%. About 23% of migration from Asia-Pacific nations occurs through the South-South migration route, with most of this movement occurring inside the area. 77% of migration from Asia and the Pacific to the South is to intraregional locations. The real percentage, however, is probably considerably greater since informal South-South movement within the area is often underreported.

Across Asia-Pacific subregions, there are different South-South migration trends. While it is less important for other subregions, intraregional South-South migration is very large for the SSWA and SEA subregions. With India as the main destination, it makes up 31% of SSWA's overseas migration. In the case of Southeast Asia, intraregional South-South migrations account for roughly 21% of moves; Malaysia and Thailand are the main destinations. Economic incentives continue to be a major factor in encouraging South-South migration, even if income inequalities between emerging nations (the "South") are less than those between developing and industrialised economies. Immigration from neighbouring lower-income nations is common in many middle-income countries. Examples include

Burmese labourers in Thailand and Indonesian workers in Malaysia. Extreme poverty in low-income nations also contributes to movement between low-income nations with varying economic levels, such as migration from Bangladesh and Nepal to India.

The causes of South-South movement, however, are more nuanced than those of South-North migration. Income disparities only have a little impact, according to Ratha and Shaw (2007b). Migration to neighbouring developing nations is anticipated to have fewer financial and social consequences than South-North migration owing to the greater geographic and cultural closeness. Additionally, the costs and risks associated with migration are reduced by the ethnic, communal, and familial networks that are often robust in surrounding countries. For instance, information from migrants who have settled overseas enables future migrants to learn about career prospects and acquire job information immediately. In other words, intraregional South-South migration may be more influenced by physical and cultural closeness than total interregional migration. According to those presumptions, 70% of South-South migration from the Asia-Pacific area occurs inside the same subregion, across nations. In contrast, migration from the South to the North is more noticeable and tends to occur to farther-off locations outside the subregion. South-South migration between neighbouring nations is influenced by other variables as well. Temporary worker migrations may be influenced by the seasonality of agricultural output. For instance, during the planting and harvesting seasons, a large number of farmers from Nepal enter northeast India. Political instability may also lead to temporary or transient migration, as seen by the many Afghan refugees who have fled to Pakistan.

Future drivers of regional migration

The region's migratory factors are also changing. Prior to the 1980s, political unrest and instability often served as a catalyst for migrations to and from the Asia-Pacific region. For instance, many refugees from Asian nations including Cambodia, China, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, and Viet Nam arrived in huge numbers in Australia, Canada, Europe, and the United States. These refugees were then followed by family migrants. Substantial-scale construction projects began to draw substantial numbers of contractual workers, especially from South Asia, in the Middle Eastern oil-exporting nations, notably the Gulf, beginning in the 1980s. The demand for workers in several regional economies has grown since the early 1990s as a result of the region's strong economic expansion, notably in industries with a high labour intensity. Based on existing data, it is anticipated that differences in economic performance across regional nations, widening demographic gaps, and increased labour demand in certain industries would all have an impact on migratory trends.

Growing pay gaps across nations is a result of the economic dynamism in certain economies. In absolute terms, this has encouraged more intraregional mobility. The large differences in GDP throughout the area are still there, and broader indicators of progress and well-being like the UN Human Progress Index also highlight the enormous disparities across nations. According to data from the ASEAN region, policymakers' efforts to close the development gap between the "CLMV" countries—Cambodia, Lao People's Democratic Republic, Myanmar, and Viet Nam—and the other six members were successful in reducing disparities in Human Development Scores, but they did not make as much progress in promoting income convergence.

It was predicted that these nations' GDP per capita will not catch up to the ASEAN average until the 2030s. Therefore, income disparities may be predicted to continue to increase demand for labour migration both within the subregion and more generally [10]–[12].

CONCLUSION

The Asia-Pacific region's labour migration has unique features that are influenced by a variety of trends, causes, and difficulties. In order to manage labour migration in the area efficiently, this article has examined these features and emphasised the need of comprehensive policies and international collaboration. Significant labour movement flows occur in the Asia-Pacific area as a result of a confluence of economic inequalities, demographic changes, and labour market needs. The mobility of individuals in quest of improved career chances is influenced by the economic differences between the various countries, with some countries seeing fast economic development and others struggling with poverty and a lack of job opportunities. Labour migration trends are also influenced by demographic changes, such as ageing populations in certain nations and a youth bulge in others.

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CHAPTER 12

INVESTIGATION OF TRENDS IN REGIONAL REMITTANCE FLOWS

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ABSTRACT:

The primary goal of this study is to examine regional remittance patterns and their effects on economic growth. Remittances, or the money that migrants send back to their home countries, have a big impact on local economies and ways of life. With regard to the areas of origin and destination, the volume of remittance inflows, and the transfer routes, this research seeks to determine the important trends in regional remittance flows. It examines the variables affecting remittance flows, including migratory trends, economic circumstances, and institutional structures. This study evaluates the effect of remittances on economic growth, poverty reduction, investment, and consumption habits in recipient nations via a thorough examination of data, case studies, and statistical models. It also examines the difficulties and possibilities brought on by remittance flows, such as the expense of transfers, financial inclusion, and the ability to use remittances for profitable ventures. The research shows how regional remittance flows are dynamically changing and have the ability to spur economic growth and development. In order to create policies and interventions that maximise the beneficial effects of remittances on regional economies, policymakers, researchers, and stakeholders should consider the insights provided by this study.

KEYWORDS:

Remittance Flows, Regional, Trends, Drivers, Impacts, Financial Transfers, Economic Development, Financial Inclusion, Policies.

INTRODUCTION

Total remittances from migrant workers have increased along with the number of migrants in the Asia-Pacific region. In recent years, governments' interest in the size of global and regional remittance flows and their potential as a tool for development has grown. The data on the remittances' effects on development in the Asia-Pacific is in light of the trend towards increasing flows. Global remittance flows have increased significantly over the last 50 years, reaching \$489 billion in 2011 (UNCTAD, 2012), and are projected to reach \$515 billion in 2015 (World Bank, 2013a). The similar growing pattern has been seen for remittances received by nations in the Asia-Pacific (albeit part of the increase may be attributed to improved national record-keeping). According to the Asian Development Bank's classification of the world's regions, South-East Asia and the Pacific get the most remittances, with South Asia coming in second (Ozaki, 2012).

Remittances to the Asia-Pacific area as a whole were officially reported at \$40 billion in 2000, and by 2010 they were close to \$190 billion. Remittances to the area initially exceeded \$200 billion in 2011 and even when the global economy slowed down in 2012, they continued to rise and reached a new high of \$219 billion. The Asian continent got roughly

\$260 billion in 2012, according to alternative estimates from the International Fund for Agricultural Development[1]–[3].

Remittance flows constitute a far larger source of foreign funding for poor nations in the Asia-Pacific region than ODA, while they are still much less than FDI inflows. Remittances to the Asia-Pacific region have been shown to be more robust to economic downturns than FDI and ODA, in addition to their size. Remittances are often counter-cyclical, while private capital flows vary in response to economic cycles in both the country of origin and the country of destination. Remittance flows' altruistic nature which frequently serves as the primary source of income for the recipient family helps to account for their relative stability. Foreign employees cut down on spending and devote bigger portions of their income to remittances in reaction to challenging economic conditions in their home countries, effectively balancing family income at home and providing overall economic support. Remittances may thus act as a helpful counter-cyclical buffer from a macroeconomic standpoint during times of economic adversity.

The number of migrants departing the world did decrease as a result of the current global economic and financial crises. However, remittances to the Asia-Pacific region only slightly decreased in 2009 before rapidly increasing in 2010 with a remarkable growth rate of 15.2%. ADB research found typical patterns in Pakistan, where remittances increased despite a decline in migration to Pakistan. The economies of Asia, which were most impacted by the financial crisis of 1997, benefited from remittances as a stabilizing influence as well.

As a result of new technology and legislative changes, transaction costs are dropping, which is one of the factors causing increased remittance flows. By using the comparative advantages of various actors in the money transfer industry, increased cooperation between regional and international organizations, the private sector, NGOs, and state-owned firms is assisting in cost reduction. As a consequence, there have been significant cost reductions along some of the main international migration routes, such as those from the Gulf States to South Asia. The area that has benefited the most from these cost reductions over the last ten years is the Asia-Pacific. Today, the Asia Pacific region is the final destination for all five of the least expensive routes for shipping \$200. Notably, China, the second-largest recipient of remittances in the Asia-Pacific area, has made substantial improvement. Transaction fees for remittances sent to China were over 15% in 2009, whereas today's rates are just 11.6%.

Intraregional remittance flows throughout Asia-Pacific subregions vary significantly, much as migration patterns do. Remittances from workers in Australia to other nations in Asia and the Pacific account for a significant portion of the Pacific's overall remittance flow. Due to employees in Thailand, Singapore, or Malaysia sending money home to Cambodia, Laos, Myanmar, or Indonesia, South-East Asia has large intraregional flows. The significance of Russia as a migration destination for people from North and Central Asia also explains the very high intraregional movements there.

Migration and trade

Migration and commerce in commodities and services are related. Growing migrant movements have been seen in the Asia-Pacific area in recent years. Over the last two decades, trade has also increased quickly on both a regional and international level as the Asia-Pacific area has become the most active economic region in the world.

There are both direct and indirect links between the mobility of people and the movement of products and services. The relationships between commerce and migration that have been studied in the literature are reviewed in the next section. The next sections look at how labour

migration is handled worldwide, regionally, and bilaterally, including how to handle migration difficulties in the context of trade agreements, as well as the explicit developmental implications of migratory flows.

Trade and migration as substitutes

The debate over whether trade and migration are alternatives or alternatives has received a lot of attention in the literature. Growing trade volumes may lessen migratory pressures if they are substitutes. However, if they are complementary, migration will often lead to a rise in demand for traded products and services, either globally via increased incomes and GDP or locally through network and diaspora effects. It is sometimes claimed, assuming substitutability, that governments have a choice between admitting things and admitting people. The solution to this issue has significant policy ramifications.

However, if the two partners have a complimentary relationship and further trade barrier reductions are unlikely, liberalizing migration may be able to boost trade and welfare between the two parties. This section explores how these research problems and the relevant empirical research may be addressed by the implications from the common trade theoretic models. Take the classic trade theory as an example, which sees immigration and trade in products as alternatives. If commodities are just collections of components of production, then labour (as one factor) might be exported indirectly via the mobility of laborer's or directly through the export of products with a high labour content. In such a case, trade liberalization lessens the demand on migration since factor prices become more comparable across nations as a result of trade flows, which are influenced by comparative advantages. In other words, under some circumstances, when nations just vary in their endowments of factors and if there is free trade, the traditional trade models suggest that trade and migration are alternatives.

Therefore, manufacturers in labor-scarce nations may be anticipated to boost imports of labor-intensive items from those countries where labour is comparatively plentiful if immigration is regulated and restrictions are placed on the free movement of people. In contrast, high import tariffs would limit prospective immigrants' exports from their home countries, resulting in a decline in the demand for labour required to produce labor-intensive export goods. Since wages are generally high and unemployment is low in developed nations with protected domestic industries, immigrants who can access these labour markets may make significant gains. As a result, the country with the high import tariffs may come under pressure from immigrants seeking access to their labour market, either legally or illegally [4]–[6].

Along with replacing immigration with the importation of completed products, outsourcing is now often used by nations to request low-skilled labor-intensive intermediate items from low-wage economies. Naturally, this might cause the demand for low-skilled labour in the importing nation to decline somewhat. Manufacturing outsourcing may subsequently raise worries about the demise of native industries, a problem that has been especially evident in nations like Japan. The expansion of service outsourcing was another recent trend that was evident. In this instance, the process is being driven not by a disparity in the quantity of the inputs of production (i.e., unskilled labour), but rather by significant pay gaps between industrialized and developing nations for low- or semi-skilled employees. By moving back-office tasks like contact centres or data entry to countries with cheaper wages, for example, many businesses have taken advantage of these differentials to reduce their cost bases. A larger variety of outsourcing is now available because to improved connection, especially for communications and ICT. Even highly specialised jobs like medical diagnostics may increasingly be outsourced in a similar way.

Concerns about domestic employment losses in industrialised countries have been raised by outsourcing. Outsourcing may possibly have a higher impact on the labour force in developed countries than the loss of manufacturing employment to low-cost areas since services make up a larger part of production than manufacturing. From a purely economic standpoint, outsourcing should increase overall welfare because it may result in the replacement of lower-paying jobs with higher-paying ones; additionally, increased competition should increase productivity, broaden the range of services available to consumers, and reduce service prices. However, outsourcing may have distributional effects, and not all groups will profit equally, much as with other trade benefits. Immigration and service outsourcing might be considered as alternatives to international commerce in products. Outsourcing is one tactic that businesses might use if they cannot find affordable workers locally or via migration. Outsourcing has fewer restrictions than migration does in the majority of industrialized nations. Thus, policymakers in affluent nations may have to choose between allowing more immigration, which might result in social costs, and seeing a greater proportion of service employment outsourced to other countries. This raises an interesting issue, as the net benefits of outsourcing as compared to immigration have yet to be thoroughly evaluated," Poot adds. According to a meta-analysis of the available data, immigration has minimal effect on native employees' salaries and job prospects.

DISCUSSION

Trade and migration as complements

Migration shouldn't always be seen as a replacement for commerce or outsourcing. There is a greater chance that commerce and migration will complement each other if some of the stringent assumptions of traditional trade theories are relaxed. When commerce expands together with global factor mobility, factor flows may be seen as complementary. Either (1996) demonstrates that trade within industries and trade in reaction to global disparities in economies of scale should be considered complements to migration. In manufacturing, immigrants and local labour may complement rather than replace one another, or they may even be insufficient alternatives in some skill areas. Additionally, immigrants raise the demand for products and services provided locally and might hasten the process of capital accumulation.

Other ways in which migrants may vary from native labour include their willingness to do tasks that locals deem unpleasant. Migrants and local employees may complement each other in the production process if particular unskilled occupations in specific categories become less desirable due to better options for locals elsewhere in the labour force. Migrant inflows may also raise the productivity of local workers. There is conflicting empirical data about whether trade and migration are alternatives or complements for factor arbitrage. For instance, utilized data for the Atlantic economy from 1936 to 1970 to examine if the amounts of trade and migration are positively or negatively connected, but they found no association in the vast majority of situations. Furthermore, according to the formal analytics, it is not quite evident how these correlations connect to the fundamental problem of complementarity. Immigration is separated into skilled and unskilled labour, and both skill- and unskilled-intensive outputs are included in an intriguing analysis. They discovered that skilled immigrants complement commerce in terms of quantity. Unskilled workers, on the other hand, seem to be trade substitutes according to the data, although the coefficient is statistically insignificant.

Network and diaspora impact on trade

Increased demand for traded products and services will arise if migration raises global incomes. To be more precise, migration may encourage or establish commerce between nations of origin and destination. In recent years, economists have worked more to understand the network impacts of migration on commerce. Migration networks may improve commerce by lowering the expenses associated with dealing with inaccurate information. In their home and host countries, migrants might serve as an information conduit between providers and demanders. Immigrants' in-depth familiarity with domestic markets, including consumer preferences, laws, and business customs, may assist reduce transaction costs and promote commerce. Additionally, migrants may help with communication, particularly when there are linguistic hurdles. Trade may also be facilitated by using personal networks that have connections to suppliers (Rauch and Trindade, 2002). When immigrant populations are sizable, there may be a demand for things made in the nation of origin, such as food or cultural items.

Although the benefits are relatively small in terms of quantity, a review of empirical research on the effects of trade and immigration reveals that there are considerable and positive elasticities, giving evidence that international migration stimulates international commerce. For instance, Lung (2008) examined Australia and 10 Asian trading partners between 1963 and 2000 and found an export elasticity of 0.15 and an import elasticity of 0.32 with regard to migration.

In other words, an increase of 10% in immigration from a given nation would result in a 1.5% rise in exports to that nation and a 3.2% increase in imports from that nation. The export impact of immigration on host nations is often less significant than the import effect. This is consistent with how the two channels are operating: whereas migrants' need for goods from their place of origin will only have an influence on imports, immigration's effect on trade facilitation affects both imports and exports[7]–[10].

When immigrants create more established communities, these impacts could be mitigated. Few studies have compared the degree of network effects between groups of long-term and short-term migrants. Overall, however, the influence of immigrants on commerce will decline as they integrate more fully into the communities and economy of their new countries. According to one commenter, "their role as trade facilitators for exports to and imports from their home country will be most effective if they remain in regular contact and continue to desire goods from their home country." The paradox that results from this is that although quick integration, including cultural assimilation, may lessen social tensions, migrants who specialize in trade with their home country gain by keeping their cultural identity.

CONCLUSION

The global economy has been shaped by regional remittance flows in recent years, which have also had an influence on the economic growth and welfare of both sending and receiving countries. In order to maximize the advantages of remittances, this article has examined these developments and emphasized the need of effective policies and financial inclusion. Regional remittance flows have grown significantly as a result of issues including labor mobility, economic inequality, and globalization.

North America, Europe, the Middle East, Asia-Pacific, and Sub-Saharan Africa are important areas affected by these migrations. Economists have worked more to understand the network impacts of migration on commerce. Migration networks may improve commerce by lowering the expenses associated with dealing with inaccurate information. In their home and host countries, migrants might serve as an information conduit between providers and demanders. Immigrants' in-depth familiarity with domestic markets, including consumer preferences,

laws, and business customs, may assist reduce transaction costs and promote commerce. Additionally, migrants may help with communication, particularly when there are linguistic hurdles. The magnitude of remittance transfers is greatly impacted by migration patterns, notably the movement of workers from developing to developed nations.

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