

HUMAN DIGNITY AND SOCIAL AUTONOMY

Ranjeet Mathew Jacob
Shinil Paul Mathews



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CONTENTS

Chapter 1. Analysis and Evolution of Labour Migration and Development.....	1
— <i>Ranjeet Mathew Jacob</i>	
Chapter 2. Analysis of Recipient Country Labor Markets.....	8
— <i>Kartik Agre</i>	
Chapter 3. Migration in Bilateral Preferential Trade Agreements	15
— <i>Sarah Pauly</i>	
Chapter 4. Regional and Bilateral Agreements on Labour Mobility	22
— <i>Zheer Ahmad</i>	
Chapter 5. Trade and Migration as Complements: Exploring Synergies for Economic Development	30
— <i>Ancy P. Anto</i>	
Chapter 6. Exploring the Impacts of Remittance Flows	36
— <i>Utsa Sarkar</i>	
Chapter 7. Managing Labour Mobility in the Asia-Pacific Area: An Overview	42
— <i>Mumtaz Ahmad Shah</i>	
Chapter 8. Maximize the Development Impacts of Labour Mobility for the Sending Country	48
— <i>Shinil Paul Mathews</i>	
Chapter 9. Analysis of System of Institutionalized Costs and International Migration Patterns.....	54
— <i>Reshma S. Nair</i>	
Chapter 10. Empirical Mobility Functions: Modeling and Analysis of Human Mobility Patterns	60
— <i>Hiteshi</i>	
Chapter 11. Evolution of Occupational Mobility of Labor	71
— <i>Uma Narayanan</i>	
Chapter 12. Workers' Awareness about the Labour Laws.....	83
— <i>Gargi Singh</i>	

CHAPTER 1

ANALYSIS AND EVOLUTION OF LABOUR MIGRATION AND DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT:

This study examines the patterns, difficulties, and potential policy ramifications of labour migration in order to analyse how it has changed over time and how it affects development. The worldwide issue of labour migration has important repercussions for both sending and receiving nations. This research investigates the background and development of labour migration while looking at the factors and causes that affect migration trends. It examines the economic, social, and cultural repercussions of labour migration on both sending and receiving nations for migrants, as well as the impacts on labour markets, remittances, human capital, and social cohesion. This study evaluates the possibilities and problems related to labour migration, including irregular migration, labour exploitation, brain drain, and social integration. It does this via a thorough review of empirical research, case studies, and policy papers. In controlling labour migration and maximising its developmental potential, it also examines the function of policies and interventions. The results enlightened us on the intricate nature of labour mobility and its effects on sustainable development. As they develop evidence-based policies to address the challenges of labour migration, foster its positive effects while addressing them, and ensure migrant workers' rights and well-being, the findings from this research will be helpful to policymakers, researchers, and stakeholders.

KEYWORDS:

Labour Migration, Development, Economic Impact, Social Impact, Demographic Impact, Policies, Interventions.

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between labour mobility and development is now the subject of much research and debate. A higher degree of interest among policymakers has also been reflected in this increasing level of study. Building on the advancements made since the first High-Level Dialogue on Migration and Development in 2006, the United Nations General Assembly conducted a second Dialogue in October 2013. The Dialogue recognized that migration had a significant impact on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and that it was crucial to take human mobility into account when formulating the post-2015 development agenda. The group decided on an eight-point action plan titled "Making Migration Work." There is now widespread agreement that increased mobility, particularly for low-skilled employees, might have a substantial impact on the decrease of poverty. This is a significant change since prior generations of scholars were generally suspicious about the advantages of immigration for developing nations[1]–[3].

As a result of dependence, migration was seen as "not only a symptom of underdevelopment, but a cause of it, as it depopulates entire regions, turns sending families from producers into rentiers, and allows governments to escape their responsibilities by relying on migrant remittances" (Portes, 2008). Despite ongoing worries, notably about the 'brain drain' of highly

qualified individuals from poor nations, there is generally agreement that migration may help development in a variety of ways when conditions are favourable. There is growing evidence that, when supported by the appropriate policies, migrant and diaspora communities can significantly contribute to development in both origin and destination countries, through remittances, trade, investment, the creation of businesses, and the transfer of technology, skills, and knowledge, as noted at the 2013 UN high-level dialogue.⁸

The effects of rising migratory flows on global wellbeing have been estimated in a variety of research. The majority of times, computable general equilibrium models constitute the foundation for analyses of the global benefits of allowing migration. These assessments are often predicated on the premise that all work is equal and that pay disparities are a result of policy distortions (or labour market inefficiencies). While specific results vary (depending on how host labour markets are modelled), most predictions show that the benefits from increasing labour mobility, even slightly, would be very large and in some cases, the benefits are predicted to be many times higher than those available from further liberalising world trade, such as through completion of the Doha Round of WTO negotiations.

According to Winters' (2003) research, an increase of 3% in the labour force in recipient nations roughly 16 million more people would result in global welfare benefits of \$156 billion. It is larger by almost a factor of three than annual official development assistance in the 1990s, and significantly larger than the same model's estimate of the gains from all proposed remaining trade liberalisation (\$104 billion), according to Pritchett. If anything, these figures are cautious. A more recent World Bank research found advantages from a comparable liberalisation of worker mobility to be twice as big (\$356 billion). To explain this amount in detail: it exceeds the amount of the total assistance flows by more than four times.

These significant improvements were attained with just marginally increased global labour flow rates. In a 1984 research, Hamilton and Whalley anticipated that perfect freedom of movement would cause the global GDP to quadruple. It does demonstrate that the scope of potential gains from expanded migration outweighs those from wider trade liberalisation, even if it is obvious that this is both politically and practically impossible. In a way, this is not unexpected since the majority of the markets for products are already well linked. However, the enormous pay gaps between wealthy and poorer nations are proof that there are still significant "distortions" in the world's labour markets.

The distributional effects both within and between sending and receiving nations must be included in any estimate of overall welfare improvements. According to a minority opinion, the country of origin will lose while the country of destination gains. Migration from the North to the South will likely result in gains for the North but losses for the South. Though that could be true in certain situations, there are excellent reasons to think that this would not be the normal outcome. In fact, the fact that the North often opposes the South's aspirations for more access to northern labour markets in international discussions serves as conclusive proof that developing nations gain from higher migration.

The data supporting the economic advantages of labour mobility for developing nations is presented and discussed in the parts that follow. A number of connections are examined, with a focus on data and examples from the Asia-Pacific area. The following list of major pathways between rising migration and development includes: Benefits to the sending nation via remittances; Direct benefits to the migrant worker Effects on the labour markets of exporting countries and on the incentives for the building of human capital.

Benefits to the migrant worker

The migrant who can work abroad for a greater income than they might earn at home, assuming they can find job at all, is the main benefit of labour mobility. The benefits that the workers themselves receive benefits that were, of course, the main reason for emigration are frequently glossed over in discussions of the pros and cons of migration for development in the development literature, despite the fact that this may seem like a statement of the obvious.

This error, according to Pritchett, was caused by the development discourse's focus on nation-states. Accordingly, "development" refers to what occurs to nation states' economies, not to the welfare of their citizens. Therefore, moving from a poor to a wealthy nation is not considered "development". This narrative, perhaps coincidentally, supports restrictions on immigration to wealthier nations. Why are these people who are moving overlooked, asks Nyarko. When a Ghanaian or a Bangladeshi leaves their country's borders, they don't appear to factor into the mobility equation, at least not in public discussions. That there are significant incentives for cross-border mobility due to the wide and continuing income differences between nations in the world and in the Asia-Pacific region. This suggests that individual workers will gain much from migration. Despite the focus on developing Asia's explosive development over the last two decades, very wide income discrepancies will endure over time. While both professional and low-skilled migrants may make many times their incomes by migrating, there will still be strong "pull" reasons and significant potential advantages of migration. In fact, when viewed historically, the last several decades have been characterized by a significant income gap between the highest- and lowest-income countries: According to one set of estimates, the ratio increased from 10 to 1 in 1870 to almost 50 to 1 by the end of the previous century.

DISCUSSION

As a result, the vast majority of the anticipated welfare benefits from enhanced global labor mobility go to the migrants themselves in the form of higher salaries. Evidence of continuously strong average wage improvements for migrant workers was reported in a 2009 UNDP assessment. Unsurprisingly, migrants relocating from nations with low Human Development Index (HDI) scores to OECD countries had the biggest absolute increases (UNDP, 2009). For example, Pacific Islanders in New Zealand saw a three-fold rise in their net real earnings. Moving to non-OECD nations may also result in significant advantages. For instance, Thai migrants are paid at least four times as much as they would as low-skilled employees at home in Hong Kong, China, and Taiwan Province of China. Additionally, benefits to immigrants may grow over time since they will benefit from improved integration into the local labour market as they learn the language and become aware of local possibilities.

The average salary for South Asian and Filipino immigrants working in the UAE was estimated to be approximately \$7000. India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and the Philippines all have average yearly earnings of roughly \$3,650, \$2,745, \$1,777, and \$4,119, respectively. These average statistics certainly exaggerate the expected income of migrating employees since unskilled workers are presumably closer to the bottom of the home income distribution. Even with these data, however, it is clear that the salaries available to migrants are far greater than the national average [4]–[6]. A large portion of intraregional migrants in Asia and the Pacific go between developing nations rather than from developing to industrialised nations. Admissions requirements are often less stringent than in industrialised nations where entry to the work market is tightly regulated. However, circumstances for migrants may be worse in developing nations than in developed nations, with a larger danger of exploitation and abuse.

It is more difficult to monitor and enforce employment standards in larger informal industries. Women are often more at danger of abuse while doing domestic tasks, in particular. These issues may get worse in countries like the Gulf States where migrant workers' labour rights, such as the capacity to join a union, are curtailed. Despite the GCC's improving practises, research reveal persistent issues. Additionally, immigrants often get less money than citizens with same abilities and qualifications, sometimes as a result of their prior work history and credentials not being acknowledged. Discrimination or linguistic hurdles may potentially lower earning potential.

Even while salary improvements for migrants might be great, the expense of moving and relocating is often high as well, thus the overall advantages are generally less, at least in the beginning. Obtaining official credentials like passports and visas, travelling, and paying brokers or agents who often correspond with employers in the countries of destination all come at a cost. Bribes paid to authorities in areas where corruption is common increase the cost of migrating. For example, estimates of the cost of intermediaries involved in obtaining a transfer from Viet Nam to Japan may be over 6 years of income, and for Bangladesh to Saudi Arabia over 5 years of revenue (UNDP, 2009). In sum, these relocation fees can equal several years or months of income in the sending nation. Non-financial costs of migration include, but are not limited to, the psychological expenses of being cut off from one's family and community of origin. Internal migrants, such as those who relocate from rural to urban settings, may also experience comparable adjustments. However, these expenses might be reduced by improved diaspora communities and telecommunications.

In the migratory landscape, intermediaries are often a crucial component. By resolving "market failures" such the absence of knowledge on work prospects among prospective migrants, they may help to facilitate labour migration. They may also assist with administrative tasks like securing visas. These organisations are numerous; the Philippines has more than 1,500, while India has more than 2,000 (UNDP, 2009). There are instances of abuse, such as when migrants pay hefty fees for 'assured' job placements that don't exist. To properly control immigration services, nevertheless, there are initiatives going. Illegal or unauthorised migration may also be encouraged by certain middlemen's excessive prices. According to a UNDP report, there exist agreements between Thailand, Cambodia, and the Lao People's Democratic Republic that state: "Recruitment costs are equal to 4-5 months' income, processing time averages around four months, and 15% of salaries are kept until the migrant's return home. Contrarily, it is said that smugglers in these corridors want the equivalent of one month's wages. It is hardly surprising that just 26% of migrant workers in Thailand were registered in 2006 given these cost disparities.

Incomes are not entirely based on labour market wages. Labour migrants may also be eligible for social transfer payments, such as pensions or unemployment benefits, in nations with welfare and social security systems. The requirements and eligibility differ greatly across nations. Fear that they would put a net burden on taxpayers is one rationale for opposition to greater labour migration in receiving nations, particularly of low-skilled workers from developing countries. The complexity of calculating the total fiscal effects of migration is largely determined by the age, skill, and dependency distribution of the migration flows. Some proponents of increased labour mobility as a development strategy have so called for more precisely defined temporary labour mobility agreements with limited access to welfare systems in order to get through the political barrier this creates. Even though this would amount to treating migrant workers "second-class" in the labour markets of the host nation, total benefits from higher mobility for migrants might still be significant. Naturally, money is not the only indicator of wellbeing. Although the majority of this research focuses on how

migration affects economic growth, we should keep in mind that labour mobility may also have an influence on immigrants' health and the educational possibilities accessible to them and their children. According to UNDP estimates, those who migrated to OECD nations had HDI scores that were around 24% higher than those who stayed in their place of origin.

Development impacts of remittance flows

Remittances are one of the main ways that migration may influence the economic growth of the nation of origin, in addition to the direct advantages that come with increased salaries for migrants. Typically, financial remittances exceed the initial "investment" cost of migrating. These transfers may then be used to fund the nation of origin's investment and consumption demands. Millions of people may improve their standard of living and combat poverty thanks to remittances. The volume and effect of bilateral remittance flows may also be more accurately calculated thanks to World Bank data that is becoming more reliable. Even yet, the direct poverty-reducing effects of remittances rely on the socioeconomic status of the recipients as well as the legal and institutional frameworks that control how remittance money is used.

Although remittances to developing nations first seem to be beneficial for development, the effect on poverty rates and the chances for inclusive growth is more nuanced. Remittances enhance consumption and raise family earnings most directly. As a result, poverty rates may decline. Families can direct them towards their most urgent needs since they go straight to family members. A lack of middlemen also lessens losses brought on by the corruption that is all too often linked to public expenditure and ODA. There is a tonne of data showing how remittances may help reduce poverty. Remittances have been shown to account for 6% of the decline in the number of people living in poverty in Bangladesh and may account for up to 50% of the decline in the number of people living in poverty in Nepal. The greatest noteworthy reductions in poverty have been seen in South Asia, where a sizable portion of remittances come from the region's expatriate workforce (Lucas, 2008). For instance, a 2003 study in Kerala, India, found that remittances decreased the population's proportion of the poor by 3.1%.

Remittances may initially reduce inequality, but when only a small proportion of families benefit from them, this effect can deteriorate. As was previously said, the poorest families are often effectively prevented from migrating since it is costly (Taking Kerala, India as an example, where there are the most abroad migrants, Kelegama adds that just 26% of families there directly benefit from remittances, which has led to escalating societal tensions and inequality. Additionally, rules in many nations only allow access to higher-skilled workers, excluding many of the poorest individuals who might benefit most from labour mobility. In reality, migrants and their families may come from middle- or upper-class backgrounds in the host country. As a result, remittances could not reach the poorest individuals or areas directly. China has one study. However, over time, the initial effect on equality measures is often lessened. Through the creation of jobs and other multiplier effects brought on by increased local consumption and investment by remittance-receiving families, even households who do not receive remittances stand to gain economically. It discovered that remittances had a levelling impact on income inequality in their research of Sri Lanka. For instance, rising demand for health and education services has spurred private investments in areas with large numbers of migrant-sending families. In rare cases, families may still continue to receive remittances even if they haven't sent a family member to work abroad. According to a 2005 World Bank-funded study of non-migrant families in Tonga and Fiji, 80% of Tonga households and 20% of Fijian households respectively received remittances.

Remittances may be a country's only truly inclusive source of foreign revenue, compared to other sources. For instance, trade liberalization has been demonstrated to typically favour city people more than rural populations, widening the income and consumption gap. Remittances are also more likely to be regionally inclusive than FDI. Remittances may make up for the costs of liberalisation borne by the rural poor when rural communities can send family members to work overseas.

Women's remittances to and from abroad may help advance gender equality. Women may be able to avoid their husbands' influence in choices about how to allocate financial resources by working overseas and sending their earnings home to anyone they want. Rather of sending money to the migrant's spouse, women are more likely to send money to the person caring for their children, who is frequently another woman (IOM, 2004). In spite of the fact that 68% of the sample's migrant workers were married, only 28% of them sent money to their spouses, according to a household survey conducted in Bangladesh.

The significant obstacles to female labour mobility provide a significant obstacle to raising the value of remittances sent by women. For instance, until 2007 Nepali women were prohibited from working in the informal sector in the Middle East and they still need a male guardian or husband's written consent to immigrate. Female emigration has always been forbidden in Bangladesh; up until 2003, women were specifically prohibited from emigrating for domestic labour. After the restriction was lifted, the proportion of women among deployed employees rose from less than 1% to 5% within a year. The possibility that women may move illegally rises when they are prohibited from doing so, making them more vulnerable since they have less access to insurance, salary guarantees, and leave [7]–[10].

Remittances also play a crucial role in diversifying family income sources. When families experience shocks, remittances help protect family finances. Remittances, for instance, may support families when unforeseen circumstances like unanticipated medical costs, unemployment, or more significant downturns brought on by political unrest or natural catastrophes. Remittances may also build a reserve of funds to support further migration years after the first member of the family has migrated. Last but not least, some research has shown that remittance receivers are more entrepreneurial and have a larger marginal willingness to invest than non-migrant families.

CONCLUSION

With major ramifications for both sending and receiving nations' economies, societies, and demographics, labor migration has become an important development process component. The link between labour migration and development has been addressed in this study, with a focus on the possibilities and difficulties it brings as well as the significance of policies and interventions in maximizing its advantages. Women's remittances to and from abroad may help advance gender equality. Women may be able to avoid their husbands' influence in choices about how to allocate financial resources by working overseas and sending their earnings home to anyone they want. Rather of sending money to the migrant's spouse, women are more likely to send money to the person caring for their children, who is frequently another woman. Economic growth in both the sending and receiving nations may be aided by labour mobility. In industries where there are skill shortages, migrant workers often fill labour market gaps and boost productivity and creativity. Remittances from migrant workers are a significant source of income for families in sending nations, encouraging spending, investing, and the eradication of poverty. Additionally, the information, expertise, and technological transfer that migrant workers make may benefit the general advancement of both sending and receiving nations.

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CHAPTER 2

ANALYSIS OF RECIPIENT COUNTRY LABOR MARKETS

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ABSTRACT:

This study focuses on studying the consequences for employment, salaries, and skills of labour migration on labour markets in receiving countries. Labour migration significantly affects recipient nations, affecting the dynamics of their labour markets and a variety of economic factors. The purpose of this research is to analyse the consequences of labour migration on the labour markets of recipient countries, including the job possibilities accessible to local employees, salary levels and wage differentials, and the skill distribution of the workforce. It examines both the immediate and long-term implications of labour migration, taking into account elements including skill complementarity, labour market rivalry, and the impact of migration policy. This study evaluates the effects of labour migration on labour markets in recipient countries, including its effects on unemployment rates, income inequality, and economic development. It does so via a thorough review of empirical data, case studies, and statistical models. It also looks at how laws and other interventions may be used to manage labour migration and its harmful impacts on local workers. The results contribute to a better understanding of the intricate interactions between labour migration and labour markets in recipient countries, offering important insights for stakeholders, policymakers, and researchers in developing evidence-based regulations that promote inclusive labour markets and guarantee the welfare of both native workers and migrant workers.

KEYWORDS:

Immigration, Recipient Country, Labor Markets, Employment, Wages, Productivity, Skill Levels.

INTRODUCTION

Political discussion over labour migration in receiving nations often centres on worries that migration will hurt local workers, either via downward pressure on wages or through migration's displacement of local employees in the job market. Therefore, it is not unexpected that there is a substantial corpus of study on the effects on recipient nations' labour markets. But actual data reveals that these worries are mostly unfounded. The majority of research find evidence that the effects of migration on wages and employment in destination labour markets are minimal or nonexistent. Several factors might account for these results. Standard trade theories propose that one possibility is that adjustments take place at the output margin rather than the wage margin: the output composition may vary in response to an endowment shock (such as an increase in the labour supply), while factor prices remain constant. The underlying general equilibrium framework in trade theoretical frameworks assumes that factor movements will have an impact on the factor market until there is a change in the international price or the production structure.

An key conclusion from the studies on trade and migration is that migration will generate changes other than via wage adjustment, with immigration often having minor wage impacts.

In particular, immigration may result in an increase in labor-intensive outputs while other sectors' outputs in the receiving nation decline. The Rybczynski theorem describes the adjustment mechanism. The key presumptions are that all nations use the same technology and that there are more products than production variables. According to this typical configuration, changes in the labour supply won't have an impact on relative factor prices until there is a change in the global value of commodities. This finding is known as the factor price intensity theorem by Leamer. Empirical data supporting these impacts on production margins are available. For instance, provide evidence of the labor-intensive sectors' explosive expansion in California after the entrance of Mexican migrants in the form of garments, textiles, food goods, and other businesses[1]–[3].

Recent studies have also shown that immigration may cause endogenous technical changes. Hanson and Slaughter (2002) provide evidence that, in addition to the shift in output mix, skilled migration to the United States has been absorbed by skill-biased technology development. In a similar vein, discover that the rapid, relatively competent immigration from Russia into Israel was more than adequately absorbed by the worldwide advancements in technology. These results have a significant implication that the effects of increasing immigration are absorbed by technical advancements. As a result, there are often little impacts on salaries in the host nation.

Obviously, immigration has effects on the receiving nation that go beyond those that are strictly economic. Governments in the host nation must also pay attention to more general challenges of social cohesion. They can encounter a contradiction here: when immigrants and natives are the least alike, a nation may gain economically from immigration the most. This is most likely the case, however, where the social costs of migration are the greatest: when traditions, culture, values, and language diverge the most, integration may be the most challenging, and inward migration may have unfavourable externalities or negative outcomes. On the other side, variety may promote a society that is more active and enterprising. The host nations must balance potential social effects on cohesiveness and identity with the significant developmental advantages that increasing migration might bring. In general, nevertheless, it would be a mistake to limit further labour market liberalisation in the hope of protecting local employees' wages from damage.

Governing labour mobility in the Asia-Pacific

The 2013 HighLevel Dialogue at the United Nations General Assembly served as a reminder that migration is a topic that policymakers are putting more and more on their global agenda. The research implies that further liberalising worker movements might result in extremely big welfare benefits, and that labour mobility could be a significant development engine. In fact, the benefits from increasing migration may be greater than those from more liberalising the trade in products or services. However, despite these significant potential advantages and the obvious connections between trade and migration, international accords have not continuously pursued labour market liberalisation and related challenges.

To protect national sovereignty on migration problems while participating in a "whole spectrum of supranational initiatives, ranging from informal dialogues to international legal instruments," each country must strike the correct balance. Similar to other cross-border concerns, unilateral solutions have their limitations and different types of collaboration are necessary. They might be new forms of informal and non-binding regional and multilateral cooperation, bilateral and regional agreements between nations (for instance, on labour mobility and re-admission), or conferences for the discussion of a broad range of migration-related topics.

This section explains why international governance has not developed robust forms of international cooperation in the field of migration as it has in other areas, such as commerce. Before making some recommendations for improving governance to further increase the development impact of migration, it reviews the current state of international cooperation on this issue with a focus on the Asia-Pacific region and the use of trade agreements as a means of governing migration.

DISCUSSION

Multilateral governance of migration: the 'missing regime'

The global commerce Organisation is the centre of the global trading system, a well-established set of agreements that governs international commerce. Global economic integration has advanced quickly as a consequence of these accords' combined efforts to promote the freer movement of commodities and services in recent decades. In contrast, there are still many more restrictions on how individuals may move around, and there are also less binding international or multilateral procedures that control migration.

It is claimed that there is a "missing regime" for the control of international migration since frameworks for regulating rising migrant flows are still disjointed. In general, nations decide for themselves what degrees of labour market access they are willing to provide and then administer their laws in accordance with those decisions, for instance by establishing visa policies, granting visas, police borders, and enforcing returns. Consequently, sending nations often have a limited role in assessing the fitness of employees transferring abroad, ensuring their wellbeing while they are away, and facilitating their prompt return.

Migration is governed by a number of international organisations, albeit their roles are often advisory in nature. According to the Global Commission for International Migration (GCIM), there are numerous UN agencies and other organisations that are each responsible for managing a different aspect of international migration, but no single organisation is able to facilitate a cogent global strategy. The World Bank, which addresses remittances and has worked to lower their cost, the WTO, which facilitated negotiations for the GATS Mode 4 protocol governing the supply of services across borders, and the United Nations High Commissioner on Refugees (UNHCR), which intervenes with national governments to a greater or lesser extent, are notable organisations with a role in migration. The annual International Dialogue on Migration is one of the global forum events that the IOM has hosted since 2001.

There are many different international legal agreements relating to migration, but up until now they have mostly been focused on defending worker rights rather than on facilitating migratory flows or boosting their developmental effect. For example, International Labour Organisation (ILO) Convention No. 97 addresses migration for employment, whereas Convention No. 143 addresses abusive migrations and the promotion of migrant workers' rights to equality of opportunity and treatment. Both the United Nations Protocol against the Smuggling of Migrants by Land, Sea, and Air and the United Nations Protocol to Prevent, Suppress, and Punish Persons Trafficking, Particularly of Women and Children, were adopted in 2000.

A variety of international forums have recently been established to create migration standards as well as to assess, analyse, and share best practises. However, as of right now, none of these multilateral organisations or procedures have generated a single agreement that binds taking part states. The inaugural High-Level Dialogue on International Migration and Development was convened by the UN General Assembly in 2006, and a follow-up was held in 2013. The

Global Forum for Migration and Development (GFMD) was established as a result of the event in 2006. In addition, IOM founded the Geneva Migration Group in April 2003, which later changed its name to the Global Migration Group, along with the International Labour Organisation (ILO), the Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights (OHCHR), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), and the United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime (UNODC).

Thus, only two international treaties have addressed migration for work to date: the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) of the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the International Convention on the Rights of All Migrant Workers. There are some preferential trade agreements that explicitly address the movement of people, typically under separate chapters of the agreement text (see below), as well as separate bilateral labour agreements, as a result of the lack of multilateral agreements for dealing with the regulation of migration, including labour market access, harmonisation, and issues relating to visa and work permit issues.

The fact that the political economy dynamics governing migration are substantially different from those governing commerce explains why there aren't any more binding global accords on migration. Despite some similarities, Gordon (2010) notes that "the flow of human beings has political, cultural, social, and economic effects that differ from the flow of money and goods, and these effects play out politically in developed nations in distinct ways." The fact that the total economic benefits of migration are distributed differently than those of trade is most significant. As has already said, migrants and their home countries may benefit most from migration. The advantages for receiving nations, particularly industrialised ones, are seen to be less favourable than those for trade. Additionally, wealthy nations may unilaterally change their visa policy and accept more migrants to achieve the benefits of doing so, such as they are, without needing to engage in negotiations. This primarily explains why there haven't been many incentives for major destination nations to take part in international labour mobility accords. Instead, recipient nations have decided to seek bilateral agreements, whether they be part of preferential trade deals, independent bilateral labour agreements, or memorandums of understanding (these are described in more depth below). The advantage of using trade vehicles like GATS mode 4 or FTAs to liberalise temporary movement of natural persons is that they offer a broader bargaining space in which trade-offs can be made; for example, labour market access can be traded off against access for goods or services, or progress on other issues like IPRs or procurement rules. However, further liberalisation of migration in a multilateral setting remains politically difficult[4]–[6].

Growing but limited regional governance of labour migration

There have been some initiatives to cooperate on migration in line with the rise in significance of regional agreements in the fields of trade and investment. In fact, nations with comparable levels of development are significantly more likely to reach accords on free labour migration. Although the EU has made the most progress in enabling the free movement of its population, other regional accords are also developing systems to promote greater labour mobility. However, a lot of these agreements are focused on high-skilled labour and do nothing to promote the migration of low-skilled employees. They also often include sector-specific, time-limited temporary worker arrangements. These regulations follow a common pattern of expanding access to skilled labour while maintaining or tightening restrictions on the mobility of unskilled workers. This strategy is shown by the ASEAN Economic Community, where high-skilled work is becoming more unrestricted but lower skilled employment is still subject to severe regulations. This has the effect of

escalating illegal migration flows, such as those entering Thailand from Myanmar and the Lao People's Democratic Republic.

Additionally, a number of regional consultative mechanisms on migration have emerged in recent years. These policy discussions include a broad variety of topics, including human smuggling and trafficking, development and migration, commerce and migration, integration of migrants, protection of migrants' rights, and health and migration. These are "regular, informal, non-binding, and government-led regional meetings of States, purposefully created to discuss migration issues that result from the strong desire of States to maintain discretion and flexibility in the area of migration management." States "try to find partial consensus on regional migration policies and launch cooperative projects" in these forums.

Two regional developments in the Asia-Pacific area are especially noteworthy. First off, the Colombo Process is a Regional Consultative Process (RCP) on managing contract workforce and offshore employment for Asian origin nations. Ministerial Consultations for Asian Labour Sending Countries were conducted in 2003 in Colombo, Sri Lanka, in response to requests from a number of Asian labor-sending nations. The original ten participating countries—Bangladesh, China, India, Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Vietnam made suggestions for managing foreign employment projects effectively and committed to frequent follow-up meetings. Since then, the Colombo Process's member nations have convened often in Manila, Bali, and Dhaka (in 2004, 2005, and 2011, respectively) to assess and track the application of earlier proposals and to pinpoint areas in need of further action.

Second, the first year of the Abu Dhabi Dialogue was 2008. This brought together the Colombo Process nations for the first time with the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) members, Yemen, and two more Asian destinations, Malaysia and Singapore. The Abu Dhabi Dialogue served as a venue for the debate of fresh concepts and practical initiatives geared towards the creation of an all-encompassing and workable framework for the management of temporary contractual labour mobility in Asia. Together, these regional initiatives have significantly improved the circumstances for migrant workers, especially by putting a stop to some of the greatest abuses related to migrant labour in the Gulf, such as employers keeping passports and not paying salaries. They may act as a limited but valuable model for more extensive regional agreements inasmuch as they bring together the governments of the sending and receiving countries and aim to creatively incorporate the business sector, notably recruiting agencies [7]–[10].

Increasing uses of bilateral governance arrangements

Despite the partial agreement reached in Bali in December 2013, progress in international trade discussions has been sluggish in recent years and the Doha round has proven tough to finish. As a result of this lack of progress, several nations have pursued their goals for trade and market access outside of the WTO via the negotiation and signing of preferential trade agreements involving two or more nations. Bilateral trade agreements (and economic partnership accords) do offer an additional channel for cross-border cooperation on migration, even though many economists have argued that trade liberalisation through multilateral channels is more welfare enhancing than preferential deals that can cause trade displacement. Indeed, given the obstacles to greater liberalisation and adequate regulation posed by the multilateral system's existing structure, which was taken into account above, labour mobility via bilateral agreements both those included in and those not included in trade agreements offers a path towards advancement. PTAs may be more suitable for controlling labour mobility than multilateral agreements given that GATS was never meant to serve as a

framework for full management of labour migration. The particular challenges and business sectors that are most important for facilitating migration between the parties may be covered in bilateral agreements.

CONCLUSION

A complicated and multidimensional subject, the effect of immigration on labour markets in receiving countries. The impacts of immigration on native workers' employment, earnings, productivity, skill levels, and labour market outcomes have been investigated in this study, along with the variables that influence these effects. The impact of immigration on the labour markets of receiving countries varies based on a number of variables. The characteristics of immigrant employees, such as their education levels, skill levels, and language abilities, are key factors in determining the effect. The partial agreement reached in Bali in December 2013, progress in international trade discussions has been sluggish in recent years and the Doha round has proven tough to finish. As a result of this lack of progress, several nations have pursued their goals for trade and market access outside of the WTO via the negotiation and signing of preferential trade agreements involving two or more nations. Bilateral trade agreements (and economic partnership accords) do offer an additional channel for cross-border cooperation on migration, even though many economists have argued that trade liberalisation through multilateral channels is more welfare enhancing than preferential deals that can cause trade displacement. Indeed, given the obstacles to greater liberalisation and adequate regulation High-skilled immigrants may improve productivity, foster innovation, and close skill gaps in the labour markets of receiving countries. On the other hand, low-skilled immigrants could face competition from native employees in certain industries, which might have an impact on job chances and pay.

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CHAPTER 3

MIGRATION IN BILATERAL PREFERENTIAL TRADE AGREEMENTS

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ABSTRACT:

The flow of labor between nations, migration clauses in bilateral preferential trade agreements have drawn attention. Asia-Pacific nations have taken a leading role in the worldwide movement to employ PTAs more often. Each country in the Asia-Pacific area has adopted an average of over seven PTAs, while several developing nations have more than 20 PTAs ratified or in different stages of implementation. These PTAs often have partners from beyond the Asia-Pacific area. Less than 17% of PTAs that are now in place or being negotiated allow for the temporary mobility of natural people who offer services. Harmonisation of the labour market: Harmonisation may facilitate labour mobility if labour markets are governed by divergent norms, such as those relating to necessary credentials. By lowering impediments to employment, harmonisation within the framework of PTAs may encourage migration into participating nations. In cases when PTAs abide by GATS requirements and increase access for temporary service providers, this may enable new immigrants to enter the labour force. The inclusion and effects of migration clauses in bilateral preferential trade agreements are examined in this research, along with the trends, drivers, and ramifications of such clauses. The following major terms are examined: immigration, bilateral preferential trade agreements, provisions, trends, reasons, and effects.

KEYWORDS:

Migration, Bilateral, Preferential Trade Agreements, Labor Mobility, Economic Cooperation, Labor Market Demands.

INTRODUCTION

Asia-Pacific nations have taken a leading role in the worldwide movement to employ PTAs more often. Each country in the Asia-Pacific area has adopted an average of over seven PTAs, while several developing nations have more than 20 PTAs ratified or in different stages of implementation. These PTAs often have partners from beyond the Asia-Pacific area. Less than 17% of PTAs that are now in place or being negotiated allow for the temporary mobility of natural people who offer services. A developing nation from the Asia-Pacific is a partner in a very limited number of these agreements [1], [2]. There are several other migration-related metrics that may be included into PTAs. Not every PTA covers all three topics. For instance, the Australia-Singapore agreement from 2003 has measures on GATS, visas, and asylum, but not on harmonising the labour market.

The quantity of visas to be awarded to citizens of a certain country might be specified in PTAs (perhaps limited to those employed in a specific industry). Targeted citizens may also benefit from streamlined or accelerated visa application procedures; this might have an impact on the non-financial cost of migration and, in turn, migration patterns among PTA member nations. Harmonisation of the labour market: Harmonisation may facilitate labour mobility if labour markets are governed by divergent norms, such as those relating to

necessary credentials. By lowering impediments to employment, harmonisation within the framework of PTAs may encourage migration into participating nations. In cases when PTAs abide by GATS requirements and increase access for temporary service providers, this may enable new immigrants to enter the labour force. By promoting business networks and increasing desire for longer-term migration, it may also have longer-term consequences.

DISCUSSION

Furthermore, when agreements exist between high-income countries, regional PTAs clearly show a bias for liberalisation in respect to high-skilled labour. For instance, the agreements between Australia and New Zealand and Singapore and Japan both include clauses about making it easier to hire highly educated workers, notably by expediting the visa application process. Business executives, managers, intra-corporate transferees, and investors all often gain from the simplification of regulatory requirements under PTAs. Although regional PTAs are just beginning to address labour migration, their presence may have an influence on migration trends beyond what is anticipated from better direct labour market access. Paradoxically, PTAs' effects on migration are real. Flows might outweigh the effect on trade flows. According to a research by Orefice (2012), who looked at bilateral migrant flows before and after a PTA (for those signed between 1998 and 2008) went into effect, there was a significant increase in migrant flows after the treaty was signed.

In his opinion, PTAs have a far less effect in promoting bilateral commerce in products than they do in promoting migration between the two countries. One probable explanation is that international migration is still severely regulated, but trade in products has already undergone extensive liberalisation and PTAs only play a minor role. These results are consistent with the hypothesis that the content of PTAs relating to labour migration will have a significant impact on bilateral migration flows. Some PTAs include rules on visas and asylum that may lower the non-financial cost of migration by streamlining the processes for acquiring stay permits and other papers. According to Orefice, the substance of PTAs matters when it comes to influencing bilateral migration flows; when labour market provisions and concerns about visas and asylum are addressed, bilateral migration flows are increased. Contrarily, migrant flows are discouraged when only GATS-replicating requirements are present: The existence of a PTA itself has no effect on the broad margin of migration, which is the likelihood of having positive bilateral migration flows. Thus, PTAs may be a useful tool for changing migration patterns. Public sentiment in receiving nations is often more pro-trade than pro-migration from a political economic perspective. This might possibly make PTAs simpler to implement than bilateral migration agreements in nations where demographic or other factors are causing manpower shortages.

PTAs may therefore help control international labour migration, but it is important to keep in mind that different nations have different regulatory and distributional systems. Destination nations may pick and choose which countries to agree PTAs and BLAs with thanks to the division of migration governance into trade and non-trade components. According to one commentator, it "further exacerbates the growing divide within labour migration: high-skilled labour migration is being facilitated by special FTA visas, while low-skilled migration, if liberalised, serves to uphold the border security of destination countries and is subject to readmission." 2010's Panizzon. Bilateral trade agreements may be a viable interim solution even if they do not address the lack of a global mechanism for controlling international migration.

Bilateral Labor Agreements

Bilateral agreements are increasing with "an unprecedented burst since in the absence of alternative mechanisms regulating low-wage labour mobility. The majority of bilateral agreements are non-binding, and they combined only control a minor portion of global labour mobility. However, by ensuring working conditions and offering ways for temporary workers to be repatriated, they may be beneficial for both sending and receiving nations by assuring the host countries that labour migration won't result in permanent settlement. As a result, views towards the expansion of the employment market may become more accommodating. Given the lack of more substantial multilateral or regional accords, one academic once said that when evaluating the worth of bilateral agreements, "something is better than nothing."

Although there are many other types of bilateral agreements, the two that are most often used are the legally binding bilateral treaty or agreement and the nonbinding Memorandum of Understanding (MOU). However, the way BLAs are implemented and enforced—rather than their legislative structure determines how successful they are. Although the extent and detail of bilateral labour agreements vary considerably, they often call for the acceptance of a specified number of temporary workers by the destination nations. Frequently, the industries in which migrants are permitted to work, such as agriculture or fishing, are listed. While some agreements are broad in nature, others go into further depth regarding the recruiting procedures and the function of agents and intermediaries. Some agreements specify the conditions for returning migrants as well as the duration of their stay. Rarely do bilateral agreements have enforcement clauses that may be utilised if one party doesn't follow the terms of the agreement. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has been advocating BLAs and provides a sample contract that has previously used as the foundation for agreements in a number of governments, notably those in Asia like Korea, India, and Myanmar.

Alongside BLAs, sector-specific MoUs are becoming more frequent. These might be agreements between representatives of employers from a particular sector and the government of the nation of origin. For instance, up until recently, a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) existed between the Philippines' government and the UK Department of Health, which speaks for the employers of the UK National Health Service. Provisions in sector-based MoUs may specify actions that companies must take, such training, to guarantee that domestic labour demand can be fulfilled in the long run. In this way, they help short-term migration flows but aim to stop migration from becoming a long-term fix for the manpower shortages in the industry. BLAs and MoUs may enable destination nations swiftly fill labour shortages in domestic worker-deficient regions. They have been used mostly to regulate seasonal labour flows of low-skilled labourers needed in the construction, tourist, and agricultural industries. By providing better legal pathways for immigration for work, they may also stop or lessen irregular migration. According to the OSCE (2005), this "can provide a negotiation tool to secure the willingness of the country of origin to co-operate on managing irregular migration, particularly on readmission of their nationals".

Additionally, specific clauses that encourage prompt returns may be incorporated. According to certain of its BLAs, for instance, Korea provides preference in the issuance of work permits to those who have previous work experience in Korea and who comply with the duty to return at the conclusion of the authorised term. Thailand has also experimented with policies that deduct a percentage of migrants' wages and retain it until they return to their home country. BLAs and MoUs may help origin nations provide their citizens more access to foreign labour markets while also attempting to ensure acceptable pay, worker protection, and job stability for their citizens abroad. Therefore, BLAs may serve as a platform to supply

some of the above-discussed remittance flows, technology transfers, and human capital development advantages of migration. In fact, certain nations of origin have been effective in requiring provisions controlling their citizens' training and growth while working abroad, which has helped to promote the ultimate repatriation of skills and knowledge.

BLAs can have numerous objectives, such as economic, political, and developmental components, "effectiveness" itself may be difficult to quantify. Many BLAs are not implemented or are not enforced. Effective BLA development and negotiation might take a lot of time. As a result, the Philippines has lately shifted away from seeking generic agreements in favour of more focused ones that are simpler to negotiate and implement in host countries. Some significant destination nations are still hesitant to sign agreement. The activity of nongovernmental entities, such as employment agencies, employers' groups, civil society organisations, and unions, is being included into or regulated by bilateral agreements. Recent pressure from migrant rights activists and origin nations reacting to domestic political uproar about the exploitation of migrants abroad has led to certain bilateral agreements including model contracts or declarations addressing minimal workplace standards. A few agreements now include initiatives to educate migrants about their rights, and a tiny fraction develop unique claims and enforcement techniques for those rights.

It is useful to compare bilateral labour agreements with those for commerce and investment. Trade and investment agreements are much stronger than multilateral accords in a number of ways, including: they are more comprehensive, demand more transparency, are more likely to replace domestic law, are more likely to provide greater safeguards, and are more binding and enforceable. Most international trade movements are often governed by trade agreements between the involved nations. Labour agreements, in contrast, only detail the conditions of movements for certain classes of migrants (such as those in a specific industry); often, a significant fraction of migrants between the two nations will stay outside the agreement. The relative advantages of regional and bilateral agreements are another comparison. Bilateral accords in trade and investment agreements often demand greater transparency than regional or multilateral agreements do. Contrarily, bilateral labour agreements are often weaker than regional agreements (such as those with the EU or ASEAN) and provide more restrictive immigration policies than those outlined in regional agreements.

While BLAs are a "second best" solution to the issue of labour market liberalisation and regulation, they can be a crucial tool for improving access to the labour market, defending the rights of migrant workers, and directing labour to necessary industries while minimising the risks connected to irregular migration in the absence of meaningful global or regional agreements. BLAs are most successful when they: (i) focus on industries where there is a known labour shortage; (ii) contain definite quotas or ceilings; and (iii) include employers, intermediaries, and recruiters in the design and implementation procedures.

Towards a more 'development-friendly' migration policy

Increased migration has the potential to be a strong development tool. For the poorest, even a little increase in labour mobility might result in significant advantages. But compared to their equivalents in the areas of commerce and investment, present international frameworks for controlling migration and encouraging openness are inadequate. Future economic integration agreements are anticipated to include conditions requiring developing nations to provide developed nations access to their labour markets in exchange for opening their own markets to trade in products and professional services.

Reforms that will increase access to the employment market, particularly in developed nations, while assuring people that migration would be properly handled are conceivable.

Practical solutions are necessary. Although some academics have called for the establishment of a World Migration Organisation to be similar to the WTO, such a top-down strategy is unlikely to result in a significant liberalisation of migration flows because nations will not willingly acquiesce to be bound by international agreements in a matter that is so crucial to their respective national conceptions of sovereignty[3], [4].

In the same way, no more liberalisation via the GATS is currently anticipated. The GATS is not ideally equipped to be the vehicle for the comprehensive migration management system that must go along with any liberalisation as long as it maintains its existing form. Instead, improving current bilateral and regional agreements and signing new agreements between many partners may lead to more development. Negotiations tying temporary labour mobility to market access for products and services are more likely to be successful in these settings. In particular where agreements currently include certain temporary work rules, there may be rising requests to cover permanent labour movements. Particularly in delicate industries like the health sector, nations will want to embrace flexible strategies that let them change their minds or implement a policy in a different way if results are unsatisfactory. Here are some recommendations for politicians' top priorities.

Facilitate more temporary labor mobility

High-skilled immigrants have been welcomed by many nations, and some have even engaged in competition to do so. However, when more low-skilled employees are allowed to migrate and look for employment overseas, migration may have the most influence on growth. However, low-skilled migration will often need to be carried out under plans enabling clearly transitory movements if destination nations are to accept this. Temporary clauses may be extended beyond sector-specific time-bound agreements, which are currently included in several bilateral agreements, to cover the whole economy. While temporary "guest-worker" programmes in Western Europe in the 1960s drew harsh criticism for creating sizable permanent populations (even though they lacked full citizenship rights at the time), there has been a recent uptick in short-term migration, along with improved information systems to track cross-border movements and policies for regulation, including incentives for return[4]–[7].

The source nation will profit more from temporary or "circular" migration if workers return with new capital, skills, and knowledge. A well-enforced temporary migration policy in the receiving nation may ease social tensions and allay worries about possible negative budgetary effects of migration, such as welfare payments. Additionally, Jansen found that temporary migrants have a greater impact on trade flows than permanent migrants. As was already said, export facilitation depends on an understanding of the domestic markets and goods. Liberalising temporary admissions may be politically less difficult in recipient nations where people are wary of immigration while yet enabling such nations to fill certain labour market need.

However, temporary relocation has drawbacks as well. Among these include increased training expenses for firms and the difficulty to retain effective staff after their authorised time has passed. The preference of migrants themselves may be to go to places where there is at least a remote chance that they may eventually get permanent residency. Short-term stays also lessen the incentives for migrants to assimilate into host cultures, for instance by learning the language. Additionally, temporary migration sometimes transitions into permanent movement when workers find spouses or start settling in the host nation after working or studying there. However, this may be beneficial to the host nation, and in certain jurisdictions, it is progressively emerging as the preferred course of action. Instead of

immediately awarding residence to applicants from overseas, temporary migration might be used as a "first sieve" for choosing permanent residents[8], [9].The movement of people temporarily should be governed by well-organized schemes that entail cooperation between sending and receiving nations. Governments from exporting nations must take part in order to ensure receiving countries that migration would be effectively handled. The length of workers' stays must be real if temporary labour migration is to be promoted. One possibility would be to develop savings programmes that keep a percentage of the worker's remitted salary in an escrow account that is released upon their return in order to encourage sending nations to join, for instance by collaborating with labour agencies or brokers. This may also provide a means of directing these remitted monies towards savings and investment instruments. However, conditions shouldn't be so difficult that migrants are enticed to choose an irregular status[10].

CONCLUSION

International trade discussions now heavily rely on the migration clauses in bilateral preferential trade agreements. These rules reflect the expanding understanding of the relationship between economic cooperation and labour mobility. Migration laws may support inclusive and sustainable economic development by resolving labour market needs, facilitating economic integration, and encouraging intercultural contacts. To make sure that the mobility of labour benefits all parties concerned, Governments from exporting nations must take part in order to ensure receiving countries that migration would be effectively handled.

The length of workers' stays must be real if temporary labour migration is to be promoted. One possibility would be to develop savings programmes that keep a percentage of the worker's remitted salary in an escrow account that is released upon their return in order to encourage sending nations to join, for instance by collaborating with labour agencies or brokers. This may also provide a means of directing these remitted monies towards savings and investment instruments. significant consideration must be given to policy consistency, labour rights, and social safeguards.

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CHAPTER 4

REGIONAL AND BILATERAL AGREEMENTS ON LABOUR MOBILITY

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ABSTRACT:

This study aims to promote inclusive and sustainable migration practises by enhancing regional and bilateral agreements on labour mobility. The global economy now includes labour mobility, and regional and bilateral agreements are crucial in determining how this phenomenon is governed. In order to promote fair and moral migration practises, this research will analyse the current regional and bilateral agreements on labour mobility, highlighting their advantages and disadvantages. It looks at ways to improve these contracts in order to meet new problems such as labour market disruptions, worker exploitation, and social inclusion. This study evaluates the possibilities for cooperation and collaboration across nations to maximise the advantages of labour mobility while preserving the rights and well-being of migrant workers via a thorough review of policy texts, case studies, and empirical research. It also looks at how to develop regional and bilateral labour mobility agreements by including stakeholders like governments, international organisations, employers, and civil society. The results emphasise the value of transparent systems, evidence-based policies, and multi-stakeholder participation in creating successful labour mobility agreements. Policymakers, scholars, and other stakeholders may use the findings to help them develop policies that will improve regional and bilateral agreements on labour mobility, resulting in a more just and long-lasting migration system.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Mobility, Regional Agreements, Bilateral Agreements, Inclusive Migration, Sustainable Migration, Labor Exploitation.

INTRODUCTION

The greatest chances for change lay in strengthening bilateral and regional accords given the dim prospects for broader global agreements. The present tendency for bilateral agreements and regional consultation procedures demonstrates that countries in the area are becoming more aware that better coordination is required. To allow for greater overall flows of labour, especially low-skilled employment, as well as the implementation of best practises in the protection of workers' rights, the present arrangements must be changed [1]–[3]. Trade agreements that significantly liberalise the labour market to far have mostly been between industrialised nations and have targeted highly skilled workers as well as tourists and investors. Contrarily, migration between developed and developing countries has been managed through bilateral labour agreements. While this "dual track" strategy has certain benefits, developing nations will need to press for the inclusion of labour mobility in future trade deals.

Developing nations are expected to have the greatest chances of gaining genuine liberalisation when labour market access can be traded off against market access for commodities and services. Similar to this, there have only been a few bilateral agreements

between emerging nations. More focus should be placed on guaranteeing access to labour markets in significant migration destinations and making sure that workers' rights are clear and well-protected as South-South movement increases in significance should be made in accordance with global best practises. Guidelines for best practises in the management of temporary migration have been prepared by the United Nations Population Division and may be developed in improved agreements (Abella, 2006).

1. Transparent admissions criteria for selection and length of approval process.
2. Recognition of qualifications to enhance utilisation of migrants' skills.
3. Cooperation between origin and destination countries, especially in supervising recruitment and employment.
4. Protection of the fundamental rights.

Longer term, the lessons learned from managing the externalities of migration in bilateral and regional contexts may serve as a foundation for more successfully integrating trade and migration at the global level. Bilateral or regional methods, for instance, may promote confidence and serve as testing grounds for administrative solutions that can be expanded upon and used more broadly. It is doubtful that anything close to MFN treatment could be accomplished in the area of migration in the near future since governments often want to keep control over the volume and source of inward migration. Additionally, there is a lot of room to take successful bilateral initiatives regionally.

Maximize the development impacts of labor mobility for the sending country

Although moving for a job often helps both the sending and receiving nations as well as the employees, the advantages for sending countries may be increased by pursuing certain policies. For instance, improving the efficiency of the remittance market will lower the expenses and hence improve the impact of greater wages received by labour migrants. To do this, it is possible to increase competition among remittance companies and support the introduction of new technologies, such as mobile payments. More may be done generally to provide savings and investing tools for remitted monies [4]–[6].

Another strategy would be to give the governments of the sending countries a modest portion of the taxes collected from their residents' abroad profits. The development of social security funds might be done with this money. Some labor contracts include clauses that guarantee migrant employees' ability to transfer skills while working overseas. These rules should be more generally implemented so that employers of migrant workers are required, if possible, to provide training or education leading to certifications. This would guarantee that "circular" migration would result in real gains in terms of the development of human capital when workers returned home. Bilateral or regional agreements may have these obligations [7]–[10].

Overall, the Asia-Pacific area has a great deal of potential to benefit from increased labor mobility. These succinct suggestions provide a quick rundown of ways to improve the present system for controlling labor migration. By serving as a hub for regional cooperation, ESCAP, the United Nations Regional Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific, may be of assistance. For countries negotiating preferential trade agreements or economic partnerships, ESCAP may provide specialized guidance and capacity building to ensure that they gain, to the greatest extent feasible, the full developmental advantages of labor mobility.

Future Drivers of Regional Migration

Regional migration has always been a major occurrence, and it is anticipated that it will continue to influence future demographic trends worldwide. The main factors influencing

regional migration in the next years are to be identified in this article. We may learn more about the patterns and trends of regional migration in the future by looking at economic, environmental, political, and social aspects. In order to manage regional migration in a manner that benefits both sending and receiving areas, policymakers and stakeholders may use the analysis offered in this article to build useful strategies and policies.

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, a lot of refugees came to Australia, Canada, Europe, and the United States. This was followed by family migration from Asian nations including Viet Nam, Cambodia, China, and Lao People's Democratic Republic. 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 [1]–[3].

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demographic change. A rising youthful population has helped to underpin the Asia-Pacific region's impressive economic development in recent decades. A "demographic dividend" has resulted from this, wherein a greater proportion of the population is economically productive and a smaller proportion is dependent (children and the elderly). These advantageous ratios enable higher family savings, which may subsequently be used to fund profitable investments. The Republic of Korea and China are two nations in the area that have benefited from this generational window of opportunity. Out of the 4.3 billion individuals who called the Asia-Pacific area home in 2012, more than 750 million were young people between the ages of 15 and 24. About 45% of this group resides in South and South West Asia. Young people's absolute numbers and their proportion of the population have been growing for 60 years, although it is thought that they reached a high in 2010.

While some nations, especially those in South and South West Asia, have not yet fully benefited from declining dependence ratios, other nations in the area will see these ratios rise quickly as a consequence of lowering birth rates and increased lifespan. In fact, the population of Asia and the Pacific is becoming older on average at a fast rate. These differences will lead to greater demand and supply side pressures for migration. Future ageing is anticipated, even in Japan, which currently has the highest proportion of senior people in the region: the percentage of people over 65 will increase from 24% in 2012 to 37% in 2050.

Low-skilled migration still dominates migration in the Asia-Pacific region. Because the local labour market is becoming more and more educated, these migrants look for and choose low-paying positions. Low-skilled migration is mostly made up of two groups: documented workers (those travelling via official legal routes to fulfil specified contract employment) and illegal labourers. In the global race for "talent," certain destination countries are also stepping up their attempts to compete for highly trained individuals; professionals in the healthcare industry, for instance, are in great demand. Although the total numbers are still rather modest, the movement of highly educated migrants and students from Asia and the Pacific has increased significantly over the last 20 years. For instance, a survey in the Philippines indicated that 60% of doctors and 30% of IT employees have left the country at some time in their careers. Some constraints limiting the mobility of executives and professionals moved within multinational firms have also been loosened as a result of the expanding cross-border activities of multinational businesses, which are being pushed by increased economic integration and global production networks.

DISCUSSION

Trends in regional remittance flows

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 examined in Section 3 in light of the trend towards increasing flows that is discussed below. Global remittance flows have increased significantly over the last 50 years, reaching \$489 billion in 2011 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 (OECD, 2012). 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.

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 stabilising influence as well [4]–[6]. 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 organisations, 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 parts look at managing labor migration worldwide, regionally, and bilaterally, covering how to handle migration difficulties in the context of trade agreements, as well as the explicit developmental consequences of migratory flows.

Trade and migration as substitute

The debate over whether trade and migration are alternatives or substitutes 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 labourers or directly through the export of products with a high labour content. In such a case, trade liberalisation 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.

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 (Bhagwati et al., 2004). However, outsourcing may have distributional effects, and not all groups will profit equally, much as with other trade benefits[7]–[10].

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.

CONCLUSION

It is clear from the research of many aspects that a number of factors will influence regional migration in the future. Economic issues will continue to be important as people and families look for better employment opportunities, greater salaries, and higher living standards in various places. Migration is anticipated to be influenced by environmental issues as well, including climate change and natural catastrophes, as people relocate in reaction to ecological difficulties. People will probably continue to be driven to look for safety and security in other places due to political considerations such as wars, instability, and human rights concerns. Regional migration trends will also be influenced by social variables, such as family reconciliation, educational attainment, and cultural bonds. 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.

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CHAPTER 5

TRADE AND MIGRATION AS COMPLEMENTS: EXPLORING SYNERGIES FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

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ABSTRACT:

In order to understand how trade and migration complement one another and how they might work together to promote economic growth, this study focuses on analysing their complimentary relationships. The processes of trade and migration are interwoven and have the potential to have a beneficial influence on economies, both nationally and internationally. This research examines how commerce and migration complement one another by taking into account the many ways in which they interact and support one another. It looks at how trade openness and globalisation promote labour mobility, which in turn boosts trade and economic expansion. This study evaluates the economic impacts of the complementarity between trade and migration, including the effects on productivity, innovation, specialisation, and human capital development, via a thorough review of empirical studies, case studies, and theoretical frameworks. It also looks at the policy implications and approaches for using the interactions between trade and migration to promote long-term economic growth.

KEYWORDS:

Trade, Migration, Complementarity, Economic Growth, Cultural Exchange, Global Integration.

INTRODUCTION

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 (labour and capital) 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[1]–[3]. 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, and migrant inflows may raise the productivity of local workers if unskilled employment in certain categories become less desirable due to better prospects for locals elsewhere in the labour market. The results emphasise the need for evidence-based policies that support open trade regimes, allow labour mobility, and assure the protection of migrant workers' rights while also highlighting the potential advantages of trade and migration as complements. Policymakers, scholars, and other stakeholders may benefit from the research's significant insights as they create ways to maximise the favourable link between trade and migration, which supports equitable and sustainable economic growth.

There is conflicting empirical data about whether trade and migration are alternatives or complements for factor arbitrage. Collins et al. (1999), for instance, utilised 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 in Horiba (2008), 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 by Hijzen and Wright (2010). 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. 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.

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.

Labour migration and development

The relationship between labour mobility and development is now the subject of much research and debate. A higher degree of interest among policymakers has also been reflected

in this increasing level of study. Building on the advancements made since the first High-Level Dialogue on Migration and Development in 2006, the United Nations General Assembly conducted a second Dialogue in October 2013. The Dialogue recognized that migration had a significant impact on the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals and that it was crucial to take human mobility into account when formulating the post-2015 development agenda.

The group decided on an eight-point action plan titled "Making Migration Work. There is now widespread agreement that increased mobility, particularly for low-skilled employees, might have a substantial impact on the decrease of poverty. This is a significant change since prior generations of scholars were generally suspicious about the advantages of immigration for developing nations. As a result of dependence, migration was seen as not only a symptom of underdevelopment, but a cause of it, as it depopulates entire regions, turns sending families from producers into rentiers, and allows governments to escape their responsibilities by relying on migrant remittances. Despite ongoing worries, notably about the 'brain drain' of highly qualified individuals from poor nations, there is generally agreement that migration may help development in a variety of ways when conditions are favourable. There is growing evidence that, when supported by the appropriate policies, migrant and diaspora communities can significantly contribute to development in both origin and destination countries, through remittances, trade, investment, the creation of businesses, and the transfer of technology, skills, and knowledge, as noted at the 2013 UN high-level dialogue.

The effects of rising migratory flows on global wellbeing have been estimated in a variety of research. The majority of times, computable general equilibrium models constitute the foundation for analyses of the global benefits of allowing migration. These assessments are often predicated on the premise that all work is equal and that pay disparities are a result of policy distortions (or labour market inefficiencies). While specific results vary (depending on how host labour markets are modelled), most predictions show that the benefits from increasing labour mobility, even slightly, would be very large and in some cases, the benefits are predicted to be many times higher than those available from further liberalizing world trade, such as through completion of the Doha Round of WTO negotiations[4]–[6].

According to Winters' (2003) research, an increase of 3% in the labour force in recipient nations roughly 16 million more people would result in global welfare benefits of \$156 billion. It is larger by almost a factor of three than annual official development assistance in the 1990s, and significantly larger than the same model's estimate of the gains from all proposed remaining trade liberalisation (\$104 billion), according to Pritchett. If anything, these figures are cautious. A more recent World Bank research found advantages from a comparable liberalization of worker mobility to be twice as big (\$356 billion). To explain this amount in detail: it exceeds the amount of the total assistance flows by more than four times.

DISCUSSION

Benefits to the migrant worker

The migrant who can work abroad for a greater income than they might earn at home, assuming they can find job at all, is the main benefit of labour mobility. The benefits that the workers themselves receive benefits that were, of course, the main reason for emigration—are frequently glossed over in discussions of the pros and cons of migration for development in the development literature, despite the fact that this may seem like a statement of the obvious.

This error, according to Pritchett (Pritchett, 2006), was caused by the development discourse's focus on nation-states. Accordingly, "development" refers to what occurs to nation states'

economies, not to the welfare of their citizens. Therefore, moving from a poor to a wealthy nation is not considered "development." This narrative, perhaps coincidentally, supports restrictions on immigration to wealthier nations. Why are these people who are moving overlooked, asks Nyarko (2011)?

When a Ghanaian or a Bangladeshi leaves their country's borders, they don't appear to factor into the mobility equation, at least not in public discussions. It shows that there are significant incentives for cross-border mobility due to the wide and continuing income differences between nations in the world and in the Asia-Pacific region. This suggests that individual workers will gain much from migration. Despite the focus on developing Asia's explosive development over the last two decades, very wide income discrepancies will endure over time. While both professional and low-skilled migrants may make many times their incomes by migrating, there will still be strong "pull" reasons and significant potential advantages of migration. Indeed, when viewed historically, recent decades have been characterized by a significant gap between the top and lowest income earners: according to one set of estimates, the ratio increased from 10 to 1 in 1870 to almost 50 to 1 by the end of the previous century. As a result, the vast majority of the anticipated welfare benefits from enhanced global labour mobility go to the migrants themselves in the form of higher salaries. Evidence of continuously strong average wage improvements for migrant workers was reported in a 2009 UNDP assessment.

Unsurprisingly, migrants relocating from nations with low Human Development Index (HDI) scores to OECD countries had the biggest absolute increases (UNDP, 2009). For example, Pacific Islanders in New Zealand saw a three-fold rise in their net real earnings (McKenzie, Gibson, and Stillman, 2006). Moving to non-OECD nations may also result in significant advantages. For instance, Thai migrants are paid at least four times as much as they would as low-skilled employees at home in Hong Kong, China, and Taiwan Province of China (Sciortino and Punpuing, 2009). Additionally, benefits to immigrants may grow over time since they will benefit from improved integration into the local labour market as they learn the language and become aware of local possibilities. The average salary for South Asian and Filipino immigrants working in the UAE was estimated to be approximately \$7000. (Nyarko 2011 cites Al Awad, Tong, 2010). India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, and the Philippines all have average yearly earnings of roughly \$3,650, \$2,745, \$1,777, and \$4,119, respectively. These average statistics certainly exaggerate the expected income of migrating employees since unskilled workers are presumably closer to the bottom of the home income distribution. Even with these data, however, it is clear that the salaries available to migrants are far greater than the national average.

A large portion of intraregional migrants in Asia and the Pacific go between developing nations rather than from developing to industrialised nations. Admissions requirements are often less stringent than in industrialised nations where entry to the work market is tightly regulated. However, circumstances for migrants may be worse in developing nations than in developed nations, with a larger danger of exploitation and abuse. It is more difficult to monitor and enforce employment standards in larger informal industries. Women are often more at danger of abuse while doing domestic tasks, in particular. These issues may get worse in countries like the Gulf States where migrant workers' labour rights, such as the capacity to join a union, are curtailed. Despite the GCC's improving practises, research reveals persistent issues. Additionally, immigrants often get less money than citizens with same abilities and qualifications, sometimes as a result of their prior work history and credentials not being acknowledged. Discrimination or linguistic hurdles may potentially lower earning potential. Even while salary improvements for migrants might be great, the expense of

moving and relocating is often high as well, thus the overall advantages are generally less, at least in the beginning. Obtaining official credentials like passports and visas, travelling, and paying brokers or agents who often correspond with employers in the countries of destination—all come at a cost. Bribes paid to authorities in areas where corruption is common increase the cost of migrating. For example, estimates of the cost of intermediaries involved in obtaining a transfer from Viet Nam to Japan may be over 6 years of income, and for Bangladesh to Saudi Arabia over 5 years of revenue (UNDP, 2009). In sum, these relocation fees can equal several years or months of income in the sending nation. Non-financial costs of migration include, but are not limited to, the psychological expenses of being cut off from one's family and community of origin. Internal migrants, such as those who relocate from rural to urban settings, may also experience comparable adjustments. However, these expenses might be reduced by improved diaspora communities and telecommunications.

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, a lot of refugees came to Australia, Canada, Europe, and the United States, followed by family migration from Asian nations including Viet Nam, Cambodia, China, and Lao People's Democratic Republic. 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 [7]–[10]. 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 labour mobility both within the subregion and globally. Low-skilled migration still dominates migration in the Asia-Pacific region. Because the local labour market is becoming more and more educated, these migrants look for and choose low-paying positions. Low-skilled migration is mostly made up of two groups: documented workers (those travelling via official legal routes to fulfil specified contract employment) and illegal laborer.

In the global race for "talent," certain destination countries are also stepping up their attempts to compete for highly trained individuals; professionals in the healthcare industry, for instance, are in great demand. Although the total numbers are still rather modest, the movement of highly educated migrants and students from Asia and the Pacific has increased significantly over the last 20 years. For instance, a survey in the Philippines indicated that 60% of doctors and 30% of IT employees have left the country at some time in their careers (Lowell and Findlay, 2002). Some constraints limiting the mobility of executives and professionals moved within multinational firms have also been loosened as a result of the

expanding cross-border activities of multinational businesses, which are being pushed by increased economic integration and global production networks.

CONCLUSION

The research shows that trade and migration are mutually reinforcing activities that are complimentary to one another. Trade liberalization encourages economic expansion, which increases migration and the need for labour. In turn, migration promotes the exchange of information, skills, and cultural variety, allowing nations to capitalize on their comparative advantages in international marketplaces. Migration and trade work well together in numerous ways. Migration makes it easier for workers to migrate to areas where there is a labour shortage, filling skill gaps and increasing productivity. For instance, a survey in the Philippines indicated that 60% of doctors and 30% of IT employees have left the country at some time in their careers (Lowell and Findlay, 2002). Some constraints limiting the mobility of executives and professionals moved within multinational firms have also been loosened as a result of the expanding cross-border activities of multinational businesses, which are being pushed by increased economic integration and global production networks. Migration supports economic development through advancing innovation, entrepreneurship, and the transfer of technology. Migration also promotes cultural interchange, which increases variety and enriches society.

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CHAPTER 6

EXPLORING THE IMPACTS OF REMITTANCE FLOWS

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ABSTRACT:

This study focuses on analysing how remittance flows affect development and looking at how they may affect personal, social, and economic development. Remittances, or the money that migrants send home, have grown to be a substantial source of foreign aid for many poor countries. This research tries to evaluate the empirical data on the consequences of remittance flows on development, taking into account their influence on entrepreneurship, household consumption, poverty reduction, and healthcare and education. It investigates the methods through which remittances have an impact on several facets of development, including social welfare, financial inclusion, and income production. This study weighs the benefits and drawbacks of remittances on recipient nations via a thorough review of empirical studies, case studies, and statistical models. It also examines the policy implications and techniques for maximising the beneficial effects of remittance flows on development. The results show how remittances might potentially support sustainable development, but they also emphasize the need for focused policies that tackle issues like financial intermediation, investment, and the effective use of transfer money. Policymakers, academics, and other stakeholders may use the study to build evidence-based policies that take advantage of remittances' potential for economic growth while fostering inclusive and robust economies.

KEYWORDS:

Remittances, Development Impacts, Economic Development, Social Development, Human Development Poverty Reduction, Investment.

INTRODUCTION

Remittance flows, or the money migrant workers send from their host nations to their home countries, are essential to the world economy. These resources often serve as a lifeline for families and communities, offering assistance with basic requirements, healthcare, education, and investment possibilities. Remittance flows worldwide hit a record high in 2020, highlighting their importance as a source of revenue for underdeveloped countries. While India, China, Mexico, the Philippines, and Egypt are important beneficiaries, the United States, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates are among the top remittance source nations. Despite its beneficial effects, transferring remittances is still expensive, which has led to initiatives to lower costs and improve efficiency via technological and legislative changes. Remittance flows are a crucial component of the global financial landscape since they not only aid in the eradication of poverty but also foster financial inclusion and economic growth in the recipient nations.

Remittance flows are the transfers of funds made by overseas workers to their home countries. Typically, migrant workers send remittances to their family or to invest in companies or real estate back home. These financial flows are substantial contributors to the world economy and have far-reaching social and economic effects on both sending and receiving nations. Remittances may help reduce poverty. Remittances have been shown to

account for 6% of the decline in the number of people living in poverty in Bangladesh and may account for up to 50% of the decline in the number of people living in poverty in Nepal. The greatest noteworthy reductions in poverty have been seen in South Asia, where a sizable portion of remittances come from the region's expatriate workforce. For instance, a 2003 study in Kerala, India, found that remittances decreased the population's proportion of the poor by 3.1% [1]–[3].

Importance: For many underdeveloped nations, remittances are a crucial source of revenue. In terms of monetary inflows, they often outpace both foreign direct investment and government development aid. Remittances may aid in eradicating poverty, enhancing access to healthcare and education, and fostering general economic growth. An all-time high of over \$700 billion in remittances was achieved in 2020, according to figures from the World Bank. The top remittance receivers are Egypt, Mexico, the Philippines, China, India, and China. **Sending and Receiving Countries:** Migration trends have a major influence on remittance flows. People move to places where there are more work possibilities and greater pay, and they send money home. United States, Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, and Switzerland are the top remittance source nations

Remittances may have a beneficial effect on the economics of recipient nations. They may help households spend more, invest more, and save more money. Remittances may sometimes assist nations with high reliance on foreign currency revenues reduce balance of payment deficits. Remittances are another factor in the promotion of financial inclusion. Due to the fact that many remittance receivers lack access to traditional banking services, the creation of cutting-edge payment platforms and mobile banking has made it easier to send money to even distant locations.

Cost and Efficiency: Despite the advantages, sending remittances is still expensive, which is a problem. Particularly for lesser transfer sums, transaction fees and foreign currency rates may be rather expensive. There are initiatives ongoing to lower costs and boost efficiency via heightened competition, technological advancements, and legislative changes. It's crucial to remember that the data presented here is based on knowledge that is current as of September 2021. It is advised to consult sources like the World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF), or other recognised financial organisations for the most recent information and trends on remittance flows. Remittances may initially reduce inequality, but when only a small proportion of families benefit from them, this effect can deteriorate. As was previously said, the poorest families are often effectively prevented from migrating since it is costly. Taking Kerala, India as an example, where there are the most abroad migrants, Kelegama argues that just 26% of families there directly benefit from remittances, leading to escalating social tensions and inequality.

Remittances may be a country's only truly inclusive source of foreign revenue, compared to other sources. For instance, trade liberalisation has been demonstrated to typically favour city people more than rural populations, widening the income and consumption gap (Ravaillon, 2006). Remittances are also more likely to be regionally inclusive than FDI is (DESA, 2012). Remittances may make up for the costs of liberalisation borne by the rural poor when rural communities can send family members to work overseas. Women's remittances to and from abroad may help advance gender equality. Women may be able to avoid their husbands' influence in choices about how to allocate financial resources by working overseas and sending their earnings home to anyone they want. Rather of sending money to the migrant's spouse, women are more likely to send money to the person caring for their children, who is frequently another woman (IOM, 2004). In spite of the fact that 68% of the sample's migrant

workers were married, only 28% of them sent money to their spouses, according to a household survey conducted in Bangladesh.

DISCUSSION

Impacts via sending country labour markets and on incentives for human capital formation. Remittances also play a crucial role in diversifying family income sources. When families experience shocks, remittances help protect family finances. Remittances, for instance, may support families when unforeseen circumstances like unanticipated medical costs, unemployment, or more significant downturns brought on by political unrest or natural catastrophes. Remittances may also build a reserve of funds to support further migration years after the first member of the family has migrated. Last but not least, some research has shown that remittance receivers are more entrepreneurial and have a larger marginal willingness to invest than non-migrant families.

Economic theory gives few clear-cut ideas on the implications of outbound migration on the labour market, in contrast to the extensive research on the effects of immigration on the labour market in receiving countries. At least in the medium term, it is reasonable to suppose that emigration decreases the overall labour supply and, more precisely, the supply of the specific groups of emigrating employees. The job status of migrants before to departure, namely whether they were employed or unemployed, will determine whether this would lessen unemployment pressures and budgetary demands on the government budget (from social assistance programmes) or boost salaries. If the former is true, the impact on the labour markets in the country of origin will depend on: the prevalence of surplus labour of a specific type; the institutional barriers to wage flexibility market; and the capacity of those left behind to pick up skills or relocate to the areas where the open positions are. When employees go overseas in search of employment, there may be a labour shortage at home. Employers may then bid up the cost of employment, which might have a favourable upward effect on wages. According to one research on the migration of industrial and construction employees from Pakistan and the Philippines, earnings for similarly qualified workers who stayed behind increased by around one-third [4]–[6].

Realistic migration possibilities for individuals may also promote the growth of human capital. Several emerging nations have a shortage of competent human capital. The worry that easy outmigration of these people will deprive developing nations of its most brilliant and effective workers is one that is regularly voiced. This 'brain drain,' it is said, would not only diminish the talent pool accessible to employers in the source country, but would also serve as a useful subsidy for wealthy nations as they would gain from the talented individuals while avoiding the expenditures of training them. Indeed, studies indicate that educated employees in the management, research, engineering, and education professions leave emerging Asia-Pacific nations in significant numbers. For instance, 40% of Filipino permanent immigrants possessed a college degree.

Despite the conflicting findings, there is reason to think that skilled labour mobility has positive effects that benefit both the countries from where the employees are coming as well as the emigrants themselves. There is a bigger motivation for all employees to get skills and training when skilled people may emigrate for better wages elsewhere. Since there is no indication that greater levels of emigration are linked to lower local stocks of human capital, there may be a net gain in the skills of the workers left behind even after many have departed (Easterly and Nyarko, 2009). Therefore, rather than reducing overall skill levels in the local population, emigration may actually increase them. For instance, the Philippines exports more nurses than any other country in the world. However, despite these outflows, the

Philippines has more nurses per capita than Austria), likely due to the fact that many talented applicants choose not to move or are unable to do so. Cross-country data further bolsters the idea that the additional skills acquired by individuals encouraged by the potential of labor mobility more than made up for the total loss of skills due to emigration.

The effects of skilled migration, however, could not always be favourable. According to one estimate, the economic performance of the exporting nations begins to suffer when more than 20% of college graduates depart. Between small nations (with populations of less than 2.5 million) and big countries (with populations of over 25 million), emigration rates also seem to vary. This influence of nation size on the brain drain is strong over a broad range of incomes. Small developing states have an extraordinarily high level of skilled emigration rates of 43%, which is 2.8 times larger than the total migration rate from developing countries of 15%. In reality, tiny states often lose a higher percentage of their skilled labour force and respond more strongly to common push forces. According to the data, tiny states are more effective at developing talented natives than at keeping them. Additionally, issues could be focused in a certain industry. For instance, in contrast to what happened in the Philippines, other nations have experienced a shortage of medical professionals as a result of high migration rates. As a result, certain nations may need specialised actions to solve shortages. However, the most practical long-term answer is probably economic development to enhance possibilities at home, for which migration might assist. Migration may enhance the development of human capital via less obvious pathways in addition to its direct impact on incentives. Remittances from relatives living abroad may also encourage families to engage in education, which will assist to further increase the production of human capital. Families with migrant workers seem to be more inclined to enrol their kids in school and use remittances to cover tuition and other expenses. Thus, there is less child labour. Additionally, once there, migrant children are more likely to complete their education due to the positive social norms and incentives that migration brings with it.

Remittances are sometimes challenged since they 'only' encourage current spending rather than long-term investment, with the implication that long-term development relies on investing in projects that increase productivity like roads, electricity, and hospitals. Usually, such comments are accompanied by suggestions that authorities try to direct remittances into instruments that might supply investment capital, including new varieties of government bonds. While not undermining the significance of capital investment, better understanding is required of how "mere consumption" may be intrinsically beneficial in reducing severe poverty and in the growth of human capital. Additionally, 'consumption' may have long-term effects similar to investments in underdeveloped regions. For instance, providing meals to youngsters to prevent hunger improves their academic performance and builds human capital. If all pupils in low-income nations mastered fundamental reading abilities, according to UNESCO's estimations, worldwide poverty might be reduced by 12% (UNESCO, 2011). Household surveys conducted in the Philippines revealed a connection between increased education spending and greater remittance revenues. Additionally, research in Sri Lanka has shown that families who receive remittances have lower rates of school dropout and spend more on their children's private school tuition.

Spending on healthcare, backed by remittances, also helps to keep the workforce healthy and productive as a whole. Spending on nutrition helps long-term health and productivity, in addition to funding treatment for current medical conditions. For instance, the 2005 Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics reported that families who received remittances spent an additional 47 Bangladeshi Taka (\$0.6) per month on health on average than those that did not.

Additionally, research based on household surveys in Sri Lanka discovered that children in homes receiving remittances are born heavier, indicating overall better health.

Effects on recipient country labor market

Political debate about labour migration in recipient countries sometimes revolves on concerns that migration would harm local workers, either through downward pressure on wages or by local employees being displaced in the job market as a result of migration. Therefore, it is not surprising that there is a sizable body of research on the consequences on the labour markets of recipient nations. However, actual evidence shows that these concerns are largely unjustified. The bulk of studies show evidence that migration has little to no impact on earnings and employment in the labour markets of destinations[7]–[10].

In a similar vein, Gandel et al. (2004) discovers that the rapid, relatively competent immigration from Russia into Israel was more than adequately absorbed by the worldwide advancements in technology. These results have a significant implication that the effects of increasing immigration are absorbed by technical advancements. As a result, there are often little impacts on salaries in the host nation. Obviously, immigration has effects on the receiving nation that go beyond those that are strictly economic. Governments in the host nation must also pay attention to more general challenges of social cohesion. They can encounter a contradiction here: when immigrants and natives are the least alike, a nation may gain economically from immigration the most. This is most likely the case, however, where the social costs of migration are the greatest: when traditions, culture, values, and language diverge the most, integration may be the most challenging, and inward migration may have unfavourable externalities or negative outcomes.

CONCLUSION

Remittance flows have a major influence on recipient nations' growth, according to the report. Remittances have a positive impact on the economy by raising family income, lowering poverty rates, and raising living standards. They provide a reliable stream of revenue that fosters entrepreneurship, investment, and consumption. Remittances also contribute to greater financial inclusion by making it easier for families to acquire credit and financial services. Remittances provide access to healthcare and education, which promotes social development.

They contribute to the cost of uniforms, books, and school fees, allowing kids to attend school and fostering the development of human capital. Governments in the host nation must also pay attention to more general challenges of social cohesion. They can encounter a contradiction here: when immigrants and natives are the least alike, a nation may gain economically from immigration the most. This is most likely the case, however, where the social costs of migration are the greatest: when traditions, culture, values, and language diverge the most, integration may be the most challenging, and inward migration may have unfavourable externalities or negative outcomes. Remittances also aid in covering medical costs, enhancing health outcomes, and expanding access to healthcare.

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CHAPTER 7

MANAGING LABOUR MOBILITY IN THE ASIA-PACIFIC AREA: AN OVERVIEW

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ABSTRACT:

This assessment looks at the potential and problems that come with managing labour mobility in the Asia-Pacific area. Due to population changes, economic integration, and globalization, labour mobility has become a more significant concern. The economies of the Asia-Pacific area are varied, with various degrees of development, as are the state of the labour market and migratory trends. The extant literature on labour mobility governance is analysed in this study, with an emphasis on regional policies, rules, and institutional frameworks. Key determinants of labour mobility are identified, including economic inequality, political issues, social integration, and the preservation of migrant workers' rights. Additionally, it talks on how labour mobility affects sending and receiving nations' economic development, remittances, brain drain, and social cohesion. The assessment also emphasises efforts at regional cooperation and the function of international organisations in resolving issues with labour mobility. This assessment intends to contribute to a better understanding of the prospects and policy alternatives for controlling labour flows in the Asia-Pacific region by looking at the complexity of labour mobility regulation.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Mobility, Governance, Asia-Pacific, Policies, Migration, Economic Opportunities.

INTRODUCTION

Studying demography is now a significant endeavour. The subject's breadth continues to be a source of disagreement. Demography is the study of data that show how society is changing, such as births, deaths, wealth, or the prevalence of illness. human population structure. Demographic research is becoming more and more important, not only in India but also globally. It is mostly due to the constantly expanding population in emerging and underdeveloped nations. Population growth is putting pressure on social, economic, and even political institutions in affluent and developing countries alike. It is now well understood that if demographers fail to play their part in bringing the attention of their countries to their demographic issues, the countries would reach a point of no return in nearly all spheres of life and experience severe pressure in every endeavour. The fundamentals of demographic factors influencing population change, including as births, deaths, migration, and marriage, will be covered in this unit. cooperation on this issue with a focus on the Asia-Pacific region and the use of trade agreements as a means of governing migration[1]–[3].

History attests to the fact that some kind of record describing the population and its growth was maintained in both India and the United States, in one way or another, so the state remained aware of the population's growth. There is little question that the population boom of those days was not a cause for alarm since the requirements of the expanding population were quite restricted and there were sufficient resources to satisfy those needs. Planners, policymakers, administrators, academics, and politicians cannot disregard the demographics

of today. It serves as both a solid basis for their work and a platform from which to launch it. Population studies are being produced and applied from a variety of viewpoints, and they are now an essential component of political, socioeconomic, and planned economic systems, respectively [1], [4].

When investigating size, the part of the study that deals with issues like how many individuals reside in a certain demographic group, what changes in that group's size are occurring, and how these changes are impacted is considered. It also seeks to determine the population of a location at a certain period. However, this may be determined with accuracy by explicitly defining the words "place," "person," and "time." In any demographic research, the goal is not only to determine how many people reside in a certain place at a particular moment, but also to use a comparison technique to determine whether the number is higher than what it was and what the future like number will be, among other things. Industrialists, those involved in delivering social utility services like education and healthcare, lawmakers, planners, policymakers, and social scientists all require this information. The government and planners may create their future plans, strategies, and extension of operations with the use of these statistics. The production of consumer products may be increased after receiving this actual and estimated statistics, and plans can be developed to provide the society with basic amenities and requirements. A demographer should determine the magnitude of changes, but he must also determine the factors that led to them. These may result from rising birth and emigration rates, declining mortality rates, etc. Both of these conditions may result from a lack of medical facilities, public health awareness among the general public, or accessibility to medical services.

In population studies, composition comes next to size. All the quantifiable traits of the individuals who make up a certain group. When one of two groups has a greater or lesser number of members who share a certain attribute, the composition of the two groups might vary. Two groups' compositions vary in a variety of ways. However, there are often two main factors to take into account while choosing qualities. The traits must be closely tied to demographic processes and pertinent to efforts to comprehend certain details of a country's or community's way of life. The most often employed factors in population studies are age and sex. According to Thompson and Lewis, there is a reciprocal relationship between a population's composition and its mortality, fertility, and net migration; in other words, a population's composition influences the demographic process, which in turn influences the composition by determining the age and sex composition of a population. How individuals are dispersed and the nature of population distribution changes are two topics that are covered in population distribution studies. In demographic research, one would be interested in learning more about the types of people living in pre-urban industrial regions, developing urban industrial areas, and advanced urban industrial areas as well as how each group is changing. By dividing the population, one may examine the distribution by calculating the proportion of residents who live in small towns, cities, rural and urban regions, etc. [5]–[7].

In essence, differences in death, birth, and net migration rates combine to generate variations in population distribution. According to Thompson and Lewis, in order to understand the political, economic, and social causes and effects of these changes, one must first understand what the term "demographic" means in terms of sizes, composition, and distribution. Next, one must comprehend the concept of "nationality" and "migration," and finally, one must look for information on the causes of these changes. One must understand the benefits of population studies after learning about its nature and scope. The population has been growing quickly not only in India but across the whole planet. However, repeating that it has been rising does not further the intended goal. One would learn about the extent of population

growth and the responsibilities of the state and citizen in regards to social, economic, and political problems as well as the state and their potential solutions with the aid of a serious study of population issues. The following are some notable benefits of population research that should be briefly discussed:

Political: Political leadership and authorities in the field of politics learn from population studies the rate at which voters (both men and women) are growing, how the generation gap is now concentrated where more emphasis should be laid, what kind of arrangements will be required for conducting elections, which are the areas from which population is increasing and constituencies delimited accordingly, so that there are no dullards. **Economic:** Population research is very important to the discipline of economics. Population studies will assist the country determine whether or not the rate of population increase is keeping up with economic progress, and if not, how to make the necessary adjustments to ensure that economic difficulties do not gravely endanger the country. Of course, if there is a financial crisis, poverty, and scarcity. Either by monitoring the pace of population increase or by accelerating economic development plans, the issue will need to be resolved. This demographic research offers information on the people's per capita income, consumption patterns, per capita production and consumption rates, etc. It is ideal for population expansion and human development to maintain pace with one another. If there is a significant difference between the two, it will inevitably lead to social and economic chaos.

The majority of wealthy nations today embrace the idea of planned development. Planning for resources is now necessary and cannot be avoided. It is acknowledged that limited natural and human resources must be used in a deliberate way to serve the interests of society. But no planning will be successful unless the planners are aware of the rates of population increase and the locations where it is happening considerably faster than elsewhere. The planners may allocate resources to prevent regional imbalances and to arrange for additional needs to be met in the next years with the aid of demographic studies. It goes without saying that the whole concept would fail without adequate demographic research. Again, it is only with the aid of demographic statistics that planners are able to increase the number of schools, hospitals, transport systems, and other important services while also ensuring that all individuals, regardless of whether their population is growing or shrinking, get the essentials [8]–[10].

DISCUSSION

Studying populations has several benefits for social science as well. Here, the community learns what essential demands (social) are inescapable due to the population boom. Studying the population may assist identify additional demands for things like roads, homes, schools, hospitals, and other necessities for the community, on the one hand, and shopping malls, sanitary facilities, etc., on the other. Again, with the aid of these studies, the state will be able to understand the scope of the law-and-order issue that a rising population will bring about and how to address it so that the citizen feels safe. Every state's reliance on demographic figures is growing as a result of the growing amount of responsibility each one is taking on. Many nations across the globe have granted their citizens the "right to work" and "right to leisure" in the social sphere. They cannot accept significant duties unless they are conscious of the hidden load they are assuming. Even wealthy nations strive to provide social security to their citizens by offering old age pensions, health insurance, child care, maternity facilities, and other services. With the assistance of demographic studies alone, these actions may be successfully carried out.

Population studies is crucial for identifying patterns in population mobility that lead to regional imbalances, especially when migration is caused by one scalar or another. Because educated people and landless workers are moving from rural to urban regions and from one region to another, this tendency is extremely obvious these days. It causes several major law and order issues and even led to certain regions being more industrially developed than others, leading to an industrial backwardness in other areas of the nation. Demands for more autonomy are made in response to regional inequalities, and some assertive leaders utilise agitational tactics to tap into people's regional sympathies in the process.

Demography is the study of population (size, distribution, and composition) changes. Population issues are always evolving. Because the rate of population growth varies with the periods and circumstances, it is necessary to regularly gather data and categorise it according to property. But the issue is what methodology should be used to analyse this data and the associated numbers. In a nutshell, statistics are gathered about one specific area and subject of population research, compared, and the gaps in the data are filled up by extrapolation. These are interpreted after that. However, real-world issues only surface when things are actually put to use. How to describe and identify the origins of a material collection and how to make inferences from the data at hand are both significant issues. It is challenging to establish any guidelines since they vary and rely on the study's scope, the time available, the issue at hand, and other factors, as well as modifications that must occur throughout time. However, the questions that are typically asked in population studies are about the growth rate of death, birth, and marriage statistics, whether there has been a fundamental change over time in any significant population aspect, and whether there have been changes in class structure in a given population while taking into account age, sex, occupation, education, etc.

Typically, two methods are used to examine demographic studies: macro-demographic analysis and micro-demographic analysis. The micro-demographic study looks at population-related internal issues. These issues include the analysis of the rate of population increase in a certain area, population distribution in the region, and population movement from one location to another. Although both composition and size are discussed in these works, the emphasis is placed more on composition than on size in the latter. The focus of the macro-demographic study is on bigger concerns. Of course, local regions provide data for their examination, but it is thought that population issues cannot be fully studied without taking into account economic setup. It's possible that this is why UNO has emphasized that demographic and census studies should be conducted at the same time. Analysis of demographic studies, such as mortality and birth rates, are estimated after taking the whole economic system into account. Comparisons of the demographic issues of two nations, two civilizations, and even two continents are done within the context of this more comprehensive framework of study.

India is rapidly catching up to the rest of the globe in terms of mortality rates. A growing economy is known to have a lowering mortality rate. Mortality decreases as civilization develops and circumstances are improved for women's health. Fortunately, during the last several decades, advances in technology have made it possible to prevent many terrible and chronic illnesses from becoming a concern. Typhoid, smallpox, and the plague, which formerly decimated whole communities, are no longer as feared. Due to the widespread availability of antibiotics and other life-saving medications, the causalities arising from these infections have been significantly decreased. The prevalence of death is being lowered thanks in part to increased awareness of the need for sanitation and cleanliness as well as the availability of these amenities. Better maternity and postpartum care has contributed to a decrease in infant mortality.

The fact that facing shortages and scarcities, which in the past led to terrible famines, are now a common occurrence, is another significant element that has helped lower the mortality rate. Lakhs of people perished in the Bengal famine of 1943. These things don't happen now in part because of sensible administrative policies, but mostly because a massive network of transport and communication infrastructure is readily available. In a nutshell, it is common knowledge that mortality decreases whenever material well-being increases. As a result, the mortality rate in India is anticipated to decline significantly till the turn of the century. After then, it will probably continue to increase for a while since an increasing percentage of the population will be older.

The third dynamic element of population expansion is migration. A population may expand due to an inflow of migrants, or it may shrink due to emigration of some of its members to another community. Any nation's history of population increase has seen a significant impact from both domestic and foreign migration. While there are significant variances in their growth rates, differences in the rate of natural rise across the states of a nation are often fairly minimal. Internal migration is the only primary cause of such extreme fluctuations. Typically, industrialization and urbanization go hand in hand with migration from rural to urban areas. Migrants from rural regions often transition to urban lifestyles, which directly affects the fertility rate. A remarkable characteristic of migration is that it may modify the size, structure, and sex ratio of the population very radically at any moment, but changes in the size and structure of the population brought on by mortality and fertility are seldom as extreme. Regional population growth rates are a consequence of both unequal natural population growth and rising migration. It is believed that economic hardship would lead to an increase in migration as individuals move in search of employment.

CONCLUSION

In the Asia-Pacific area, managing labour migration is a complicated and diverse problem. While labour mobility promotes regional integration and boosts the economy, it also has negative effects on migrant rights, social integration, and labour markets. A comprehensive strategy that strikes a balance between the interests of sending and receiving nations is necessary for effective labour mobility governance. The primary goal of policymakers should be to establish legislative frameworks that uphold the rights of migrant workers by assuring them access to social services, fair compensation, and safe working conditions. When agreements exist between high-income countries, regional PTAs clearly show a bias for liberalisation in respect to high-skilled labour. For instance, the agreements between Australia and New Zealand and Singapore and Japan both include clauses about making it easier to hire highly educated workers, notably by expediting the visa application process. Business executives, managers, intra-corporate transferees, and investors all often gain from the simplification of regulatory requirements under PTAs. In GATS Mode 4, they are covered as supporting supply. In addition, it is critical to address problems of forced labour, human trafficking, and labour exploitation while bolstering law enforcement and offering vulnerable migrants support systems.

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CHAPTER 8

MAXIMIZE THE DEVELOPMENT IMPACTS OF LABOUR MOBILITY FOR THE SENDING COUNTRY

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ABSTRACT:

The sending nations might have major development effects as a result of labour mobility. This study looks at methods for maximising these effects while taking into account their societal, economic, and human capital implications. It examines the benefits of labour mobility, including remittances, knowledge transfer, and skill training, and it emphasises the major issues that must be resolved to guarantee the success of sustainable development. The assessment examines numerous policy strategies, such as fostering entrepreneurship, investing in education and training, and developing enabling institutional frameworks. It also emphasises how crucial it is to interact with the diaspora and take use of their resources, networks, and abilities. The report highlights the need for sending nations to implement a thorough strategy that incorporates labour mobility into their development plans. Sending nations can unlock the potential of their migrant populations and open up chances for equitable and sustainable growth by maximising the development implications of labour mobility.

KEYWORDS:

Labor Mobility, Sending Country, Development Impacts, Economic Development, Poverty Reduction, Human Capital.

INTRODUCTION

Although moving for a job often helps both the sending and receiving nations as well as the employees, the advantages for sending countries may be increased by pursuing certain policies. For instance, improving the efficiency of the remittance market will lower the expenses and hence improve the impact of greater wages received by labour migrants. To do this, it is possible to increase competition among remittance companies and support the introduction of new technologies, such as mobile payments. More may be done generally to provide savings and investing tools for remitted monies. Another strategy would be to give the governments of the sending countries a modest portion of the taxes collected from their residents' abroad profits. The development of social security funds might be done with this money. Some labour contracts include clauses that guarantee migrant employees' ability to transfer skills while working overseas. These rules should be more generally implemented so that employers of migrant workers are required, if possible, to provide training or education leading to certifications. This would guarantee that "circular" migration would result in real gains in terms of the development of human capital when workers returned home. Bilateral or regional agreements may have these obligations [1]–[3].

Overall, the Asia-Pacific area has a great deal of potential to benefit from increased labour mobility. These succinct suggestions provide a quick rundown of ways to improve the present system for controlling labour migration. By serving as a hub for regional cooperation, ESCAP, the United Nations Regional Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific, may be

of assistance. For countries negotiating preferential trade agreements or economic partnerships, ESCAP may provide specialised guidance and capacity building to ensure that they gain, to the greatest extent feasible, the full developmental advantages of labour mobility.

Other issues in labour supply

The study of mobility in this industrial environment clearly revolves upon the shift from locally based mining communities to commuter-based activities. When developing a picture of the ebbs and flows of labour within the mining industry, both historically and now, there are additional elements that should be considered. With a simple mindset of flying employees in to fill positions, these more complicated and systemic challenges are more difficult to manage.

The ability of mining firms to leverage on and invest in prospective worker pools is one factor to take into account. The Construction, Forestry, Mining Energy Union (2010) goes into considerable detail about this subject. They have received some backward-looking criticism for their research, but it is also pertinent to the mining industry's anticipated future expansion, where the need for labour and skills will rise and diversify. The Construction, Forestry, Mining Energy Union's main argument is that a sizable portion of willing and able job seekers are being shut out of the mining industry due to their skills, aptitude, occupational safety and health, or family circumstances, and that fundamental job redesign is required to accommodate a more inclusive labour market. New strategies for hiring and training that broaden the range of employment eligibility, in particular to include school dropouts and people without formal credentials, and allow personnel to build skills on the job will be key to these developments. According to the Construction, Forestry, Mining Energy Union, mining businesses have depended on 'poaching' skilled employees from other sectors and foreign markets for too long, particularly under the. Additionally, their research mentions "an entrenched culture of entitlement by senior management" that restricts prospects for advancement and demands that employees pay for their own training before accepting positions in the business.

The fact that what was formerly thought of as an endless supply of young, male, blue-collar labour is drying up with the development of a more ambitious and assertive "Generation Y" is partially what the union is worried about. The fact that the mining sector is now top heavy with members of the "baby boomer" generation, who will soon retire in large numbers, only makes the situation worse. There is little doubt that mining jobs are in high demand; for instance, more than 10,000 applications were received in March 2010 for just 52 posts at Rio Tinto's new Clermont site in Queensland. It is clear that the industry's problem is to restructure its skill requirements in line with the altering nature of the worker pools available, rather than to maintain a sufficient labour supply.

Similar to this, since long hours have been recognised as a major contributor to employee turnover in the industry mining businesses are being compelled to come up with innovative ideas on how working time arrangements might be modified to promote greater worker engagement. In order to better accommodate the demands of both men and women who have child care duties, organisations have started to address this problem by, for example, offering part-time work and abbreviated day shifts.

Qualifications and training

High labour turnover within the business may be seen as both a cause and an effect of low qualification levels among child care professionals. Just 10% of early childhood education

and care personnel have university degrees, according to recent data from the Liquor, Hospitality and Miscellaneous Workers Union (2008), while between 30 and 45% lack any relevant academic credentials.

However, around one-third of child care workers have a diploma or certificate from the Australian Qualifications (AQF).

This scenario is exacerbated and affected by a variety of linked variables, including:

1. According to the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (2009), service providers may not have the necessary time, funds, or teaching staff to support the upskilling of their workforce.
2. If it seems improbable that employees would remain with them over the long term, employers are less inclined to spend in training and development.
3. Despite large increases in regulatory duties that go along with upgrading from certificates to degrees, there aren't many financial incentives for employees to do so.
4. Higher-qualified instructors are more likely to opt to work in schools because of the superior compensation and working circumstances, as was already mentioned.

DISCUSSION

Employment conditions and perceptions of the sector

Along with other observers, Fenech, Waniganayake, and Fleet (2009) make a compelling case that the field of early childhood education and care is a neglected one. The long-standing differences in salary and prestige between early childhood educators and carers and their main and secondary teaching colleagues somewhat support this statement. The authors also point out that "poor work conditions, heavy workloads, a lack of time to fulfil multiple responsibilities,... and onerous administrative duties" are factors in staff turnover, burnout, and job unhappiness among early childhood education and care service employees[4]–[6].

Furthermore, according to Fenech, Waniganayake, and Fleet (2009), state and federal policy directives devalue the standing of early childhood educators. They provide the following instances to illustrate their point: Some state-based teacher registration organisations (such as the NSW Institute of Teachers) do not include early childhood education and care teachers who work with children from birth to five years old in preschools or other comparable settings. Inquiries of teacher education conducted by the Australian Government have not yet included the early childhood field.

This most recent discovery is crucial. It is commonly known that overall hours decreased during the Global Financial Crisis by a greater percentage than overall employment. Many critics said that this was proof of "job sharing," in which hours rather than jobs were slashed to keep individuals employed. In terms of this project's significance, restricting hours decreased people's ability to leave the labour force. However, the statistics in appendix 1 show that the only group of employees who collectively said that they had cut down on their hours more often during the recession than before were those who had changed employment and lacked leave benefits. In fact, during the worst of the recession, fewer employees cut their hours among those who remained in the same position or transferred to a "permanent" one. We investigated labour flows in the three case study sectors to deepen the investigation. It summarises our preliminary results. The sample sizes used in this study are quite tiny, and attrition rates have further decreased them. As a result, the statistics should only be used as illustrative and in no way represent a current authoritative trend in these areas. However, they do provide the framework for well-informed ideas that may be investigated in further study.

This information offers compelling preliminary evidence that the effects of the most recent cyclical downturn on labour flows varied greatly by industry. Intakes outweighed exits before and after the downturn, while the converse was true during the slump, demonstrating the traditional shift in flows. A radically distinct dynamic ruled early childhood education and care. According to the respondents, flows into and out of the industry were almost equal in all years, with a minor surplus of inflow during the recession and significant turnover actually occurring during this time. Comparing this development to overall trends, it was significantly distinct. The meat processing industry has insufficient data to make any meaningful conclusions.

Projected Employment Growth by Industry

Any increase in labour demand brought on by trade liberalisation must be balanced by an increase in labour supply when labour mobility across industries is prohibited. Thus, if a decline in production is recorded, there is a consistent change in job growth across sectors and local and FDI enterprises, including domestic financial institutions. Due to the relative lower cost of labour compared to capital, domestic financial institutions are seeing a surge in employment. As a result, the additional labour supply in this sector is completely absorbed and substitutes capital. Due to the fact that the financial sector trade reform requires a lot of trained labour, skilled labour rises faster than unskilled labour (0.61% vs 0.36%).

The demand for labour will be addressed by both a growth in the labour pool and the recruitment of workers from sectors with lower labour costs. As long as there is labour price arbitrage across sectors, this process goes on. As a consequence, we see different rates of skilled labour employment growth across sectors. Because unskilled labour is cheaper than skilled labour, skilled labour employment declines by 3% in domestic financial institutions when skilled labour is replaced. In contrast, skilled labour is considerably less costly than unskilled labour in FDI situations, which results in a 14.26% rise in the employment of skilled labour. The production and distribution of electricity, gas, trade, and insurance see the greatest rates of skilled worker job growth, whereas coal, oil, and gas mining, other mining, and agriculture experience the lowest rates. Trade liberalisation increases total employment for ASEAN as a whole by 0.47%, which is more than labour mobility restrictions[4], [7], [8].

Skills mobility and postsecondary education in the ASEAN Economic Community

Building migration policy requires a thorough understanding of the structure, causes, and effects of high-skilled intraregional labour movement. In recent years, intra-ASEAN movement has grown. For instance, in 2013, 70% of the 9.5 million migrants residing in ASEAN nations were from another ASEAN nation, a significant increase from the 40% in 1990. However, due to a lack of sufficient, acceptable, and pertinent data, the intra-ASEAN migratory profile is lacking. Nevertheless, despite these data challenges, two features of intra-ASEAN migration are evident: (i) the bulk of migrants are low-skilled workers; and (ii) the concentration of migration flows occurs across a few large bilateral corridors. Little information is currently available to indicate if these traits are unique to ASEAN or are seen in other economic or trade groupings.

In order to better understand ASEAN's migratory characteristics, this chapter compares them to those of other economic groupings. The research makes use of a high-skilled migration dataset with non-OECD (non-OECD) nations acting as host countries for migrant workers. There are a number of extensive source/host migration datasets out there. Even while it only covers two time periods the most recent study by Artuc et al. (2015) which also takes non-OECD hosts and educational levels into account is the only one that is adequate for this

analysis. The study did not include ASEAN, but other Asian nations like India and the People's Republic of China (PRC) were.

the connections between high-skill labour migration (high-skill migration) and persons (human capital) with postsecondary education after examining the fundamental aspects of ASEAN migration. The chapter addresses (i) the function of human capital stock as predictors of migration and (ii) the influence of migration on postsecondary-educated human capital stock in light of the similarities between mobility and human capital development. Education and international migration both invest in human agents whose choices are complicated on many levels

For instance, migration and education are both primarily influenced by income disparities. De Haas (2009) highlighted the basic process by which migration and human development are connected, the requirement of human development for migration, and the promise of migration for well-being and improving freedom from the viewpoint of capacities suggested by Sen (1999). Therefore, it is appropriate to address postsecondary education together with the origin and effects of high-skill migration. Previous studies used empirical research to examine these links, as is explained in the literature review that follows. However, there is opportunity for development. Few studies have focused on intraregional migration while analysing the ASEAN scenario. The estimating model may be enhanced to take the size of the impact and the diversity of the nations and regions into account. The estimating model may be enhanced to take the size of the impact and the diversity of the nations and regions into account. Although the discussion of migration effects typically focuses on source countries, this chapter also discusses host countries because, as demonstrated by Borjas (1994), migrants have a significant impact on the native populations of host countries by participating in local labor and capital markets. Although a number of empirical studies have produced conflicting findings it is possible for both the source and host nations to have both good and negative effects on a variety of factors, including human capital, labour markets, science, and technology

High-skill migration is difficult to define. For instance, high-skill employees are those with a university degree or comparable professional experience, according to Papademetriou et al. (2016). Eight professions engineering, nursing, architecture, medical, dentistry, tourism, surveying, and accounting are targeted by ASEAN states as high-skill immigration sources. This chapter defines high-skill persons as those with postsecondary education and low-skill individuals as typically less educated, taking into account the existing confusing definition and seen from a macro-perspective. Migration is assessed on the nation of birth rather than citizenship, which might vary over time, according to the definition of the dataset supplied.

By contrasting the connection with other regional communities, this chapter tries to illustrate how high-skill migration is connected to postsecondary education within ASEAN. The 1990 and 2000 datasets from Artuc et al. are utilised for empirical analysis and estimate. The findings indicate that among the four regional communities under study ASEAN, the Mercado Comn del Sur (Common Market of the South, or MERCOSUR), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and the European Union (EU) inter-ASEAN migration was responsible for the lowest proportion of high-skill migration and the second-highest concentration of bilateral corridors. The postsecondary human capital stock in the source nation, but not in the host country, explains high-skill intra-ASEAN mobility. However, the postsecondary human capital stock in both the source and host nations may be explained by bilateral high-skill intra-ASEAN mobility. Therefore, an increase in postsecondary education spending in source countries may be positively correlated with high-skill ASEAN mobility.

These findings suggest that in order to improve postsecondary education, it is necessary to promote high-skill intra-ASEAN mobility[9], [10].

CONCLUSION

The beneficial effects of labor mobility on development may be maximized by sending nations by putting in place a comprehensive set of policies and initiatives. By contrasting the connection with other regional communities, this chapter tries to illustrate how high-skill migration is connected to postsecondary education within ASEAN. The 1990 and 2000 datasets from Artuc et al. are utilized for empirical analysis and estimate. The findings indicate that among the four regional communities under study ASEAN, the Mercado Comin del Sur (Common Market of the South, or MERCOSUR), the North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), and the European Union (EU) inter-ASEAN migration was responsible for the lowest proportion of high-skill migration and the second-highest concentration of bilateral corridors. Labour mobility may change into a transformational force in fostering inclusive growth, poverty reduction, and human capital development for the sending nation by concentrating on economic empowerment, skill development, remittance optimization, social protection, and sustainable reintegration.

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CHAPTER 9

ANALYSIS OF SYSTEM OF INSTITUTIONALIZED COSTS AND INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION PATTERNS

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ABSTRACT:

This study examines the connection between patterns of international migration and institutionalised costs. The official and informal restrictions, laws, and policies that limit people's ability to move freely across international boundaries are referred to as institutionalised costs. The research looks at how these expenses affect prospective migrants' decision-making and how they affect the general patterns of global migration. It looks at a number of elements, such as social integration programmes, bureaucratic processes, labour market rules, and visa limitations that affect institutionalised costs. The influence of institutionalised costs on migratory flows is examined in this study together with empirical studies that have already been done, with an emphasis on the Asia-Pacific area. It looks at the differences in migration trends between nations with open, flexible policies and those with more restrictive immigration laws. The paper also analyses how institutionalised costs may affect social dynamics, remittances, brain drain, and labour supply in both sending and receiving nations.

KEYWORDS:

Institutionalized Costs, International Migration, Migration Patterns, Migration Decision-Making, Legal Barriers, Administrative Barriers.

INTRODUCTION

One of the most challenging but fascinating topics for study in labour economics, international economics, and public economics, among other fields, has been the analysis of cross-border labour mobility. It also explores the political economy and has a significant impact on public policy in several nations. Furthermore, there is a need across a variety of academic fields and schools of thought to comprehend the extent and dynamics of labour migration with its varied effects on both source and host nations. This chapter looks at how emigration patterns are affected by policies in the countries of origin. It is anticipated that a dedicated public policy would make it easier to collect tax revenues and utilise them to offset any unjustified effects of labour mobility, such as "brain drain." Upon migrants must pay institutional expenses like exit taxes (due upon leaving a nation), there seems to be a deterministic pattern of migration from source countries. By no means is the mention of departure taxes a strategy intended to reduce emigration from source nations. Instead, they may be used to increase the human capital stock of the source countries, which has been shown to have positive effects on welfare and may ultimately encourage more skilled than unskilled emigration from developing nations. They might be used, in example, to encourage employees who are relatively inexperienced to pick up new skills and then think about leaving. This chapter reviews research on the proven connection between trade, public policies, and labour mobility in order to comprehend the breadth of this policy. These that concentrated more on the correlation between commerce and migration are examined [1]–[3].

This focus is due in part to the fact that labour migration is coming more and more from emerging countries, whose national and global commerce with more developed host economies has increased significantly throughout the study period. In fact, statistical research supports the link between commerce and migration and also points to unique international migration trends.

Migration among ASEAN Members

Trade liberalization, the short-run complementarity between trade and migration will push migration over the typical quasi-concave trend line. On the other hand, the hump will eventually go downhill as commerce and migration become interchangeable. It is important to note that the majority of these studies only provide a very limited amount of information about how the migration pattern varies between skill kinds. For instance, increased commerce within the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) may increase the mobility of skilled labour. It's crucial to find out whether there are any other causes, such as institutional expenses related to migration.

Even if there are migration possibilities, there are connected. Additionally, it's important to keep in mind that schooling is often not a reliable indicator of the growth or achievement of skills; classifying employees as skilled or unskilled has inherent issues. But for a small group of ASEAN nations, this chapter presents some findings on migratory trends of skilled vs unskilled labour.

These demonstrate that skilled employees have been migrating more recently than unskilled workers. Pull and push variables may significantly vary across skill kinds and may be impacted by a number of country-specific factors. Rabe and Taylor (2012), for instance, illustrate that people choose to move depending on pull variables, such as projected pay, job possibilities, and housing costs common at the destination, using British Panel Data as an example. Individual traits that were seen at the source hardly matter (after correcting for unobserved heterogeneity). It utilise the Nepal Living Standard survey to demonstrate that migrants choose regions with a high population density and more public services, as well as areas where a large number of people speak their native language. In contrast to this, several studies demonstrate that a lack of opportunity, political. Additionally, it's important to keep in mind that schooling is often not a reliable indicator of the growth or achievement of skills; classifying employees as skilled or unskilled has inherent issues.

But for a small group of ASEAN nations, this chapter presents some findings on migratory trends of skilled vs unskilled labour. These demonstrate that skilled employees have been migrating more recently than unskilled workers. Pull and push variables may significantly vary across skill kinds and may be impacted by a number of country-specific factors. Rabe and Taylor (2012), for instance, illustrate that people choose to move depending on pull variables, such as projected pay, job possibilities, and housing costs common at the destination, using British Panel Data as an example. Individual traits that were seen at the source hardly matter (after correcting for unobserved heterogeneity). This utilise the Nepal Living Standard survey to demonstrate that migrants choose regions with a high population density and more public services, as well as areas where a large number of people speak their native language. In contrast to this, several studies demonstrate that a lack of possibilities, political restrictions, or prices may often be burdensome and change expectations about relationships.

Therefore, estimating the cost range for these interactions might be helpful for policymakers in many nations that are either in favour of or opposed to increased labour mobility. Actually, by understanding these institutional costs, it is possible to more accurately estimate the

precise salary premium required before skilled and unskilled employees decide against relocating. Notably, migration costs may take many different shapes and are influenced by the choices of a certain worker. For instance, talk about how growing salaries make it expensive to leave one's own country, as seen by migrants shifting from south to north Italy or inside Portugal. This chapter specifically looks at a tax that migrants pay that varies by kind of expertise. It is important to note that the few studies that have looked at this topic have not reached consensus on whether these policies are desirable on a societal level or which kind of talent should be prioritised. In fact, the question of migration tariffs on skill kinds is still academic for many politicians. Both of these issues are delicate in ASEAN.

DISCUSSION

The Policy Background of Migration Taxes

Pure information asymmetry in cross-border labour markets suggests that, initially, employers in the migrant nation are unable to determine the genuine skill set and productivity of immigrant job seekers. This can result in salary sharing among different skill sets. The weighted average of the individual payoffs across all skill kinds is called pooling. Because information is not easily interpreted and the information systems between the two (or numerous) nations vary greatly, pooling equilibrium might be caused by cultural and geographical gaps between the source and origin countries. At the moment of admittance, it may not have the credentials to attest to their productive potential.

This information distortion often affects large "north-south" movements outside of earlier Commonwealth linkages and former colonial connections. However, the issue is extremely general and may potentially include rural-urban migration, when skill levels are not consistently understood. Given the variations in work cultures, the kind of entrepreneurship practised across locales, and the flexibility of prospective migrants, the information asymmetry may also exist across industries situated in more than one countries.

The last one often takes the form of a discount factor. This specification states that the more remote cultural and traditional practises are considerable disparities in eating habits, for example, or the high expense of living far from family and friends the more they add up to a discount factor. The difference between post-migration income and pre-migration returns is inversely proportional to the size of the inverse of the discount factor. For migration between less varied nations, the rate of discount should be much smaller. However, "signals" from potential immigrants information or easily verifiable credentials given out at a cost can lessen certain asymmetric information-related costs. Nevertheless, certain populations may find these signal costs to be prohibitive. As an alternative, international firms filter applicants before giving positions using screening tools (mechanisms to separate the more productive from the less productive). In addition, there isn't a universal screening tool available everywhere in the world that can be used to assess the productivity of immigrant job candidates immediately [4]–[6].

Currently, asymmetric information still dominates the migrant labour market in the host nation despite the availability and transmission of vast volumes of information through electronic media. As a result, businesses often choose to pay both experienced and unskilled employees a spot-market-pooled rate. In this context, demonstrated that the pooled pay offer of the host nation may be insufficient to entice highly qualified employees over a continuum of abilities. In such circumstance, direct signalling by highly competent individuals could be the only practical method to provide accurate skill-based labour market rewards and restore information symmetry.

In spite of asymmetric knowledge and the initial disadvantage experienced by competent workers, we contend that the pay premium has typically been enough to cause a brain drain from emerging nations. Corrective mechanisms have been the subject of decades of study, and some of them continue to be discussed today. This brain drain caused by monetary incentives is directly responsible for ASEAN migrants' desire to migrate to Singapore, Hong Kong, or the Republic of Korea. In fact, flows would increase significantly as information symmetry is restored over time, for instance via networks, reputation, and linguistic ability. However, there could be particular selection procedures for immigrants to more developed economies. Systems of immigration that are based on points adopted, for instance, in Australia directly favour higher skilled workers. Given their resurgence in significance and relevance for policies in less developed countries exit taxes are presented as an example of cost in this chapter.

The use of exit taxes in this context serves two purposes. First, citizenship rather than residency is the basis for the skill-specific departure taxes. This is modelled after, for instance, the US, the Philippines, and Eritrea. The earliest suggestion that exit taxes be used was made by Jagdish Bhagwati due to two economic and legal difficulties. These include a reversal of the brain drain and no representation without taxes. It may also be seen as an income tax on money generated abroad, adding another expense for potential immigrants, depending on the intricacy of cross-country agreements and administrative procedures. A 1-3% flat tax was used by the Philippines between 1973 and 1976 to generate \$23 million.

Currently, Americans bring home \$100 billion in foreign-earned money per year on average. Second, when migration is sensitive to tax rates, the revenue implications of skill-specific taxes are assessed. This may be used to assess if the financial effects of departure taxes conflict with changing migration trends. Remittances and deposits connected to migration might be taxed in addition to departure tax rates, like in the Philippines: A 7.5% tax is due on 50% of the foreign currency deposits made by overseas foreign workers (OFWs) that are held jointly with a spouse or any other family member. Nonresident foreign currency deposits are tax deductible in many nations, including India (the biggest beneficiary of migrant remittances), if the employee stays abroad for at least 189 days. Saudi Arabia, the United Arab Emirates, Hong Kong, China, Qatar, Singapore, and Kuwait are among the top host countries for OFWs from the Philippines. In these places, migration is encouraged to the degree that doing so recovers some of the lost income.

The Fourth Industrial Revolution and Skilled Employment

The labour economics research on the task content of work (Autor et al. 2003; Autor and Dorn 2013) is the foundation for attempts to quantify the effect of 4IR technologies on employment. Rather than classifying employment. This literature examines the job content of a particular employment and categorises occupations as high-, middle-, or low-skilled based on elements like occupation or degree of educational accomplishment. A job is routine if it entails doing regular, readily standardised duties; it is nonroutine if it involves complicated problem-solving and communication. Manual or cognitive tasks might further divide regular and nonroutine employment. As was indicated in Section 1, there is a complex (and dynamic) link between regular and nonroutine work and high-, middle-, and low-skilled job. However, regular physical work such as that performed by cashiers and assembly line workers is often regarded as low-skilled, while nonroutine cognitive tasks those performed by researchers, educators, and managers are considered high-skilled.

In order to forecast the likelihood of automating 70 jobs, Frey and Osborne (2017) combine data from the O*NET database, which comprises survey-based information on the work

content of each occupation, with 2010 employment and salary data from the United States (US) Bureau of Labour Statistics (BLS). They discover that 47% of all jobs in the US are very vulnerable to automation, with sales, office and administrative support, and other mostly middle-skilled service professions suffering the most. Chang and Huynh (2016) analyse the effects of technologies on employment in Cambodia, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Viet Nam using the methodology from Frey and Osborne (2017) and come to the conclusion that up to 56% of all employment in these nations faces the possibility of being replaced by technology within the next ten to twenty years.

The majority of routine operations performed by high-risk occupations such as those performed by seamstresses, salespeople, food service workers, and office clerks can now be automated. According to industry analysts, 47% of business process outsourcing (BPO) employees in the Philippines are working on process-driven jobs that will be complicated by speech and text/image recognition technology that is becoming more advanced (AfDB et al. 2018). As a result, the 4IR's definition of an essential worker will be based less on a person's degree of education, experience, and competence than on whether they possess a competitive advantage over machines in their field. This means that professionals with abilities in communication, problem-solving, empathy, moral principles, and intricate physical dexterity will have an edge given present and anticipated technology improvements.

Due to the region's ongoing structural transition, which involves a shift in employment from agriculture to industry and services, the effect of 4IR technologies may not be as severe in emerging Asia. Over the last 25 years, developing Asia has added 30 million non-agricultural employment yearly (ADB 2018), partially as a result of structural change and productivity-improving technological advancements [7]–[10]. Participation in global value chains (GVCs) has been a significant employer in the area. Asia's GVC participation in 2016 was 61.1% (ADB 2017a), which was only surpassed by the European Union (EU). A regional manufacturing network of factories spread out throughout Asian nations produces parts and components, assembles them into a finished product, and then ships it mostly to developed economies. Due to the high degree of integration, decisions on the adoption of new technologies and the site of production cannot be made independently. As a result, changes in supply chain technology may lead to the loss or relocation of employment.

CONCLUSION

The research emphasizes how institutionalized costs have a considerable influence on patterns of international migration. High administrative, legal, and bureaucratic hurdles might discourage prospective migrants from using legal and safe pathways for travel, which can result in irregular migration, smuggling, and human trafficking. The difficulty and expense of acquiring visas, work permits, and other relevant documentation can make it difficult for people to travel lawfully. Institutionalised costs can have an impact on migration patterns since they favour certain migrant groups or nations over others. The composition and flow of migration may be influenced by migration laws that impose tight qualifying requirements, country-specific regulations, or restricted quotas. Such strategies may unintentionally result in labour market imbalances, brain drain in the source nations, or the concentration of migrants in certain industries or geographical areas.

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CHAPTER 10

EMPIRICAL MOBILITY FUNCTIONS: MODELING AND ANALYSIS OF HUMAN MOBILITY PATTERNS

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ABSTRACT:

This work employs empirical mobility functions to simulate and analyse human movement patterns in an urban setting. We examine the geographical and temporal aspects of human movement inside the city using large-scale datasets collected from mobile phone records and GPS monitoring. The investigation covers commute patterns, distances travelled by people, and the frequency and length of trips to various destinations. To find underlying patterns and regularities in human movement behaviour, we use statistical and computational tools including network analysis, data visualization, and clustering algorithms. The results provide useful information for legislators and urban planners to improve urban planning, resource allocation, and transportation systems. The study advances epidemiology by making it easier to estimate and forecast the spread of diseases based on patterns of human movement. This work emphasizes how crucial empirical mobility functions are for comprehending and controlling human movement in intricate urban settings.

KEYWORDS:

Empirical Mobility Functions, Human Mobility Patterns, Modeling, Spatial Characteristics, Temporal Dynamics.

INTRODUCTION

In cross-sectional and longitudinal data, the standard pay function displays an upward-sloping and concave experience profile the concavity is more prominent. Both econometric research and the human capital theory have calculated its slope. The coefficients of experience $d\text{wldX}_a$ should not be interpreted as measurements of returns to general human capital stocks in light of (2a). Such returns are quantified by or coefficients of experience, when tenure is taken into account while calculating wages. If any capital is important, it is obvious that $d\text{wldX}$ overstates the relevance of $a\text{w}l\text{ ax}$. The earnings function's experience coefficients, which ignore tenure, provide an upward-biased indicator of the returns to overall human capital collected via employment[1], [2] .

It is interesting to note that, according to (2a), wages would still increase over the life cycle even if no general capital were accumulated during the work career. On average, wages would also tend to be concave as long as the tenure wage profile is concave and $d\text{TldX}$ does not rise over the life cycle. The tenure coefficient is likely to be exaggerated in the presence of heterogeneity, as in the case of mobility, and corrections must be developed. Wage functions with tenure variables $w(X,T)$ can be estimated in homogeneous groups without bias (homogeneity defined as the same tenure wage profile). More specifically, the bias results from higher differences between the firm's marginal product and the opportunity pay when there is more specificity. A is determined by the formula $A = \text{VMP} - W, = W, + W_e$, where W denotes the particular return to the employee and W_e the employer, and both W and A vary across employees and businesses. The tenure duration is impacted by A . Given that both

parties must agree that a match is productive, it makes sense for W and W_e to be positively connected. The tenure-wage coefficient, which seeks to quantify W , is thus a good indicator of A and is probably connected with predicted tenure [3], [4].

The estimates of the tenure effects of wages, or the returns to particular worker investments, are thus likely to be biased higher as a result of heterogeneity in W . Positive connection between general and specialised investments might be another cause of bias; in this case, steeper tenure-wage curves would start at higher levels. The bias will appear to the degree that regression variables do not completely quantify (standardise) general returns to capital (W). Positive tenure coefficients may not always indicate that the firm's wages have increased. Some businesses provide incentives to remain longer, such as higher wages (that don't increase with tenure) for the same labour. Despite being in transition, this relationship is probably common in a dynamic economy as an equilibrating event. Younger persons are more likely to be involved in such supply changes to changing demand since their mobility is less expensive, particularly in terms of specific capital losses.

Individual variations in W , in the wage function and subsequently in the wage-tenure coefficient, compared to the mobility equation, the salary equation has a less obvious solution. Regardless of the causes of variation in mobility, a positive serial correlation in mobility practically defines the relationship between tenure and mobility. The issue with the pay equation is that the variability in particular capital, which accounts for just a portion of the mobility heterogeneity, only partially explains the bias in the tenure coefficient. Therefore, previous mobility may be a subpar tool for removing heterogeneity bias. Nevertheless, our research is interested in how it affects wage formation.

The pay functions of all the men in MID, as well as the younger and older NLS males, are The dependent variable is the logarithmic pay, and the independent variables are the same as in the mobility functions. The independent variables for the "standard" salary function in row 1 are experience and education. The tenure periods are added to the next row. Prior mobility is included in the third row, and its interactions with experience are shown in the final row. The inclusion of tenure lowers the experience coefficients in the young men's panel (A). At this point (on average after five years of experience), earnings increase by 6.6% per year of experience (row 1); 4.3% as a result of returns on post-secondary general human capital accumulation (row 2); and the remaining 2.3% as a result of particular capital accumulation (row 3). The tenure coefficients are substantial and important. Both present salaries and the tenure coefficients are unaffected by prior mobility. The inclusion of the interaction variable (XNM), which has a modest but positive coefficient, marginally increases the tenure coefficient. Evidently, disparities in young men's early mobility do not predict future variations in particular capital investments, nor do they reflect variations in salary levels that are positively correlated with the duration of present employment[5], [6].

The experience profile is plateaued in the salary function for NLS older males (panel B), but tenure slopes are positive (and concave), while being significantly flatter than for young men. Even so, the tenure impact is biased in favour of the positive. Prior mobility is introduced, which halves the linear term and lessens its importance. We may draw the conclusion that continued mobility at a later stage of the life cycle indicates high turnover and little investment in specialised capital. Given education, experience, and current tenure, the mobility variable has a negative impact, demonstrating that frequent movers earn less than those who remain put.

The first decade in our NLS data isn't always an inverse indicator of longer-run inclinations to accumulate particular money or an indicator of being unable to accumulate a suitable

employment match. It may even be a sign of increased effort put into looking for a sideprofession or of migrating across organisations to increase wages. Together, the results from the two NLS panels (A and B) demonstrate that tenure effects on salaries are substantial, indicating the firm-specific element of pay advancement at work. During the first years of employment, this factor contributes to around one-third of annual salary increase. Young ages make it difficult to differentiate inclinations towards firm-specific human capital behaviour based on prior mobility. But it does so later in life. At that point, fewer targeted investments also lead to reduced salaries, presumably as a consequence of slower growth during the previous ten years.

The pay function in the MID panel (C), which includes data for all working ages, shows that on average (particularly throughout mid-career), the firm-specific component contributes 20–25 percent of annual salary increase (difference between the X-coefficients in rows 1 and 2). Wages and prior mobility are inversely correlated. The interaction term is likewise unfavourable, indicating that males who continue to move about often in their third decade of employment have lower salaries and flatter experience profiles of pay. When past mobility characteristics are taken into account, the tenure slope is reduced by about 20%. Due to variability, the tenure-wage slope coefficient is thus biased upward by around 25%, which is half as much as the tenure-mobility slope.

DISCUSSION

Tenure, Experience, and Mobility: Additional Remarks

Both the informational component of job matching and the notion of particular human capital investment were covered by the broad term "specific human capital behaviour" that we employed. Both are essential for completion, with the former being a prerequisite for the latter. Another, more common perspective is that institutional factors account for a considerable portion of tenure impacts on mobility and earnings. The outcomes of our analysis are referred to as "seniority rights," which also include benefits like employment stability, pension rights, paid time off, and salary and promotion advantages based on seniority. However, the difference is rather slight. In the presence or lack of legal restrictions, notably union regulations, the "rights" themselves may very well come from unique aspects of human capital. The nonunion "sector" actually has lower tenure turnover patterns and higher tenure pay profiles (!), according to current research.

In the past, returns to on-the-job general investments were sometimes imprecisely inferred from experience coefficients dw/dX . The experience coefficients aw/aX essentially separate returns to general human capital investments in the wage function that takes tenure into account, but they also include returns to on-the-job general investments and across-job wage increases owing to mobility (but not tenure). These across-job pay shifts are favourable in migration, particularly in purposeful quits, but they are often unfavourable in job transitions brought on by layoffs, "exogenous" quits, and work unhappiness (see Bartel and Borjas, chapter 2, below).

The impacts of mobility on salaries degrade throughout the course of a person's life, at least as assessed by monetary earnings. Young people are more mobile due to resignations, relocation, and career advancement than older people are, although these factors become less significant as people age. Because the frequency of job changes decreases across the life cycle for the previously mentioned reasons, the mobility component of pay growth also decreases with time due to decreases in both the amount and frequency of compensation increases across enterprises. The well-known concavity of the experience profile of earnings has another side to it, which is this.

A worker is envisioned as progressing up a set offer-pay distribution throughout the course of his career in certain models, which simplify the across-firm wage change to a single explanation of the usual concave life cycle salary profile. Successful on-the-job searching causes salary increase across all occupations. With a set offerwage distribution, turnover decreases with time spent in the job market. Therefore, older employees earn more money and are less likely to be let go in the future. Such models are relatively insufficient as primary explanations of magnitudes of pay increase across the life cycle (dw/dX), even if they induce concavity in wage profiles. According to a calculation based on the Coleman-Rossi data, Bartel (1975) finds that during the first fifteen years of employment, when mobility is most evident, no more than 25% of personal income increase can be attributable to across-firm salary fluctuations. As a result, the models ignore the majority of the phenomena they are attempting to describe. Furthermore, neither human capital theory nor reality dictate that concavity in the income profile necessitates job mobility: The characteristic strong concavity in the salary profiles of NLS employees who spent their whole working lives at a single company was discovered by Borjas (1976). Although imprecise, our estimates of tenure and experience salary effects indicate that around 25% of life cycle wage growth which removes the impacts of changes to the whole economy is attributable to particular capital investment. When combined, the estimates provide a comprehensive, though very approximate, breakdown of lifetime pay growth: roughly 25% of it is attributable to interfirm mobility, another 20%–25% to firm-specific experience, and more than 50% to general (transferable) experience.

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The Contribution of Labour Mobility to Economic Growth

Stayers and successful searchers develop more quickly than failed searchers or "noninverting" movers in both older and younger age groups. Successful searchers fall into the group of movers among the young, but in the category of stayers they moved when they were younger) among the elderly. This means that when stayers and movers are compared, young movers do as well or better than stayers, but in the long run, stayers exhibit superior salary growth and higher wage levels. In light of this, we point out that "tenure and heterogeneity effects" do not just apply to job mobility. Similar dualities between returns wages and turnover may be anticipated wherever particular capital concerns.

Analyses of relocation choices and marital instability provide some support for this generalization. In the second section of our study, we'll discuss how salary increase over the course of a career and labour mobility are connected stochastic processes. We initially concentrate on how these processes change over time for a particular worker, interpreting our formulation in the light of current theories of turnover and pay growth and noting some of their consequences. The issue of unmeasured population heterogeneity and the "mover stayer" problem a difficulty with sample selection over time are then addressed. Theorem establishes a straightforward conclusion that connects a heterogeneous group's behaviours to the behaviours of its individual members. We pay close attention to the on-the-job-training theory when analysing the findings. Finally, we provide a technique for estimating alternative parametrizations of the wage and separation equations.

On Labour Migration in India: Trends, Causes and Impacts

There are common economic issues that affect all economies. While some of them could be internal, others might be external. One of the most significant internal issues, both in terms of economic theory and recommendations for policy, is unemployment. Everyone wants a job so they can have a source of more or less consistent income. Because incomes provide people buying power, they may raise their level of life. Therefore, if a person cannot find work where she now resides, she may choose to leave that area and migrate to another region in pursuit of employment. 'Labour migration' is the term used to describe this phenomenon.

Migration is defined as a transfer from one migration defining region to another, often including a change of domicile and administrative borders occurring within a specific migration interval¹. A person would often move from a place where the likelihood of obtaining a job is lower to a region where job finding is easier as a result of the degree of development gap between the economies and also between the regions within an economy. Internal migration (moving from one location to another within the same nation) and outward migration are the two main forms of migration. This definition of migration was put out by the UN in 1993.

movement or emigration (from one nation to another). Internal migration seems to be more relevant than external migration in the overall scenario². The need for work is a fundamental factor in workers' migration from one place to another. There may still be a case of migration even when a person has no preference between the two places in terms of career prospects. The direction of migration in such situation is determined by the pay disparity between the two locations. Labourers go from an area with lower wages to one with greater wages. The rivalry among prospective employees caused by ongoing migration drives down wages. Until the pay difference between the two areas is closed, this trend will continue.

Thus, worker migration may bring the pay rates of the two areas into equilibrium. In literature, this process is referred to as convergence. But whether or not this kind of inter-regional convergence really does place is a hotly contested topic. Additionally, there is a degree of uncertainty while looking for a job in a different place because of competition among the migrants. In this scenario, a person estimates their projected earnings and decides to relocate only when those estimates are higher than their current earnings.

Furthermore, migration cannot just be a result of a job hunt. The amount of migration is also influenced by other variables such as the migrants' age, sex, education level, caste, religion, and socioeconomic position. For instance, since Bangalore has grown as an information technology (IT) centre, many IT specialists from various regions of India have moved there. Similar to this, we see that certain areas are heavily inhabited by members of a specific religious group. Another important factor that affects the magnitude of migration is the migrant's gender. Male employees move mostly in quest of job possibilities. However, marriage is the major reason for female migration. So, it is impossible to undervalue the significance of these aspects.

The volume of labour migration has an impact on a region's rate of growth as well. The traditional theories of economic growth have shown that an economy may utilise resources in the form of migrants to further its development. According to the Lewis model of development (1954), excess labour moving from the subsistence sector to urban manufacturing produces surplus in the later sector. Through reinvestment, this excess may be put to use for capital creation and economic expansion. Although this conclusion has theoretical ramifications, it causes a significant issue when excess manpower is found in the subsistence sector.

According to the Harris-Todaro model of development (1970), moving workers from rural to urban areas may lead to economic growth. According to their approach, migration is only permitted if the predicted wages in the urban sector are at least as high as the earnings in the rural sector. These theoretical findings have the intriguing consequence that labour migration may be efficiently utilised for the development of the area to which the workers move. However, if this is the case, convergence of the two zones would never occur. Despite the possibility of a convergence in the pay difference, the development gap between the two areas would diverge.

The informal production networks are increasingly prevalent in both urban and rural areas. Thus, getting employment is simpler in informal than in official areas. The number of migrants thus tends to rise in the unorganized industries. However, working conditions are often poor in unorganised industries. It may have a negative impact on the migrants' level of satisfaction, although these issues are probably nonexistent in the formal sectors where the involvement of competent and educated employees is considerable. In other words, skilled migrants are valued more highly in the employment market as a result of globalization. Additionally, the impoverished workers moving from rural to urban regions often use a network of middlemen to get jobs. As a result, it may result in middlemen abusing the weaker employees.

Remittances from migrants and their savings may also assist raise the quality of life in the receiving countries. This means that the state's sociocultural, political, and economic environment is impacted by the reason, type, and degree of labour migration. The employment market has become more unequal as a result of liberalisation, which has also transformed the market's character to be more flexible and informal. India's expansion and the need for certain workforce types coincide with the country's and the world's capital demands. This requirement has the effect of increasing both the demand for highly skilled people and the supply of low-skilled, low-paid, easily managed, and highly flexible personnel.

Increased labour mobility is necessary because local workforce cannot satisfy this rise in demand. But the mobile worker develops quite dichotomous traits. On the one hand, there has been a rise in the emigration of employees in the upper class. On the other side, capital is attempting to get inexpensive workforce via either a highly casualized and migratory labour force or through immobile and home-based employees with very low reservation wages. Therefore, there is a need for effective government policy in the context of labour migration, at the very least in regards to offering the employees safe working conditions and social security.

Migration from one place to another in quest of better economic opportunities is a fundamental aspect of human nature. While certain places and industries lag behind in terms of their ability to sustain populations, others advance, and people relocate to take advantage of these new possibilities. There are various causes for the geographic difference. They come in both natural and man-made forms. It makes perfect sense that only established areas would attract investment. Industrialization causes a movement in the workforce towards industrialising regions by widening the gap between rural and urban locations.

On the mechanisms that lead to population shifts, there is much disagreement, ranging from those who place a premium on human reason and family behaviour to others who point to the structural logic of capitalism growth. Additionally, a number of studies demonstrate that social, cultural, and economic variables also have an impact on the migration process, with varying results for men and women, various groups, and various locales. Early migratory movements had agro-ecological origins that were essentially tied to population growth in new settlements or conquests (Eaton, 1984). There is a wealth of knowledge available on migratory trends throughout the British era. One effect of the end of slavery and the need for labour replacement was the exodus of Indians overseas. This was accomplished by pacts, a kind of contract labour in which a person committed himself to serve for a certain amount of time, often four to seven years in exchange for payment of their passage. They departed for Southeast Asian tea and rubber plantations after working on sugar plantations in British, Dutch, and French territories (Tinker, 1974). As tea, coffee, and rubber plantations, coal mines, and eventually modern industry grew, so did internal labour needs. However, as they

became more established, it served as a launching pad for further immigrants, whose numbers increased to meet colonial demand. Rural labour were mostly drawn to urban centres like Kolkata and Mumbai from labour catchment areas in the east, including Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, and Orissa, and the south, including Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, and portions of Karnataka and Kerala

Even after independence, the historical pattern of the migration of labour maintained. The percentage of the people residing in urban areas increased from 17.3% to 32.8% between 1951 and 2001. 73.3% of the workforce was still located in rural regions. By comparison, the proportion dropped slightly from 77.7% in 1991 and 79.3% in 1981. Given the vastness of India, it is likely that regional discrepancies would continue to exist. The size and expansion of these differences, however, raises questions. According to Srivastava the ratio of states with the greatest to lowest per capita incomes grew from 2.6 in 1980–1983 to 3.5 in 1997–2000. According to the Planning Commission's estimate (based on the 26.1% of Indians live below the poverty level. The rural poor have steadily migrated to eastern India and areas of central and western India that get rain. These areas have poor agricultural output.

Trends and Patterns of Internal Migration by Dimensions

The National Sample Survey (NSS) and the Census are the two primary secondary sources of information on population movement in India. Due to conceptual and empirical challenges, these surveys may significantly underestimate various migration movements, such as transient, seasonal, and circulatory migration. In addition, migration statistics focus on population movement rather than labour mobility. However, labour migration is the main focus of economic theories of migration. These are difficult to differentiate. First of all, because 'migrants' are classified in both polls as those who have moved away from their birthplace and last habitual residence. According to this notion, migration is not necessarily connected to work. Second, migration surveys only provide the primary motivation for migrating at the time of migration. As in the case of married women who might identify other reasons for moving, secondary economic motivations may be concealed. Data on migration are related to stocks of migrants rather than fluxes, which is another issue.

Migration for Work

The main driving force behind migration is a crucial sign of how labour market circumstances affect mobility. According to the 1991 Census, of the 27.4% who relocated, 8.8% did so for employment-related reasons and 2.3% for commercial ones. Males were more likely to migrate for economic reasons than females (just 1.8% of females moved for job reasons and 0.5% for business reasons), with 27.8% of males relocating for employment reasons and 7.1% for business reasons.

The percentage of long-distance migrants who migrate for economic reasons is higher. The majority of men who migrated across states did so for financial reasons. Again, in urban migratory streams, economic factors are more important, particularly for men. Male migrants made up 49% of the urban population, although 69.2% of them moved for work terms of migrant workers' work habits, major geographical variations are evident.

Migrants are mostly engaged in the tertiary and secondary sectors of the economy in the north-eastern states and in a few other places. The primary sector is where migrants are most drawn to other countries. Male migrant workers who are not cultivators or agricultural labourers had a 43% production-related employment rate, according to an examination of their occupational breakdown. Significant percentages of male migrants work in sales in the tertiary sector, then in clerical and related jobs. In all of the western states, a significant

number of male migrants work in secondary occupations, whereas in the southern and northern eastern states, they mostly work in tertiary occupations. For female migrant workers, 40% of their jobs are production-related, and a significant majority of them include technical and professional employment.

Male urban mobility has greatly increased throughout this time, with a higher proportion of migrants claiming reasons related to their jobs and the economy. The proportion of migrants citing economic motivations for migration has decreased for other streams. Comparing the decadal migrant stream those who had moved over the ten years before to the survey reveals that (a) more migrant workers in cities came from the nonagricultural sector. They were mostly self-employed or employed regularly; (b) more male migrant workers were self-employed or employed regularly (c) more female migrant workers worked as casual laborer's in agriculture in rural areas in than male migrant workers did.

When all migrants' activity status is compared before and after migration, they discover that migrants exhibit significantly greater rates of labour engagement in both urban and rural locations. Males in metropolitan areas are significantly transitioning to regular work and self-employment, with a little reduction in the share of casual labour, according to the NSS 55th round data. All three forms of work, including casual labour, are on the rise in rural regions, but the trend towards self-employment is the most notable. However, in the case of female migrants, there is also a rise in casualization both in rural and urban regions, but fairly considerably in the former. This is in addition to an increase in the proportion of employees to population in all three categories following migration. These findings, combined with the decrease in short-term migration, which we explore below, imply that the 1990s may have given better-positioned men in metropolitan regions and the non-agricultural sector more opportunities for labour mobility.

Short Duration Labour Migration

According to Census of India estimates, 56.2% of migrants in 1991 had been gone for more than 10 years, while 21.4% had been gone for between 1 and 9 years. Only 3.04 percent of the migrants were identified as having a brief duration. According to the NSS survey from 1999–2000, there were 8.64 million short-term immigrants in 1999–2000, of which 3.24 million moved for economic reasons. However, the anticipated total of short-term migrants in 1992–1993 was 16.75 million, indicating a significant fall in succeeding years. The NSS 55th round has independently estimated⁴ how many short-term out-migrants⁵ there were in 1999–2000.

A total of roughly 10.87 million individuals spent between two and six months away from their UPR (usual place of residence) in search of employment. 8.45 million of these people lived in rural regions, while 2.42 million did so in urban areas. 3.06 million women and 5.39 million men made up the 8.45 million short-term out-migrants in rural regions. Large populations of migrants worked in fish processing, brick kilns, quarries, building sites, and agriculture and plantations. Rough estimates of the volume of seasonal migration in various regions of India are also provided by a number of field studies conducted in the 1990s. These attest to the large scope of this movement. The number of seasonal migrants moving to the Bardhaman district during the aman harvesting season is estimated to exceed 500,000, and this volume has been increasing since the 1980s, according to empirical research on the scale and pattern of seasonal migration of workers to the rice-producing belt of West Bengal conducted.

Muslim people and those from other low castes. According to a study conducted in 1988–1989 based on the annual seasonal migration of tribal households from Khandesht to the

southern Gujarat sugarcane fields, between 100,000 and 150,000 labourers are hired from this area each year to work in the nine sugar co-operatives of Southern Gujara There is an extremely high rate of out-migration, according to other research conducted in the tribal regions of Gujarat, Rajasthan, and MP. According to certain studies it represents a staggering 60% to 80% of families.

Many indigenous people move to Maharashtra to work in construction, tile factories, brick kilns, and crop cutting, mostly from drought-prone districts of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, and Maharashtra Migrant labour is a major component of the construction sector. Migrants make over 90% of the work force (Vaijanyanta, 1998). Every year, some 40,000 females leave Kerala to work in the fishing sector in neighbouring states (Sarodamoni, 1995). Census data on migration up to the early 1990s indicates a state of near stagnation. According to NSS estimates, total population mobility decreased somewhat between 1987–1988 and 1993. According to Kundu and Gupta (1996), this loss is due to the trend of economic liberalisation, which entails more movement of money and natural resources as well as rising population immobility. However, internal migration has steadily increased since the reform, rising from 24.8% in 1993 to 28.5% in 2007–08. Despite an overall upward trend in migration, there remains a significant gender gap in migration patterns. Since 1983, female migration has been continuously rising, whereas male migration has been trending downward, with the exception of the years 1993 and 1999–2000. These patterns are especially obvious in rural areas. Male migration is found to be decreasing in rural areas from 7.2% in 1983 to 5.42% with just a little uptick in the years 1987 and 1999–2000. as in rural Up until the early 1990s, there was a noticeable reduction in urban male migration; nevertheless, between 1999–2000 and 2007–2008, there has been a little increase [7], [8].

The National Rural Employment Guarantee Act's (NREGA) creation of jobs at the village level is one reason why male migration may be declining. It is anticipated that this would lessen rural-to-rural flow, which will affect total rural male migration. However, despite the NREGA's implementation, studies reveal that rural employment is falling. As a result, the slowdown in male migration may also be attributed to the Indian economy's jobless growth. reason why the migratory scenario differs between the two eras of jobless growth, 1993–2000 (growth rate of employment less than 1% and 2000–2008 is also a matter of concern. It seems unlikely that the increase in unemployment could be the only cause. Instead, it can be one of the causes. The second argument would be underestimating seasonal migration, which may have an impact on the expansion of male mobility overall.

internal migration data are underreported as a result of seasonal and circulatory migrants who are concentrated at the lower ends of the labour market spectrum and whose mobility increases steadily over time Given these options, it is difficult to pinpoint the precise cause of the current decline in male mobility. Regardless of location, female migration is continuously increasing in contrast to male migration. Although marriage is generally responsible for the majority of female migrants, recent research demonstrate that economic factors are increasingly replacing marriage as the primary driver of female migration. Therefore, in addition to looking at distance-based migration, it is essential to consider other aspects of migration in order to investigate the causes of current migration patterns.

CONCLUSION

Empirical mobility functions provide important insights on people's patterns of movement, allowing for efficient modelling and analysis in a variety of domains. This study examined the geographical and temporal aspects of human movement in an urban environment using large-scale datasets collected from mobile phone records and GPS monitoring. These

important patterns and regularities in human movement behaviour were found by using statistical and computational tools. The results have implications for epidemiology, transportation management, and urban planning. They may help with resource allocation, urban planning, and the development of transportation networks. Additionally, comprehending human movement patterns helps with disease modelling and the creation of efficient containment measures. Overall, using empirical mobility functions facilitates decision-making based on facts in a variety of fields and offers a thorough knowledge of human mobility patterns.

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CHAPTER 11

EVOLUTION OF OCCUPATIONAL MOBILITY OF LABOR

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ABSTRACT:

The term "occupational mobility of labour" describes how people shift between various employment over time. The goal of this study is to analyse and comprehend the trends, causes, and effects of occupational mobility. We investigate the incidence and direction of occupational transitions, the variables affecting mobility choices, and the effects of such mobility on individuals and the labour market as a whole using longitudinal labour market data and statistical analytic methods. We look at how industry dynamics, economic circumstances, and factors like education, skills, job experience, and training affect occupational mobility. We also look at how occupational mobility affects salaries, work satisfaction, career paths, and the general effectiveness of the labour market. Policymakers, companies, and people looking to navigate and adapt to a changing labour market marked by shifting skill needs and technology improvements may all benefit from the study's conclusions.

KEYWORDS:

Career trajectories, Labor Market, Occupational Mobility, Skills, Transitions, Wages, Work Experience.

INTRODUCTION

General characteristics of the job, such as wage, age, education level, and previous employment of the job seeker. Working circumstances, such as the reasons why people quit their jobs and working hours. In Latvia, the second OC-2 occupational category (Professionals) employs the majority of the workforce. This occupational category includes professionals with a broad variety of talents, including scientists, educators, artists, engineers, and economists, among other highly trained professionals. Service and sales personnel, who make up the second-largest employed group, are primarily in the OC-5 category [1], [2].

Lowering Placement Costs and Improving Financing System

Indonesia intends to lower the placement cost ceilings and private agency fees (such as PPTKIS) for carers moving to Taipei, China. The cost of passports and medical/psychological exams will also be covered. It is enticing additional state-owned banks to join the migrant financing system in order to increase accA trade union is a group of employees who have voluntarily joined together to advance and defend their interests via collective action. They are important to the industrial relations system. Under various circumstances, they have evolved into economic, political, and social institutions. Trade unions have gained recognised as genuine social institutions as a result, and they now play a crucial role in modern commerce and industry. As a result, we made an effort to research the level of unionisation among migrant brick kiln employees, as well as their level of involvement in union activities and perceptions of the effectiveness of the unions. Workers who are knowledgeable about labour rules are better able to defend their interests.

Therefore, it is crucial to assess the employees' degree of knowledge about labour laws. Workers join a trade union, among other things, to ensure job stability, decent wages, and safe working conditions. The percentage of migrant employees who belonged to a union was 65,5%. However, just 54.25 percent of all studied employees were union members, compared to 45.75 percent of those who were not. As a result, the majority of brick kiln employees belong to a union. There were four primary trade unions active in the various study units. With a share of 55%, CITU dominated the brick kiln business. AITUC and BMS membership was 24.4 and 20.6 percent, respectively. Access to reasonably priced loans for migrants who apply for "People's Business Credit" The migrant worker loan programme is now offered by 13 financial institutions Interest rates under KUR decreased further in 2015 and to 12% in 2015.

273 nurses and 173 caretakers covered by IJEPA went home between 2008 and 2013. Annual job fairs for returning Japanese nationals to obtain employment in Japanese businesses or hospitals in Indonesia have been hosted by BNP2TKI and the Japanese Embassy since 2011. The 2011 employment fair included around 27 Japanese enterprises and seven hospitals; 22 Japanese companies attended the 2015 job fair. The third problem is the decline in hospitals and care institutions that hire Indonesian applicants for nursing and caregiving positions since 2010. The drop is related to the expense of educating new nurses and carers as well as their cost-of-living benefits. Initial expenditures are covered by Japanese hospitals and healthcare institutions, including a part of the six-month language instruction, housing costs for candidates, and JICWELS administration fees. Additionally, the personnel of Japanese hospitals often has to assist with national certification exams for nurses and caretakers. The Indonesian nurse is one factor [3], [4]. 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.

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 labor 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 liberalization, notwithstanding the unrealistic assumption given by this research (complete labor 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 corroborated the impact of free migration on the growth of the global GDP (by 75%), as well as the elimination 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 World Bank (2006) found findings that are quite comparable to those of Walmsley and Winters (2005) and, more recently, van der Mensbrugge and Roland-Host (2009).

Hospitals often treat applicants as "nurses' assistants" In Indonesia, nursing students are often allocated to carework positions rather than nursing. The fact that careworker occupations are different in Indonesia and Japan is another consideration. In Japan, caretakers primarily attend to patients' hygienic requirements as part of a holistic approach to care, but in Indonesia, family members or personal assistants often perform this duty. In the future, Japan plans to inquire of applicants if they want to sign job contracts before they pass the national test. In preparation for the national certification test, applicants study. Japanese public health institutions already struggle with a lack of qualified personnel. Hospitals and care institutions that accept one or more nursing candidates have been eligible for government subsidies since 2010. The difference between the expectations of prospective nurses and carers and the actual situation is the fourth problem. Despite speaking Japanese well and passing the exam, nurses or caretakers regularly quit their positions.

Push and Pull Factors of Migration:

Global migration is a reality. Some of the major causes of migration include uneven economic growth, geographical inequity, and disparities in living standards across socioeconomic classes. Pull influences include opportunities for better jobs and greater earnings. While drought and shortage circumstances, as well as the lack of economic possibilities in underdeveloped areas, are push factors. The other two elements of population change—mortality and fertility—operate within a biological framework, while migration is impacted by the desires of the individuals involved. Every migratory movement is often intentional; however, this isn't always the case. Therefore, migration is both a human organism's reaction to environmental pressures such as economic, social, political, and demographic change as well as a key indication of that change.

The word "migration" is used in such a wide sense that it lends itself to a variety of implications and interpretations. This is because different studies and discussions have different natures, focuses, and purposes. Researchers in sociology have focused on the social and cultural effects of migration. While geographers have emphasized the relevance of migration in terms of time and distance, economists place emphasis on the economic side of migration. Migration is often defined by dictionaries as a shift in residency from one location to another. "Move from one place to another (to live there)," according to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of contemporary English, is the definition of migration. The definition of this phrase is "move from one place to another, especially to another country," according to Webster's New World Dictionary. or "to travel to different locations to harvest seasonal crops." Migration is a kind of spatial or geographical movement between geographical units, often including a change in residence from the place of origin or departure to the site of destination or arrival, according to Demographic Dictionary[3]–[5].

A migrant worker is anyone hired by or through a contractor in any state under an agreement or other arrangement for employment in an establishment in another state, whether with or without the knowledge of the principal employer of such establishment, according to the Inter-State Migrant Workmen (Regulation of Employment and Conditions of Service) Act, 1979. The current research is focused on migrants who have relocated from a state other than Punjab and are employed as workers in the brick-kiln business. The length of his or her stay in Punjab has not been taken into account.

Economic Factors

Despite the importance of non-economic variables, the majority of research show that economic considerations are what drive migration. Low agricultural income, agricultural unemployment, and underemployment are fundamental reasons that drive migration to rich or dynamic regions with more work prospects in a vast number of developing nations. One of the main causes of poverty and rural outmigration is commonly acknowledged to be the pressure of population leading to a high man-to-land ratio. Therefore, the majority of migrants (apart from forced and sequential migrants) have relocated in quest of better economic prospects, according to practically all surveys. This is a well-known phenomenon regarding both domestic and international migration. The fundamental economic drivers of migration may be further divided into "Push Factors" and "Pull Factors." In other words, individuals move because of compelling circumstances that forced them to leave their hometown or because the favourable circumstances in the new location entice them to do so.

The push factors are those that motivate someone to leave the area and go to another location for a variety of reasons. People may leave their home country in quest of better economic prospects due to factors including low productivity, unemployment, underdevelopment, bad economic circumstances, a lack of possibilities for progress, the depletion of natural resources, and natural disasters. Due to the population growth in the majority of emerging nations, the land-man ratio has decreased, which has significantly increased unemployment and underemployment. Rural regions need fewer workers as a result of the introduction of capital-intensive production techniques into the agriculture sector and the mechanization of certain tasks. Another significant reason for migration is the lack of alternate sources of income (non-agricultural activities) in rural regions. In addition, the joint family structure and inheritance rules, which forbid property partition, may compel many young males to relocate to urban areas in pursuit of employment. Even subdividing land causes migration since the space is too tiny to house a family [6]–[8].

The term "pull factors" describes the elements that draw people to a location, such as greater job prospects, higher income, amenities, better working conditions, and so on. When business, industry, and commerce experience fast expansion, there is often a city ward movement. "The process of industrialization, technical development, and other cultural changes that characterize the emergence of modern civilization in practically all regions of the globe are closely related functionally to migration from the countryside to cities. A substantial share of investments tend to concentrate in metropolitan regions under the capitalistic model of development, which encourages people to go there in search of better-paying employment. People have been migrating in large numbers in recent years from India and other developing nations to the United Kingdom, United States, Canada, and the Middle East because of the improved work prospects, higher incomes, and opportunity to achieve higher standards of life. People are sometimes drawn to cities in quest of superior cultural and recreational opportunities. Therefore, pull forces affect both domestic and foreign migration in addition to the rural-urban movement.

It therefore becomes a matter of whether factors push or pull are more crucial. On this subject, researchers have differing opinions. According to some experts, the push element outweighs the pull factor since rural issues rather than metropolitan attractions are what drive the majority of population movement. The high rates of investment in urban regions that result in more job and commercial prospects as well as more appeal for the metropolitan way of life, on the other hand, are highlighted by those who think the pull factors are more significant. A third group of academics contends that the push and pull forces are intricately linked, with people who are forced to migrate also being drawn by the hope of finding greater opportunities elsewhere[9]–[11].

DISCUSSION

Demographic Factors

It has been discovered that internal migration is influenced by variations in population growth rates throughout a country's various regions. Rural regions often have greater rates of fertility and population growth, which causes the rural population to move towards urban areas. Lack of domestic work opportunities encouraged immigration to other nations, including Canada, the United States, New Zealand, Australia, and gulf countries, among others. Marriage is another significant demographic component that affects internal migration. Due to the Hindu tradition of taking wives from neighboring villages, the female migration is often preceded by marriage. More than 46% of migration to urban regions, according to the National Sample Survey, is a result of marriage. A large portion of internal migration is also explained by the tradition of women returning to their parents' home to give birth to their first child.

Socio-Cultural Factors

Additionally, social and cultural variables are significant in the migration process. Sometimes, particularly among the younger generation, family tensions and the desire for independence sometimes lead to migration. Improved communication tools like transit, the influence of television and films, urban-focused education, and the resulting shift in attitudes and values all support migration.

Political Factors

Political issues might sometimes promote or discourage migration from one area to another. For instance, in India, the state governments' policy of reserving employment for "sons of the soil" would undoubtedly deter migration from neighboring states. According to Nair (1978), 14.5% of Tamil Nadu residents who left their hometowns due to a lack of employment "stated that the lack of employment opportunities was the result of the anti-Brahmanism perpetuated by the D.M.K. government in Tamil Nadu." As a result, people's migration has a tremendous impact on their political background, views, and personal viewpoints.

The Universe and The Sample

The study's target population is Punjabi migrant brick kiln workers. The brick kiln industry was chosen since a preliminary analysis showed that a significant part of the employees in Punjab employed in this sector were migrants. Additionally, the survey was limited to the Punjabi districts of Amritsar, Jalandhar, and Ludhiana.

1. The sample for the current investigation was chosen using the purposeful sampling approach.
2. About 2 lakh people are employed by the 2500 brick kiln facilities scattered across Punjab.

Patheras, Zalaiwalas, and Nakasiwalas are three major groups into which the employees in the brick kiln business may be categorised. The owner assigns a plot of land to the moulders (or Patheras as they are called locally), who must excavate the soil and then moisten it with water to prepare the mud for the moulding process. The whole family, including small children, is usually involved in shaping. Most moulders are from Uttar Pradesh and Chhattisgarh. Zalaiwalas physically load the coal into the kilns, while Nakasiwalas remove the pucca bricks from the brick kiln's chamber and hand position them where the owner specifies. Zalaiwalas and Nakasiwalas are mostly from Bihar and Rajasthan, respectively.

A sample of 200 employees was collected, including 60, 70, and 70 individuals from the districts of Ludhiana, Jalandhar, and Amritsar, respectively. Personal information, work characteristics, motivating factors, involvement in a union, and knowledge of labour laws were all covered by a planned interview schedule. Different analytical tools have been used in accordance with the study's distinct goals. The statistical analysis was completed using SPSS version 7.5 for Windows, the Statistical Package for Social Science. To investigate the socioeconomic characteristics of migrant workers and learn how they view labour regulations and trade unions, tabular analysis was used. Cross tabulation analysis has been used to determine the degree of satisfaction of migrant workers based on chosen personal, demographic, and occupational parameters.

Cross tabulation is useful for categorical variables of all kinds, including those whose different categories cannot be quantified such as marital status, gender, type of occupation, etc. and those whose different categories are related to quantifiable numbers such as age, income, etc. or vaguely quantifiable numbers (such as respondents' agreement or disagreement with a particular attitude). The two degrees of satisfaction, high and low, were created for this purpose as follows: first, we determined the weighted answer score for seven statements pertaining to various aspects of work satisfaction, with each response scored on a five-point Likert scale. The average score was calculated by averaging these weighted answer scores from all of the brick kiln respondents in the sample. The average score that was determined was 19.70. The respondents who scored above average were labelled as having a high degree of satisfaction, while those who scored below or at the average level were labelled as having a low level of contentment. In the brick kiln business, 99 employees fall into the low level of satisfaction group and 101 employees into the high level of satisfaction category. The reliability of the created attitude scales was evaluated using Cronbach's Alpha. The estimated value of 0.67 indicates that the scales used to gauge employees' opinions were judged to be accurate in their measurement.

Factor Analysis

A factor analytical approach has been applied to determine the variables that affect brick kiln employees' interstate migration process. The general goal of the factor analytic technique, known as the "queen of analytical methods" because of its strength and elegance, is to identify and define the basic constructs or dimensions that are thought to underlie the original variables in order to condense (summarise) the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of new, composite dimensions (factors) with the least amount of information loss. On the basis of the following criteria, the adequacy of the data for factor analysis may be evaluated:

If there are enough correlations to support component analysis, it may be determined visually by looking at the correlation data matrix. The anti-image correlation matrix displays the negative partial correlation coefficients between variables. These numbers must be tiny in order for genuine factors to be present in the data. AKA Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Another metric

to express the degree of intercorrelations between the variables and the suitability of factor analysis is the Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO). The index is in the range of 0 to 1. Since correlation between pairs of variables cannot be explained by the other variables, small values for the KMO measure suggest that component analysis of the variables may not be a smart idea. A high number between 0.5 and 1.0 suggests that the factor analysis method should be used.

To find factor solutions, two fundamental models—common factor and principal components analysis—are available. The choice of the extraction technique is based on the goal of the analysts. When the goal is to summarize the majority of the original data (variance) in a small number of variables for prediction purposes, principal component analysis is performed. Contrarily, the main purpose of common factor analysis is to find underlying factors or dimensions that indicate what the variables have in common. The main components approach of factoring has been applied in the current investigation. A linear transformation of the original set of variables into a much smaller collection of uncorrelated variables that captures the majority of the original set's information is achieved using this statistical approach. Compared to a larger collection of correlated variables, a small set of uncorrelated variables is significantly simpler to comprehend and use. In a multivariate space, each dimension's variation (or spread) is taken into account using linear combinations of the variables. The term Eigen Values, Characteristic Root, or Latent Root refers to the variance of the components. A variable's communality is the proportion of its variation that it shares with other variables. The correlation between the factor and the original variable is known as a factor loading. The squared factor loadings show the proportion of variation in the original variable that each component explains.

When there are many variables, the analyst initially isolates the best and biggest combinations before moving on to smaller, less clear combinations. Therefore, in the absence of any predetermined criteria, the number of elements to be retrieved becomes a crucial problem. The four possible criteria are as follows: (i) the a priori criteria, where the analyst already knows how many factors to extract and instructs the computer accordingly; (ii) the latent root criteria, where only factors with latent roots greater than 1 are considered significant; and (iii) the percentage of variance criteria, where the cumulative percentage of variance extracted by subsequent factors is taken into account. In the social sciences, it is usual practice to deem a solution good when it explains 60% or less of the total variation; and (iv) In Scree Test criteria, at least one additional component is often recovered in addition to the latent root criteria. The share of unique variation is much larger in the later factors than in the early ones.

The later factors recovered in the main component factor analysis model include both common and unique variance. The Scree Test is used to determine how many components should be extracted at the most before the quantity of unique variance starts to dominate the common variance structure. All of the aforementioned techniques were used in the current investigation as experimental endeavours. Latent root was first employed as a benchmark before the Scree test was used. The proportion of the explained variation was taken into account in each attempt. In each instance, the structural matrix was further interpreted and evaluated. Before a good solution could be found, many factor solutions with various numbers of factors were tested.

Rotation of the factors is a critical step in factor analysis. By making the loadings for each component either enormous or little, not in between, loadings are rotated to make them easier to understand. Either the orthogonal or oblique approach may be used for rotation. The axes are kept at 90 degrees in the Orthogonal Rotation approach, resulting in uncorrelated

components. The axes are rotated using the oblique rotation technique without keeping a 90 degree angle between them. The approach becomes more adaptable as a result. The method for analysing oblique rotations is still debatable. Either the Varimax technique or the Quatrimax method may be used inside the orthogonal approach. In a matrix, the Varimax approach focuses on simplifying the columns, while the Quatrimax method emphasises simplifying the rows. To improve the clarity of the factor solution in the current research, Orthogonal Rotation was combined with the Varimax technique of factor rotation.

The most common orthogonal rotation technique is probably variation rotation. The Varimax criteria maximise the sum of the squared loading variances within each loading matrix column. This often results in certain loadings that are very high and other loadings that are very low, which is one feature of basic structure. In light of the aforementioned analysis, this statistical approach has been used to summarise the data obtained through the use of an interview schedule on 15 chosen statements in order to ascertain how migrant textile and brick kiln workers perceive the key elements associated with the pull and push factors of migration. The factor analyst names the factors according to how well they reflect the underlying characteristics of each individual component.

Socio Economic Profile of Migrant Workers

The socio-economic traits of immigrants have been the subject of much study and discussion. Young individuals are more mobile, according to the researchers' collective opinion. Economically speaking, it makes sense since younger people's future wages would have a larger discounted value. Another significant trait of migrants is their propensity for sex discrimination, with males predominating the migratory flow. In general, wealthy individuals choose to relocate their female family members from rural regions to urban areas, however for those from lower socioeconomic strata, it might be challenging to cover the regular costs of females who are unemployed. A migrant's level of education is often higher than that of the people in his country of origin, although not all migrants come from the educated class. Many ignorant, underprivileged individuals leave rural regions in quest of jobs. The main distinction is that the wealthy relocate voluntarily in search of a better life, whereas the impoverished move because of financial troubles. The list is comprehensive since there are several more criteria that characterise the profile of migrants.

In light of the above, an effort has been made to analyse the respondents' personal, demographic, and socioeconomic characteristics. According to the migrant workers' origins, Uttar Pradesh accounted for the lion's share, or 45.0%, of their origins. The four main sending states are Bihar, Rajasthan, Chhattisgarh, and Uttar Pradesh. The findings show that there are no migrant labourers from the states of Himachal Pradesh, Uttaranchal, or Nepal in the brick-kiln sector. According to the Census of India (1991), the majority of the migrant workers who went to Punjab were from the states of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. When the origins of migrant labour are examined more closely, it becomes clear that the bulk of them come from the economically underdeveloped regions of Uttar Pradesh and Bihar, namely Eastern Uttar Pradesh and North Western Bihar.

The age of the employees is thought to have a significant impact on their choice to move. Generally speaking, young adults (77%) between the ages of 20 and 40 are more mobile. Economically speaking, this makes sense since young individuals would have larger future wages with a higher discounted value. They are more mobile since they have less obligations to their families and other people in society. During the field investigation, it was discovered that the brick-kiln business used both female and child workers. Additionally, 8.5% of women and 91.5% of men were present. It is important to note that the moulders

relocate with their families, and that women and small children also labour to support the male population. 89.0% of migrant brick kiln employees were married. Only 11.0% of employees were single. Due to the fact that many migrants came from U.P. and Bihar, where people often marry at an early age, there may be a greater proportion of married migrant workers.

In a nation like India, religion is highly significant in all aspects of life. Because the bulk of the labour force is drawn from the states with a Hindu majority in U.P. and Bihar, analysis suggests that there are more Hindu employees among the industrial workers in Punjab. Another significant characteristic that is prevalent in a nation like India is caste. According to the caste-based distribution, SC/ST castes accounted for the majority of employees (81.5%). Only 14.0% of people were from the common castes. It seems that backward/scheduled castes are not the only ones who can work in blue collar occupations. Due to the lack of white collar employment, somewhat higher castes are now entering the ranks of manual labourers in the business.

Another significant factor that affects the choice to immigrate or not is education. 60% of the population lacked literacy, 26% had completed the fifth standard, 5.5 percent had completed the eighth standard, and 8.0 percent had graduated from high school. Evidently, brick-kiln employees had a greater level of illiteracy. In general, migratory labourers belonged to families with sizable populations. One-third of the respondent households had up to four people in them. 25 percent, 24 percent, and 11 percent, respectively, had 5, 6, and 7 members. 8% of the respondents were from households with 8 or more members. As a result, immigrants are still unaware of the advantages of a limited family size. Additionally, the family planning campaigns did not succeed in encouraging the staff to make the norm of having two children. Another cause and impact of big families might be a higher prevalence of poverty.

In accordance with their monthly salaries, the employees were classified into five groups. Only 3.50 percent of employees received incomes over Rs. 3000, compared to 48.0% who received up to Rs. 2000, 27.5% who earned between Rs. 2001 and \$2500, 21.0% who earned between Rs. 250 and \$1000, and 21.0% who earned more than Rs. Additionally, the majority of employees received pay based on a piece rate system. 90% of the brick kiln employees resided in the housing made available by the employers. The proprietor of the brick kiln builds little houses for the employees. Standing upright in their huts is quite challenging due to the height of the roofs. In Punjab, the majority of the labour force in both agriculture and industry is made up of migrant labour. However, it is crucial to be aware of how long they will be staying. A total of 29.50% of brick kiln employees have moved during the previous five years, 25.50% within the last six to ten years, 15.50% within the past eleven to fifteen years, and 29.50% within the past fifteen years. Only 7-8 months a year are employed by the brick kiln business. Another crucial component of migratory workers is their mode of travel. Of the brick kiln employees in the sample, 58.50 percent travelled with their families and the remaining 41.50 percent went on their own. Moulders make up the majority of the workforce in this sector; they often relocate with their families and work at the brick-kiln as a single unit.

Since employment serves as the primary source of support for migrants and their separate families, many employees save and send money back to their home country. Three-fourths of migrant workers send money back to their home towns, strengthening their bonds with them. Additionally, the bulk of the employees who did not send money home are those who moved away with their families. Only 6.0% of migrant brick-kiln workers sent more than Rs. 1500 each month, compared to 29.50% who sent up to Rs. 500, 20.50% who sent between Rs. 501

and Rs. 1000, and 19% who sent between Rs. 1001 and 1500. The money sent home by the migrants is mostly utilised for ceremonial and daily requirements by the migrants' relatives. 28.00% of brick-kiln migrant employees sent money to their home country more than once each year, another 26.00% sent once every two months, and 19.50% sent once every month, according to an analysis of the frequency with which migrant workers send money home. The enormous number of brick kiln employees either brought cash with them when they visited or sent money through money order or bank draught. Only 3% of brick kiln employees relied on this method. Being a seasonal job, brick kiln employees spent the rainy season in their home countries, therefore a significant percentage of them brought money when they visited. Additionally, they only get payment throughout the season to cover daily expenditures. Payment is made at the conclusion of the season. 40% of brick kiln employees visited their hometown twice a year, compared to 44.50 percent who made one trip. Only 8.50% of employees returned to their hometown once every two to three years, and only 6.00% did so on a significant occasion. The great majority of the migrant brick-kiln workers (89.00%) were not registered as voters in Punjab, according to an analysis of voter registration data. The brick kiln employees, who had long since moved and were now residing in surrounding villages, were discovered to be voters in the Amritsar district.

The seasonal nature of the brick business and the employees' low level of knowledge may be to blame for the lower voter turnout. 84.000% of brick-kiln employees did not get a registration request from the government. Some employees claimed that the local sarpanch's involvement caused them to not register as voters. Again, brick-kiln employees were not registered to vote in this state since they did not labour here constantly for a longer length of time. Additionally, several employees were already on the voter rolls in their home countries. Similarly, just 8.00% of migrant employees had ration cards.

Rarely did representatives of the food and civic supply department go to a brick factory to distribute ration cards to the labourers employed there. Only 10 of the 16 brick kiln employees who had ration cards were receiving the rations. Additionally, the majority of the time, ration supplies were limited to kerosene oil. According to the migrant workers' employment histories, 67.50 percent of them were day labourers and only 7.50 percent were independent contractors. Education-related job (students) and first-time employment (25%) are other vocations. The majority of employees (59.50%) lived in separate homes, while 40.50% of workers shared housing with other workers. Since the great majority of migrant brick-kiln workers lived in huts, the issue of a second room was not present. 97.50% of the employees lacked access to toilet facilities. Again, the migrant brick-kiln employees did not have access to a separate cooking facility. Primarily residing in mud or brick-built tiny huts were brick-kiln employees. 99.00% of the migrant brick-kiln labourers resided in huts built by the brick-kiln owner, and they were not required to pay rent for the space.

This illustrates the miserable state in which migrant labourers are forced to live. The proprietor of the brick kiln built modest cottages for his employees. Because of how high the huts' roofs were, it was exceedingly challenging to stand inside of them. The majority of the cottages lack power. There was no access to clean drinking water, and the employer supplied no sanitation. The local farmers forbid the employees from using their fields for morning rituals. Their kids play in an unsafe and filthy atmosphere. Sometimes, rain and dust storms cause their shelters to collapse, resulting in the loss of food and other household items. The shelters are ineffective in shielding the migrant labourers from harsh winter weather, winter rains, or summer heat. A tiny percentage of the migratory employees also reported some socio-cultural changes. Just 3.50 percent of the workforce reported a change in behaviour. They now favour pyjamas and kameej over the dhoti and kurta they formerly wore. Some

employees began eating wheat along with rice. In the Amritsar district, 4.50 percent of migrant labourers bought a plot or house. 28.50% of the brick kiln employees in the study said that the language has changed. Punjabi is a simple language to learn. As a result, the migrant labourers could comprehend it and even speak a little Punjabi. For those labourers who have been in Punjab for an extended length of time, a modification has been made.

CONCLUSION

The study of occupational mobility of labour provides insight into the labour market's dynamic character and its effects on people and the economy. This study adds to our knowledge of how people switch between various jobs over time by looking at the patterns, causes, and effects of occupational mobility. We can determine the number, direction, and variables driving these occupational shifts via the examination of longitudinal labour market data and statistical tools.

Occupational mobility is greatly influenced by factors such as education, skills, job experience, industry dynamics, and economic situations.

The report also emphasises how occupational mobility affects things like earnings, work satisfaction, and career paths. Individuals may benefit from occupational mobility by having the chance to develop their skills, seek better-paying careers, and locate better employment possibilities. However, it may also result in difficulties including skill mismatches, salary instability, and halts in professional advancement. For governments, companies, and people to adjust to a fast-changing labour market, an understanding of these consequences is essential.

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CHAPTER 12

WORKERS' AWARENESS ABOUT THE LABOUR LAWS

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ABSTRACT:

This research study intends to evaluate employees' knowledge of labour laws and regulations by looking at their familiarity with, comprehension of, and perception of their rights and safeguards at work. We examine the degree to which employees are aware of labour laws, their particular provisions, and how they relate to their working circumstances by conducting surveys and interviews with a representative sample of workers from diverse industries and sectors. We examine the variables affecting employees' awareness, such as education level, employment history, and demographic traits. We also consider how employees' understanding may affect their capacity to defend their rights, bargain for decent working conditions, and seek legal redress in the event of labour abuses. The study's conclusions provide guidance to businesses, labour unions, and governments on how to raise worker knowledge, increase adherence to labour rules, and foster a just and equitable workplace.

KEYWORDS:

Awareness, Labor Laws, Legal Rights, Workplace Conditions, Worker Empowerment, Worker Protection.

INTRODUCTION

Not a single employee in either industry was aware that the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act, 1979, which was specifically passed for the benefit of inter-state migrant workers, existed, nor that it allowed for registration under that act and the use of other benefits like displacement allowance, journey allowance, residential housing, free medical facilities, and the issuance of pass books, among others. The migrant brick-kiln workers were also completely ignorant of various labour laws, including the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1923, the Trade Unions Act of 1926, the Industrial Disputes Act of 1947, the Factories Act of 1948, the Minimum Wages Act of 1948, and the Employee's State Insurance Act of 1948. Three-fourths of the workforce received piece rate pay. In other words, just 52 (26% of the workforce) received fixed salaries. For overtime labour, the employee received standard pay. 127 employees, or 63.5 percent, put in more than 12 hours every day. Only 18 (9%) employees put in more than 8 hours every day. 35 (17.5%) employees put in up to and above 16 hours each day of work. The employees had no access to any of the facilities, including the canteen, restrooms, first aid, medical, or transportation services[1], [2].

Additionally, the majority of the brick kilns did not hire locals, hence the issue of prejudice was not present. However, employees, or 58%, concur that they received stepmother-like behaviour at the police station or train station. Workers' agreement with the statement is shown by the weighted average score of 3.43. A total of 21 employees, or 10.5%, acknowledged that they had been duped at the post office, although the majority of respondents disagreed. Because they were not given ration cards, 159 (79.5%) employees are neither in agreement with nor opposed to the assertion that they are "not getting ration as per

quota." However, WAS of 3.08 suggests that employees agreed with the claim that they were not receiving their ration in accordance with their quota.

Factor Analytic of Motivations For Migration

Large-scale labour movement from one location to another is a consequence of the unequal growth of villages, towns, and other regions. The working population moves as a result of this migration. Coming to reasons for migration, it is interesting to know why some people migrate while others do not. Despite the importance of non-economic variables, the majority of research show that economic considerations, particularly labour mobility, are what drive movement. Push forces and pull factors are two fundamental economic reasons that encourage migration. In other words, it is to determine if individuals migrate because of compelling circumstances that force them to leave their place of origin or because the desirable qualities in the destination area entice them to do so. For instance, on the one hand, unfavourable economic circumstances, low productivity, unemployment and underemployment, low agricultural income, and natural disasters may push individuals to migrate away from their own country in quest of better economic prospects. On the other side, individuals may move to a place if there are prospects for better jobs, greater salaries, better working conditions and facilities, etc. Regarding whether elements are more significant as a push or pull, researchers' conclusions vary. The main "push" and "pull" variables in labour migration and their relative importance must thus be examined again. In order to do this, the opinions of migrant brick-kiln employees about a group of fifteen statements describing the function of various push and pull elements in the process of interstate movement were researched [3], [4].

Policy Implications

Globally, migration is a phenomenon that is influenced by a variety of factors, including social, political, cultural, environmental, health, and education. The movement often occurs from places with limited economic possibilities and slow social development to those with rapid growth. Due to the unequal growth across various locations and between villages and towns, labour migration primarily entails the movement of the labour force.

In general, migrant workers are youthful, uneducated, landless or destitute, and from a socioeconomically underprivileged class. They often get lesser pay than local workers, have almost nonexistent working conditions, including job security, housing, medical care, insurance, and provident funds, and put in long, irregular hours in situations that are close to slavery. Even though Punjab is one of the smaller states in the Indian Union, it has excelled in a variety of areas, including the agricultural and industrial sectors. Large-scale migration from neighbouring states, notably Bihar and Uttar Pradesh, has occurred to meet the requirements of the agricultural and industrial sectors. In the case of agriculture and other related industries like building, the brick-kiln industry, etc., they have carved out a space for themselves. The characteristics of individual migrants and the variables affecting a person's inclination to move have received very little attention at the micro level. Therefore, the current research is an effort to close the significant gaps and contribute in a little way to our knowledge of the socioeconomic circumstances of migratory brick-kiln workers.

The majority of migrant labourers were young, ignorant, or had just a modest degree of education, and 89% of them were married to male Hindus. The brick-kiln business often employed women and children as labourers. Migrant brick kiln workers made up 81.5 percent of this group, and many of them were from large families and didn't use family planning methods in general. A combined 86% of the workforce was from Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan,

and Chhattisgarh. The labourers' pay was quite little. The majority of employees were given lodgings or huts by their employers on the brick-kiln grounds.

Most of the brick kiln employees moved with their families. 75 percent of migrant employees sent money back to their home country; the remaining 15 percent moved with their family. The amount sent was extremely little, and the frequency was typically once per month, once every two months, or more often than once every year. The majority of the remittances were either made in person by the employees themselves or by money order or bank draught at the time of the visit. Additionally, practically every responder maintained connections to their country of origin. The majority of employees were not registered to vote since the authorities did not contact them. Additionally, the majority of migrant labourers lacked ration cards, and those who did not get regular shipments of all the goods distributed via the public distribution system[5]–[7]. Most migrant labourers lacked access to land. Owners of the property said that it was of low quality and lacked any reliable irrigation system. The migrant labourers were housed in a single room without a bathroom or kitchen. The brick-kiln employees had exceedingly poor living circumstances. They lacked access to light and water and were housed in highly dusty, unsanitary conditions. No employee had a scooter or refrigerator. Only 5% and 13.5% of employees, respectively, had televisions and radios. 3.5% of the brick kiln employees said their behaviours have changed. They now favour pyjamas and kameej over the dhoti and kurta they formerly wore. Some employees began consuming wheat along with rice.

28.5 percent of migrant employees indicated that the language has changed. Punjabi is a simple language to learn. Because of this, the migrant labourers could comprehend and even speak a little Punjabi. The Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act of 1979 and other employment regulations were completely unknown to the brick kiln employees. The employees had no access to a canteen, restrooms, first aid, medical care, or transportation. In terms of pay, promotions, and access to healthcare, migrant employees do not exhibit any overt prejudice. Six variables were found via the use of factor analysis to explain 63.74 percent of the variation in the employees' answers to a battery of 15 pull and push closed-ended statements assessed on a five-point Likert scale. The first and most important reason for employees to move is a better job opportunity, which accounts for the highest proportion of variation. Brick kiln employees are compelled to move since there aren't enough job possibilities in their own country, but Punjab offers better employment chances, industrial growth, and comparably higher earnings. Higher income and self-fulfillment, with a percentage of variance equal to 11.02, have emerged as the second driving force.

DISCUSSION

The relevant authorities do not consistently gather statistics on labour in general or migrant work in particular. To rationalise the gathering, compilation, maintenance, and distribution of labour data, the Department of Labour should take appropriate action. The phrase "any person who has migrated from his home state whether on his own, by or through a contractor, and has been temporarily (seasonally) employed in any establishment in another state" should be included to the definition of "inter state migrant worker." With such a broad definition of ISM Workmen, every migrant worker, regardless of whether he arrived directly or through a contractor, and regardless of whether he did so in accordance with an agreement or not, would be included by the Act[8], [9].

Once again, the Act should be applicable to every business that employs even one or two interstate migrant workers, and any violations of the Act should be deemed criminal offences. It should be acceptable for the third party to lodge concerns. To pinpoint the

locations and schedule regular visits to the most vulnerable communities, a joint coordination team made up of representatives from the originating and receiving states must be formed. This team will ensure that the Act is implemented correctly and that improved facilities are offered. To identify the migrant workers as well as their businesses, trade unions should be engaged. Each state should establish a separate unit to handle migrant workers' issues.

The various trade unions operating in the state need to place greater attention on the interstate migrant workers engaged in the state's development programmes. They need to support assuring fair salaries, prompt payment of wages, employees' welfare, including housing, health and cleanliness, access to medical care, energy, and clean water, provision of return travel expenses, and provision of claims in the event of tragic accidents. The trade unions shall make every effort to help in discussions with the state's agents, contractors, primary employers, medical officer, and labour machinery in the event of an accident.

The trade unions in the state of origin should communicate with their counterpart trade unions to take care of the migrant workers employed there, make every effort to improve their conditions, and report back on every aspect of their employment, entitlement payments, and living situation. Along with taking any necessary steps at their end, trade unions in the receiving state should also inform its counterpart in the state of origin of the interstate migrant workers about any disputes, claims, and accidents. Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) may play a significant role by educating employees about their rights and ensuring that socio-economic and legal requirements are met.

The educational level of the migrant labourers employed in Punjab's brick-kiln sector has to be raised. Since a major portion of employees fall into the adult demographic, adult education may be crucial in helping to ensure that migrant workers are literate. There should be particular provisions made for the schooling of their children as well, since many brick-kiln employees include their families in the job. The family planning initiatives should also be made known to the employees. The report suggests that migrant workers should be provided with suitable housing and sanitary facilities since their living and working circumstances are appalling. The study suggests that provisions should be made in the law governing the brick-kiln industry for mandatory, periodic medical check-ups of workers because workers, particularly brick-kiln workers, are susceptible to many diseases and occupational health hazards like backache, asthma, and T.B., among others.

Furthermore, gloves should be given to moulders so they won't have to contact the muck all the time. To protect them from burns from hot bricks, nakasiwalas should be given safety equipment, and wearing breathing masks while working should be required for everyone. Since this is a seasonal sector, the employees should have access to other employment during the off-season. Considering that many migrant labourers lacked ration cards. As a result, under a special programme, the Punjab Food and Civil Supplies Department shall issue unique ration cards in various colours to migrant workers. It may serve the dual aim of providing identification evidence for various reasons as well as access to basic items at reduced prices. Although there is a need to evaluate the legislation that has already been passed to safeguard migrant workers, even those rules are not being followed. Workers should be informed of their legal rights and applicable labour laws. Workers' rights education may be greatly aided by the trade unions, non-governmental organisations, and other social organisations.

Developing diaspora strategies

There are a variety of ways that expatriate communities may help their home countries, such as by sending money home via remittances, making direct investments, or participating in

diaspora tourism. Through skill-sharing, social investments in nonprofit organisations or public goods that may benefit local people, campaigning, and diplomacy, emigrant populations can also help build knowledge networks and provide support for human capital investments.

Many nations with sizable outmigration trends have developed specific multinational diaspora strategies in response to the recognition of this potential contribution, with the goal of facilitating the contribution of highly skilled expatriates to their country/region of origin without necessarily resulting in return immigration. An overview of sending nation policies for diaspora strategy.

Promoting a functional approach in planning and governance

Given that more than two thirds of Europeans live in cities, metropolitan centres will continue to be important shaping forces for the areas around them. There is a growing understanding that different issues, including migration, cannot be adequately addressed by a single territory (municipality, county, province, region, or country), but rather must be dealt with through improved cooperative governance and partnerships between locations, industries, and societal groups at a city-regional scale. "City productivity increases with city size, but cities with fragmented governance structures tend to have lower levels of productivity," according to the OECD. The presence of a metropolitan governing authority lessens this impact (Ahrend et al., 2017).

Administrative jurisdictions do not neatly match functional geographies in all of Europe at the moment, which causes a fragmentation of public policies and a mismatch between political geographies and the geographies of networks of relationships between people and businesses, on a local to a global scale. In order to avoid this distortion, a functional approach to urban governance places more emphasis on political institutions that are connected to regions with "soft" borders or no borders, defined in accordance with a specific policy field, and that overlap with other functional areas and operate at various scales. For instance, it is better to implement policies like promoting social cohesion, economic development, and environmental protection jointly by several municipalities at larger scales so they can internalize the costs and benefits and benefit from economies of scale (European Commission and UN-Habitat, 2017).

Various methods for defining functional areas have been developed in order to better comprehend the functional geography dimension. Although the term "functional area" has no universally agreed-upon definition, functional urban areas (cities plus their commuter zones) and "metropolitan regions," which approximate functional urban areas at the NUTS 3 regional scale, represent the most advanced current understanding in terms of methodology, analysis, and a pan-European application. A online tool for displaying and comparing functional urban areas and other functional zones that have been defined at the European level is being developed as part of the ESPON FUORE project.

ESPON has always been a fervent supporter of the functional approach to planning. This method enables the capture and management of development processes at geographical scales that are not constrained by administrative boundaries but rather represent the reality of growing linkages between locations based on the movement of people, products, and services.

The functional approach calls for greater cooperation between locations, which in turn encourages their development perspectives in at least two ways: by enabling them to expand the resource base required to meet people's needs for well-being; and by ensuring the

effectiveness of investment by coordinating their use and avoiding wasteful/overlapping investment. Therefore, through more effective, multi-level governance that addresses development challenges in a more comprehensive and inclusive manner, the functional approach in planning, governance, and investment policies helps to promote the development potential of places, including coping with and adapting to the outward labour mobility and brain drain. The OECD most recently (in March 2019) reemphasized this notion in the OECD Principles on Urban Policy.

Building knowledge economy

Five possible tactics might be used to promote knowledge economy drivers based on geographical assets, according to ESPON research: Offering monetary or non-monetary inducements, such as tax discounts, grants, services, or other inducements, to entice (highly skilled) employees, businesses, or research institutions. Promotion of university and business clusters is often aided by incentives.

The clustering system encourages frequent and intimate engagement, which is predicted to increase collaboration among players who hadn't previously cooperated. ■ creating a "oasis strategy" that solely concentrates on the most prosperous, active, and expanding segment of the area. The stakeholders in the sector are motivated to collaborate in order to achieve the shared objectives of fostering innovation and advancing economic development. Through financial incentives, technical assistance, networking, or the development of formal structures (like the "innovation poles" in the Abruzzo region of Italy), knowledge economy strategies as a whole will benefit from encouraging vertical and horizontal cooperation among stakeholders (especially universities and small and medium-sized enterprises), as well as territorial cooperation.

Increasing the allure

A clear "mobilisation strategy" has to be developed in order to increase the overall appeal of areas. This necessitates that cities and regions evaluate their endowment position, finding both good and negative elements, and then create strategies to effect change. There are two key suggestions that stand out: Enhance the role of government agencies and their ability to strategically launch and guide mobilisation initiatives. This calls for a governance structure that can assess the territorial capital of a region's current strengths and weaknesses and create a suitable plan to improve/develop the various types of territorial capital via a mobilisation strategy. To coordinate the operations of various levels of government, this also necessitates the participation of relevant stakeholders and players. Increase stakeholders' abilities to mobilise resources within a multi-level governance structure. Since it is doubtful that regions or cities would have all the resources or authority required to implement a mobilisation plan, they will need to be able to link with and utilise resources that are available at the national and EU levels.

CONCLUSION

One of the most important factors in preserving employees' rights and protections at work is raising understanding of labour rules. The knowledge, comprehension, and perception of labour regulations among employees from diverse industries and sectors were investigated in this research study. We evaluated the level of employee awareness using questionnaires and interviews, including their understanding of certain regulations and how they relate to their working circumstances. To coordinate the operations of various levels of government, this also necessitates the participation of relevant stakeholders and players. Increase stakeholders' abilities to mobilise resources within a multi-level governance structure. Since it is doubtful

that regions or cities would have all the resources or authority required to implement a mobilisation plan, they will need to be able to link with and utilise resources that are available at the national and EU levels. The research discovered variables including education level, employment history, and geographic traits that affect employees' awareness. To create focused strategies for raising employees' knowledge and comprehension of their rights, it is important to take into account these variables. Policymakers, labour organisations, and employers can enable employees to exercise their rights and bargain decent working conditions by addressing information gaps and ensuring that labour rules are well communicated.

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