

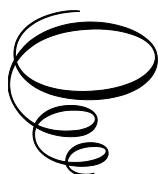
Dynamics of Migration and Comparative Immigration Law

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Edited by

Sibel Safi

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CHAPTER ONE

JAPAN'S LABOR MARKET DYNAMICS AND IMMIGRATION: AN EXAMINATION OF THE COUNTRY'S SOCIOECONOMIC CHALLENGES

HIROSHI YOSHIDA, MELTEM INCE YENILMEZ
AND FENGMING CHEN

Abstract

The employment policies in Japan after World War II are notable for their lack of occupation-based division and consistent pay for regular workers within the same company. These policies are further supported by labour unions that are exclusive to the company and guarantee equitable treatment for employees. Professionals and managers, on the other hand, tend to have better living conditions and a different socioeconomic position from other occupations. In Japan, immigration is a sensitive topic that requires careful consideration as it balances cultural preservation with the country's growing labour force requirements owing to demographic difficulties. Different immigrant waves, such as Brazilian Korean and Japanese migrants, have traditionally impacted Japan's labor market despite the country's tight immigration laws. Japan's labour market is divided into two segments based on the type of employment and business size, as per the dual labour market hypothesis. Employees in large companies' primary sector enjoy significant benefits packages and job security, whereas employees in their secondary sector deal with less stable employment and lower benefits. Professional jobs usually need official qualifications and a higher level of education, which emphasizes how important education is for moving up the career ladder. The low number of managerial positions held by immigrants suggests that there are major obstacles to their upward mobility. Mixed effects of immigration on labour

market outcomes and economic growth are found in empirical research. The human capital obtained in Japan frequently has no discernible impact on the earnings or stability of employment of immigrants. Immigrants have less access to professional advancement within enterprises due to the internal labour market. To effectively manage labour shortages and improve immigrant economic integration, policies must take into account Japan's segmented labour market dynamics and the significance of immigration.

Keywords: Economic challenges, Immigration, Labour market, Japan

“...We are not pursuing what is commonly considered an immigration policy. (Shinzo Abe, 2 November 2018) “

In the early years of the twenty-first century, Japan faces a wide range of complex social, cultural, and economic difficulties. These problems result from numerous structural, historical, and policy-related elements that have changed over time. Japan's economic performance in the second half of the 20th century was widely regarded as an economic miracle, fueled by strong international trade, fast industrialization, and technical innovation. However, the fundamental presumptions that underpinned this expansion have come under increased scrutiny, especially in light of the protracted economic stagnation that followed the early 1990s bubble economy bust. In addition to undoing many of the achievements made in the preceding decades, this protracted era of low growth has hurt Japan's image internationally and its reputation as an economic power.

Japan's internal political scene has also stagnated, mirroring the country's economic stagnation. A string of inept prime ministers and frequent cabinet changes have severely damaged public confidence in Japan's democratic institutions, creating an impression of incompetence and political instability. The nation's socioeconomic problems have gotten worse as a result of this political ailment, which has hindered efficient government and policy execution. Japan's economic and political stagnation has been further entrenched by the country's inability to address important concerns, including the ageing population, labour market rigidities, and social welfare reforms, due to a lack of strong, consistent leadership.

The catastrophic earthquake and tsunami that hit northern Japan in March 2011 and the nuclear disaster that followed at Fukushima have had a significant and lasting effect on the country. In addition to causing immediate and catastrophic damage to towns and infrastructure, these disasters also greatly slowed down any early indications of economic

recovery. The cumulative impact of these man-made and natural disasters has eroded public confidence in the government's crisis management capabilities. The Fukushima crisis severely damaged the public's trust in Japan's once-strong and competent state management machinery, which exposed serious flaws in the country's regulatory and bureaucratic systems.

Japan faces enormous social and cultural obstacles in addition to these political and economic ones, which make its road to recovery and progress even more difficult. The nation has significant demographic issues due to its ageing population and declining birth rates, which require prompt and all-encompassing policy measures. Cultural issues have also hampered advancement in several areas, including the inflexibility of gender norms and the resistance to accepting multiculturalism. In addition to political and economic changes, addressing these complex concerns calls for a cultural shift toward greater flexibility and inclusivity. Japan's future course and its place in the world economy will be greatly influenced by its capacity to manage these difficult obstacles successfully.

The status of immigrants in Japan's labour market is currently the subject of conflicting data. Research has shown that human capital acquired in Japan—such as education or language proficiency—raises wages (Holbrow and Nagayoshi, 2016; Korekawa, 2021). Nonetheless, several studies showed that incomes were not significantly impacted by human capital obtained in Japan (Holbrow, 2020; Takenaka et al., 2016; Takenoshita, 2006). A foreigner's chances of becoming a professional worker improve with the length of time they spend in Japan (Korekawa, 2019). Therefore, going to school and earning a degree in the Japanese language did not improve one's chances of getting a normal job in Japan (Takenoshita, 2006).

On the other hand, Japan is well-known as a desirable place to work for business employees, entertainers, and foreign language instructors. Numerous talented foreign workers occupy positions in the Japanese labour market that cannot be sufficiently filled by local workers. A variety of semi-legal or legally ambiguous employment methods and labour programs enable the presence of up to a quarter of a million illegal migrant workers and labourers in Japan, with the implied approval of the country's authorities and government. Castles (2004) states that this system addresses the paradox that the public does not support a labour recruitment policy, despite Japan's dire need for highly qualified labourers. Additionally, the government has opened other "side doors" to migration. Consequently, employment in Japan is strictly prohibited for all immigrants, whether they are legal or not. However, legitimising migration on such a limited scale is insufficient to address Japan's demographic issues in the long run. As a

result, foreign workers' capacity to engage in Japan's labour market is severely restricted by the country's stringent fundamental immigration restrictions.

According to migration theory, Japan, unlike the additional workforce that most twentieth-century overseas guest worker programs were intended to provide, will require a significant replacement workforce in the future. This shift in the dynamics of labour migration puts into question fundamental aspects of older migration theories, complicating research into liberalized migration in advanced economies.

Given the expected consequences of societal ageing, highly developed economies are forced to embrace workable migration solutions, with few alternatives except augmenting current workforces to sustain growing senior populations.

Japan's labour market is highly segmented, offering a distinctive perspective on the contributions of immigrant human capital to economic prosperity. Apart from being the first country outside of Europe to create such a market, it is divided based on the size of the firm, employment contracts, and occupations (Gordon, 2017; Imai and Sato, 2011). Immigration laws also impact links previously disregarded in a prior study about the connection between immigrants' physical capital and their labour market performance. The complex role that immigrants play in the Japanese labour market, governed by labour market regulations and immigration legislation, is demonstrated by our investigation into the relationship between physical capital and all facets of labour market success. The importance of immigration policy and labour market structure to immigrants' economic success is highlighted, which contributes to a better understanding of immigrant integration in Japan and other immigrant-receiving countries.

Japanese employment practices and the labour market

Japan's labour market has shown little occupation-based segmentation, in contrast to the labour markets of most of North America and Europe. Regardless of the precise positions these workers have within the same company, Japanese firms frequently offer their "regular employees" consistent compensation and job stability. The impact of labour unions particularly in a given company, which promotes fair treatment within the company, is primarily responsible for this uniformity (Gordon, 2017). However, studies show that diverse occupations have a big impact on Japan's socioeconomic standing and standard of living. More specifically, compared to people in other occupations, those designated as "professional

workers” and “managerial workers” have better living conditions, more opportunities for income, and a higher social status (Cheng and Kalleberg, 1996; Fujihara, 2020).

Immigration is a topic of constant discussion in Japan due to the differing opinions held by the government and the people. The preservation of the nation's cultural identity is given top priority by the Japanese government, which only permits immigration if it does not jeopardize its identity. The Washington Post states that the government should scrap the current immigration program before enacting new ones since it presents Japan as a less desirable country than other wealthy countries with laxer and more discriminatory immigration restrictions. These programs frequently employ Southeast Asian migrants who put in long hours and sometimes earn less than the minimum salary required of Japanese employees.

The professional and management cohorts can function inside their own “occupational internal labour market,” which enables people to grow in their careers and pick up new skills within a single occupation—though frequently across many companies (Cheng and Kalleberg, 1996; Watanabe and Sato, 2000). Nonetheless, there is a very small percentage of managerial labourers within the labour force of immigrants in Japan. Managerial workers make up just 1.6% of the immigrant workforce, according to data from the 2020 Census (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, 2022). As such, this analysis will focus on professionals who fall into these groups.

Entry into Japan's internal labour market for professional employment requires a certain level of education. These careers demand knowledge and abilities that are transferable and applicable worldwide, which are frequently attained through postsecondary education outside of the employer (Furuta, 2018). Formal credentials are also required for many professional and technical professions. This requirement emphasises how important formal education is to career growth in Japan's professional labour market.

Additionally, the size of the organization affects how the Japanese labour market is segmented. The theory of dual labour markets, which distinguishes between a main sector made up of giant corporations and a secondary sector made up of small and medium-sized businesses, has been the standard explanation used by Japanese economists for this structure (Imai and Sato, 2011). More job security and benefits are usually available to primary sector workers, but secondary sector workers have fewer perks and less stability.

Japan has seen waves of immigration at different times throughout its recent history, despite these restrictions imposed by culture and politics. The first notable wave resulted from South Korea and China's large-scale migration to the Japanese colonial metropole in the wake of Japan's early 1900s colonial advances throughout East Asia. Japanese Brazilians and, to a lesser extent, Koreans made up the second big wave of immigration that arrived in the 1980s. Korean immigrants usually moved in quest of better economic prospects, while Japanese Brazilians frequently traveled in an attempt to make contact with their ancestral home. To understand Japanese attitudes toward foreigners and the government's willingness to create laws that aid in their assimilation into Japanese society, one must have a thorough understanding of the political conflicts and integration paths of different ethnic groups.

Southeast Asian neighbours are putting more and more pressure on Japan to negotiate the free movement of people into the Economic Partnership Agreement (EPA). A clause like this would encourage immigration to Japan from the least developed nations in Southeast Asia, so reducing the labour shortages that are made worse by the ageing population. The demographic crisis at hand necessitates striking a balance between cultural preservation and the pragmatic requirement for a large labour force, which has led to a review of current immigration laws. Due to its extreme labour market segmentation, Japan provides unique insight into the contribution of immigrant human capital to economic success. This division is made according to firm size, employment contract, and vocation in addition to other factors (Gordon, 2017; Imai and Sato, 2011). Moreover, immigration rules have a major impact on the relationship that exists between immigrants' human capital and their labour market outcomes; this is a point that previous research has frequently missed.

Regarding the positions of immigrants in Japan's job market, there is contradicting data. According to some research, human capital obtained in Japan—like education or language skills—raises salaries (Holbrow and Nagayoshi, 2016; Korekawa, 2021). Other studies, however, show that earnings are not much impacted by Japanese-acquired human capital (Holbrow, 2020; Takenaka et al., 2016; Takenoshita, 2006). Immigrants have a better likelihood of becoming professionals the longer they remain in Japan. On the other hand, Takenoshita (2006) shows that having a degree in education in the Japanese language does not guarantee landing regular employment in Japan.

Furthermore, a variety of work arrangements set the Japanese labour market apart. Employees are divided into two categories: regular and non-regular. Regular workers typically have lifetime employment contracts

with generous benefits and high levels of job stability. Conversely, non-regular workers don't have the same comprehensive benefits as regular workers and deal with insecure work conditions (Imai and Sato, 2011). Due to this division, regular employees in large firms, regular employees in small and medium-sized companies, and non-regular employees experience notable differences in compensation and working circumstances (Gordon, 2017). The dual labour market idea highlights differences between primary and secondary sectors concerning benefits and job security. Large company regular employees enjoy secure jobs and generous benefit packages, while non-regular employees and those working for smaller companies are more likely to have unstable jobs and receive less money. This discrepancy underscores how important it is for firms and the sort of employment to determine how Japanese workers relate to the labour market.

Japan's immigration policy is characterized by a careful balancing act between upholding cultural integrity and meeting demographic and economic demands. Integration of immigrants is hampered by the job market's fragmentation and strict immigration laws. Creating plans that improve immigrants' economic success and solve the labour shortage in the nation requires a grasp of the complex function of human capital and the influence of policy on labour market results. For academics and politicians who are interested in the dynamics of immigration and labour markets in Japan and other countries, this analysis provides insightful information.

In conclusion, there are distinct features to the labour market in Japan, including firm-specific unions, educational requirements for career advancement, and a clear division of labour according to employment type and company size. Because of the interplay of these variables, the labour market is complex, with occupation, company size, and kind of work all playing major roles in determining prospects for career advancement, pay, and job security. To analyze labour market developments and create policies that meet the various demands of Japanese workers, it is imperative to comprehend these Dynamics.

Empirical evidence

The host countries are concerned about the negative impact of foreign nationals on economic progress. Empirical studies have shown that immigration has both beneficial and negative effects on the economic growth of host nations; in fact, positive data is substantially more compelling than negative ones. A major contributor to the beneficial effect

was the human capital that immigrants embodied (Drinkwater et al., 2002). They also concluded that immigrants can only positively contribute to economic growth if some of the new immigrants are highly skilled workers. Borjas (1995) found that an increase in immigration resulted in a 0.1% rise in economic growth while supporting the positive impact of immigrants. The House of Submission (2006) found no quantifiable evidence of the effect of immigration on GDP per capita. However, immigration increased GDP per capita by roughly 3%. So, the short-term adverse effects might be attributed to elevated joblessness and a delayed response in the capital market to immigration. Eventually, immigrants are now of working age and there is a rise in capital stock (House, 2008).

The relationship between migration and unemployment using the ECM method in Italy from 1993 to 1997 is analyzed (Venturini and Villitis, 2006). Morley (2006) investigated the relationship between migration and economic growth in Australia, Canada, and the USA from 1930 to 2002 by applying the LARD Bound Test Approach and Causality Analysis. The study found a significant relationship between economic growth and migration, and the causality analysis revealed a unidirectional causality relationship between economic growth and migration. Islam (2007) analyzed the relationship between immigration, unemployment, and economic growth in Canada through co-integration analysis with country-specific data for 1961–2001. It is concluded that immigration does not affect unemployment and has a positive effect on economic growth.

Jean and Jimenez (2007) investigated the effect of migration to OECD countries on unemployment. In the study, GMM Generalized Moments analysis was performed with data between 1984 and 2003. There is no permanent effect of migration on unemployment. Ortega and Peri (2009) investigated the relationship between migration and economic growth for 14 OECD countries between 1980–2005. Using Dynamic Panel Data analysis, it was found that changes in the level of migration do not affect economic growth. Heid and Larch (2012) investigated whether migration has an effect on unemployment with data from 1997 to 2007 for 24 OECD countries. Dynamic and Fixed Effects Panel Data analysis was performed and changes in the level of migration did not have a significant effect on unemployment.

Damette and Fromentin (2013) investigated the effects of migration level changes on unemployment in 14 OECD countries using data from 1960 to 2003. In the study, VEEM Panel data analysis was performed, and as a result, a negative relationship was found between migration and unemployment, and it was stated that increases in the level of migration decreased unemployment. Bashier and Siam (2014) investigated the

relationship between migration, economic growth, and unemployment in Jordan between 1980-2012. MOLS analysis was used, and it was found that migration has a positive effect on economic growth and a negative effect on unemployment. Latif (2015) conducted panel data analysis to investigate how immigration to Canada affects unemployment in Canada. Country-specific data for 1983–2010 were used, and immigration had a positive effect on unemployment in this period. Esposito et al. (2020) investigated the effects of migration on unemployment with data between 1997 and 2016 from 15 European Union member countries. Panel data analysis was carried out for this research, and as a result, increases in the level of migration decreased unemployment. This indicates a negative relationship between migration and unemployment. According to Terzioğlu et al. (2021), the relationship between internal migration mobility and national sustainability reveals that internal migration is affected by social innovation and incremental innovation, which are determined as dynamic variables. It is concluded that eliminating the problems in internal migration mobility is closely related to increasing the level of applicability in these variables.

Rayevnyeva et al. (2023) try to quantify the effects on GDP of complete liberalization of cross-border migration worldwide. The level of potential migration is estimated to be 400 million. World GDP is estimated to increase by about 12 percent in the medium term, with a lower estimate of 7 percent if schooling externalizes are included and an upper estimate of 18 percent if network effects are included. A very “econometric” approach was taken in an earlier study by Morley (2006), who tested the direction of causality between economic growth and immigration using a co-integration approach. He finds evidence that growth induces more immigration. Felbermayr et al. (2010) find a clear and robust positive effect of immigration on real per capita income. Bove and Elia (2017) suggest that immigration contributes to economic growth, because immigrants carry new skills and perspectives, although social cohesion may decrease and create communication barriers. They find no evidence that increased diversity eventually comes with increased communication barriers (i.e., for high levels of diversity). Hence, increased diversity seems positively linked with economic growth. This effect is more consistent for developing countries.

Using national data for 1983–1995, Shan et al. (1999) looked into the connection between migration and unemployment in Australia and New Zealand. The study employed VAR analysis and found no causal relationship between migration and unemployment. Feridun (2004) examined the connections between migration, economic expansion, and unemployment

in the two nations. The study employed data from 1980 to 2004; hence, there is a bidirectional association between migration and economic growth as well as a unidirectional relationship between unemployment and migration during this time. A link of directed causality was discovered.

The quantity of empirical studies on immigration from Japan, however, is extremely low. Japanese women who worked part-time as labourers were the subject of a study conducted by Luong and Matsubayashi (2023) using data from the Japanese Census. The research indicates that immigrants harm the proportion of Japanese women employed in manufacturing, although the effect is not statistically significant overall. Although immigrant workers replace capital and non-regular workers, their interaction with regular workers becomes complimentary. The 2010 Census was used to investigate the immigration of Brazilian and Chinese immigrant labourers in Japan (Hashimoto, 2017). According to the study, Brazilian men have greater economic success than Chinese men, but Chinese men's achievements are comparable to those of Japanese men. In addition, the uniformity of Japan's self-image affects its immigration policies (Tsuda, 1999). Government policies based on Japan's perceived ethnic and cultural ties with South Americans have resulted in a rise in the number of temporary workers of Japanese descent from that country. The assumption was that these workers would fit in better than other migrants in Japanese communities (Danyer and Kashiwagi, 2018). Even so, many native Japanese have expressed discomfort or confusion towards the Japanese Brazilians, despite their Japanese traits, because they are not fluent in the language or familiar with Japanese social practices (Tsuda, 1999). Apart from Japanese Brazilians working in physically demanding jobs, a significant number of foreign women are drawn to Japan, both officially and illegally, by Mizushobai, the country's well-established sex business. The promise of well-paying jobs has enticed many migrants to come to Japan to work in these areas, particularly from the Philippines and Thailand.

Economic model

This section discusses the development of a specific model to identify the need for a theoretical discussion of capital, domestic workers, and guest workers. This study aims to investigate how guest workers affect the Japanese economy. Since labour is an important factor in production, the research objectives will be achieved using the Cobb-Douglas production function. According to economic research, physical capital (K) and labour (L) are independent variables in a simple process involving the following:

$$Y = f(K, L) \quad (1)$$

All employees in the nation, however, make up the labour factor. Both domestic labourers (LD) and guest workers (LF) can be used to categorize the labour element. Thus, the production function in its alternative form is as follows:

$$Y = f(K, L_D, L_F) \quad (2)$$

Y Gross Domestic Product in Japan

K is physical capital.

L_D is a domestic worker.

L_F is foreign employment.

The growth rates that result from logarithmising the variables are represented by the parameters, which stand for output elasticity. The logarithmic form of the econometric model is as follows:

$$Y = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \text{Ln}K + \alpha_2 \text{Ln}LD + \alpha_3 \text{Ln}LG + \varepsilon_t \quad (3)$$

It is expected that all variables would positively affect economic growth, as shown by the assumption that $\alpha_i > 0$. Usually, the word describes a distributed error.

Data and methodology

This study employed Japanese time series data from 1990 to 2023 and a fully modified least squares method for analysis. The statistics departments of the Bank of Japan and World Bank Statistics give the number of domestic labourers (LD), number of guest labourers (LG), gross fixed capital formation (k), and real gross domestic product (RGDP).

Unit Root Test

Since OLS parameter estimation generates a very high R^2 , and most macroeconomic variables are nonstationary, a nonstationary process could be the root source of the regression problem. The Augmented Dickey-Fuller test, or ADF, is used.

$$\Delta Y_t = \alpha_0 + \delta Y_{t-1} + \sum_{j=1}^m \beta_j \Delta Y_{t-1+j} + \varepsilon_t \quad (4)$$

The unit root test determines whether a time series variable (Y_t) is constantly changing over time or stable around a fixed level. If the t-statistic is less than (in absolute terms) the Mackinnon critical values, we cannot reject the possibility that the variable has a unit root, indicating that it is not stationary.

Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares Method (FMOLS)

The Fully Modified Ordinary Least Squares (FMOLS) method analyzes the long-term relationship between variables. The research employed FMOLS to examine the connection between foreign labour and Japan's economic performance. FMOLS produces accurate estimates for small sample sizes and ensures the robustness of the results. It was developed by Philips and Hansen (1990) to estimate co-integrating relationships involving I(1) variables. Unlike the Engle-Granger (EG) technique, FMOLS addresses inference issues in EG, making t-tests for long-run estimates more reliable. This technique adjusts the standard least squares technique to enhance its accuracy. It addresses autocorrelation in the data and tests for endogeneity in the independent variables. This adjustment is particularly relevant when there are long-term relationships (cointegrating relationships) among the variables, which can lead to biases in the estimation results. By considering these factors, FMOLS provides more reliable and efficient estimates.

Empirical results

Unit Root Test

When the absolute value of the ADF test statistic (t-statistic) is smaller than the Mackinnon critical values, the unit root hypothesis cannot be rejected. The test for a unit root is a test of the significance of the coefficient of (Yt-1).

Table 1. ADF Test Results

	Level			First differenced		
Variable	ADF	C.V	Lag	DF	C.V	Lag
LnY	1,780	-2,478	0,00	-3,027	-2,478	0,00
LnK	1,487	-2,586	0,00	-4,073	-3,201	0,00
LnL _D	-0,791	-2,481	0,00	-3,928*	-3,157	0,00
LnL _F	-0,820	-2,483	0,00	-4,226*	-3,157	0,00

(*), (**) are the critical values at 1%, and 10% respectively

Co-integration Examination

Since the variables' ADF results indicate that they are integrated of order one, or $I(1)$, it is necessary to find out whether at least one linear combination ($I(0)$) of these variables exists, indicating a stable relationship between the variables (Mazur and Ramirez, 2013). The number of cointegrated vectors was determined using the Johansen cointegration method for any given number of nonstationary variables of the same order. The Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) and Schwartz Bayesian Criterion (SBC) statistics are used to identify the ideal lag length because the Johansen test is highly sensitive to the lag length used in.

Table 2. VAR Lag Order Selection Criteria

Lag	LogL	LR	FPE	AIC	SC	HQ
0	52,8974	102,4789	3,01E-06	-3,157841	-3,24978	-3,20381
1	172,5879	173,5149	4,19E-10	-8,532149	-9,48790	-9,01003
2	715,9157	782,3102*	4.51e-18*	-47,459784	-49,71026	-48,58502

According to Table 3, one or two lags are ideal for use in the cointegration test duration. This is based on the results of the lag exclusion test.

Table 3. VAR Lag Exclusion Wald Tests

	LnY	LnK	LnLD	LnLF	Joint
Lag 1	32,14570	24,78490	37,41578	31,79841	8.16E+15
	[1.29e-05]	[6.75e-06]	[3,19e-06]	[7.08e-04]	[4,57e-08]
Lag 1	5,78422	5,91479	7,47916	6,15479	4.72E+15
	[0,248791]	[0,261487]	[0,231974]	[0,301292]	[3,72e-08]
df	5	5	5	5	25

The findings of the Johansen and Juselius co-integration test, which was used to determine the long-term link between the series, are displayed in Table 4. Whereas the Max-Eigen statistics display two co-integrating equations at a 5% significance level, the trace statistics only display a co-integration rank of one.

Table 4. Unrestricted Co-integration Rank Test (Trace)

Hypothesized		Trace	0.05	
No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic	Critical Value	Prob**
None *	0,678941	67,41247	49,10324	0,00140
At most 1 *	0,531047	29,91348	30,71089	0,01970
At most 2	0,413795	13,29846	16,12473	0,14720
At most 3	0,004315	0,10875	4,01087	0,79670
Trace test indicates 2 cointegrating eqn(s) at the 0.05 level				
* denotes rejection of the hypothesis at the 0.05 level				
Unrestricted Cointegration Rank Test (Maximum Eigenvalue)				
Hypothesized		Max-Eigen	0.05	
No. of CE(s)	Eigenvalue	Statistic	Critical Value	Prob.**
None *	0,678941	38,90314	28,97103	0,03121
At most 1 *	0,531047	14,97901	19,48021	0,07458
At most 2	0,413795	11,46587	13,10798	0,08012
At most 3	0,004315	0,10875	4,03121	0,81024
**MacKinnon-Haug-Michelis (1999) p-values				

Results of the FM-OLS

The model's variables have long-term equilibrium relationships, as indicated by the outcomes of the ADF and Co-integration tests. Estimating the long-run elasticities using the FMOLS method is the next step. The estimation findings from the FMOLS investigation are presented in Table 5. Based on a 10% increase in real capital and a 5,2% rise in RGDP, the FMOLS results show that the fixed capital formation variable (LK) has a considerable positive impact on economic growth.

Table 5. Dependent Variable: LnY

Method: Fully Modified Least Squares (FMOLS)				
Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	t-Statistic	Prob.
LnK	0,520247	0,187321	2,914567	0,02347
LnLD	0,410395	0,154792	2,517932	0,03149
LnLG	0,2534794	0,149763	1,1247954	0,16235
C	5,49802	2,974617	1,962504	0,07194
R-Squared	0,91347	Adjusted R-squared		0,88747

For the factors of domestic and guest labour, the former has a positive and statistically significant value of 3%, and the latter has a positive but small value. Therefore, an increase of 10% in domestic labour increases 4,1% in RGDP.

Further studies

Finding promising directions for future study is essential to improving our comprehension of the complex relationships among immigration, productivity, and innovation. While it would be beneficial to replicate previous research in this area, a more successful strategy might be to assess how policy changes affect the results covered in this study. Modifications to the tax relief scheme for foreign specialists, the new work visa policy, the introduction of study fees for international students, and the integration of the Japanese labour market are the four policy areas that require special attention. Examining these fields may provide light on the causes behind these policies and, consequently, the efficacy of these measures.

A further intriguing extension of current research is to examine the role of ethnic entrepreneurship. Ethnic-based enterprises have a substantial influence, which may be overlooked if entrepreneurs hiring immigrants are not taken into consideration. Foreign entrepreneurs are more likely to hire workers from other countries since they frequently hire members of their own ethnic group. This pattern suggests that the actions of businesses run by foreign entrepreneurs may be the cause of some of the effects on immigrant workers that have been documented in the literature. These business owners might also be more likely to investigate overseas markets

in addition to hiring international workers. There is a need for more research since the growing body of knowledge about how immigrant entrepreneurship affects commerce, especially in the Japanese context, still lacks solid empirical support.

Bringing in foreign graduate students who have finished their studies in the host nation is another possible way that skilled immigrants could affect the way businesses operate in the marketplace. Since these pupils are already citizens of the nation, hiring them offers reduced search costs. Despite may be having little professional experience, they are also highly qualified persons who are conversant with the system of the host nation and have specific knowledge about their country of origin. The benefits of both foreign experience and local knowledge are combined in this recruitment method, which presents a tempting route for future research. Additionally, researching the long-term effects of integrating foreign labourers into the Japanese labour market may shed light on the larger social and economic ramifications of immigration laws. Studies should concentrate on how these labourers affect the native workforce and social cohesiveness, as well as how they contribute to productivity and innovation over the long term.

Creating comprehensive immigration laws that optimize the advantages of foreign talent while minimizing potential drawbacks requires an understanding of these long-term effects. Furthermore, investigations could examine the relative efficacy of several immigration programs in diverse businesses. Depending on the type of employment and the specialized skills needed, certain industries may gain more from skilled immigration than others. Determining these sectoral variations would facilitate the customization of immigration laws to better serve the interests of the economy and raise general levels of innovation and production. The assessment of immigrants' and their families' social and economic integration is a crucial topic for further study. The role of community groups and support networks, as well as the availability of social services, healthcare, and education, are all examined in this. For immigrants to be able to contribute fully to their new society and to ensure that institutional impediments do not stifle their potential, effective integration strategies are essential.

All things considered, a thorough research agenda that looks at policy changes, comprehends ethnic entrepreneurship, hires foreign graduate students, studies integration processes, and looks at long-term and sectoral impacts will give a more nuanced understanding of the role of immigration in productivity and innovation. Policymakers will benefit from this

research as it will assist design a more successful and inclusive immigration system that serves the interests of both immigrants and the host nation.

Conclusion

The distinct features of the Japanese labour market and employment practices indicate a complicated interaction between labour category divisions, firm-specific unions, and educational requirements. Due to their interaction, the labour market offers a unique landscape in which factors such as employment type and employer size have a significant impact on job security, career advancement, and income. When it comes to employment stability and perks, employees in larger organizations have more to gain than those in smaller companies or non-regular roles. This difference can be explained by the dual labour market theory. To analyze labour market developments and create policies that meet the various demands of Japanese workers, it is essential to comprehend these dynamics.

The labour market in Japan is made more complex by the impact of immigration. Motivated by a desire to maintain cultural integrity, Japan has a cautious approach to immigration, which frequently leads to harsh laws that limit the number of foreign workers who can enter the country. But these policies need to be realistically reevaluated in light of the ageing population and labour shortages. A sophisticated grasp of how human capital, both native and foreign, contributes to economic growth is necessary for integrating immigrants into the labour market. According to empirical research, immigrants can have a favorable economic impact, but only if immigration laws are inclusive and their skill levels are high enough.

Having a certain level of education is still necessary to enter the professional labour market in Japan. Professional and technical careers require formal training and skills, which are frequently obtained through postsecondary education. This requirement emphasizes how crucial education is to advance in a job in Japan's labour market. The emphasis on education is in line with the general movement that views human capital as a key factor in determining economic success. Therefore, measures that improve educational possibilities for both native-born people and immigrants may be essential to supporting the job market.

Wider socioeconomic differences are also reflected in the job market's segmentation. Regular workers in large companies have a great deal of job security and benefits, but non-regular workers and those in smaller companies have unstable work environments. This division has wider

effects on social justice and economic stability in addition to having an impact on people's daily lives. Targeted initiatives that offer non-regular workers greater opportunities and protections are necessary to address these inequities and foster an inclusive labour market.

In conclusion, there are possibilities and challenges associated with the assimilation of immigrants into Japan's labour market. Strict immigration laws may, on the one hand, prevent foreign workers from making their full economic contributions. Conversely, well-timed changes that make it easier for qualified immigrants to integrate could lessen labour scarcity and boost the economy. The effect of policy changes on labour market outcomes should be the subject of future research, especially regarding issues like work visa regulations, tax breaks for foreign professionals, and the integration of immigrant entrepreneurs. Japan can maintain economic vigour and social cohesion by tackling these concerns and making greater use of the diversified human resources that exist within its borders.

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CHAPTER TWO

LIVING UNDER REFUGEE LAW
AND SOCIAL EXCLUSION:
SYRIANS UNDER TEMPORARY PROTECTION
STATUS IN TÜRKİYE

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Abstract

Forced migrants navigating host societies confront a layered set of social, economic, cultural, and legal obstacles, among which the legal framework governing their status occupies a central role. This study examines whether temporary protection status (TPS) and its associated rights have become instruments of social exclusion rather than inclusion in the integration and adaptation of Syrians under temporary protection in Türkiye.

Drawing on a narrative literature review, this study interrogates the normative relationship between refugee law and social justice, arguing that legal frameworks, far from being neutral, can actively legitimize and perpetuate social injustice when they fail to align with the realities of protracted displacement.

The findings converge on a troubling pattern: from the perspective of Turkish society, the TPS has functionally transformed into a mechanism of social exclusion, a perception shared and articulated by Syrians themselves. This outcome can be traced to structural inconsistencies between Türkiye's primary and secondary protection legislation, the absence of a time limitation on temporary protection, and the ambiguities of a dual protection framework shaped by Türkiye's geographical reservation under the 1951 Refugee Convention. Synthesizing empirical evidence of discrimination in labor, education, health, and everyday social life, this study situates these findings within broader international debates