
1. Migration and globalization: dynamics and contradictions

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WHAT THIS *HANDBOOK* IS ABOUT

Migration and globalization are two of the most important socio-economic phenomena of our time. The linkages between them are multiple and far-reaching – the recent COVID-19 pandemic being the most obvious example of how human mobility and overall processes of economic and political globalization are closely intertwined. The aim of this *Handbook* is to highlight the interdependence between migration and globalization and explore the mutual impact of economic, social, and political globalization on international population flows and, vice versa, to investigate whether and how migrants become themselves agents of the globalization process.

The book is organized into five key areas that correspond to the four domains of human life: politics, economics (separated into trade and development, and the global division of labour), culture, and family life. These areas notably are: governing migration in the age of globalization; the global economy and migration; the interlocking dynamics of internal, inter-regional, and international migration; the links among migration, globalization, and climate change; and last but not least the cultural ramifications of migration in a global era. Each key area comprises a range of specialized topics written by international experts in the respective fields. Contributors to this book come from different disciplines including anthropology, geography, sociology, politics, economics, and law, and from all world regions. Each chapter provides an overview of the most important research questions at hand, the relevant scholarly literature, main approaches, and findings as well as current and future challenges and topics for research.

This second edition introduces several new chapters covering the question of migration and health; paying increased attention to the linkages between climate change and human mobility; reviewing the role of advanced digital technologies (ADTs) in the governance of migration and asylum; and investigating the processes of return migration.

MULTIPLE PATHWAYS OF MIGRATION IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD

Migration has been intensifying and diversifying in the last 25 years. According to the 2022 *World Migration Report* edited by Marie McAuliffe and Anna Triandafyllidou (WMR 2022), there were 281 million international migrants in 2020 (international migrants are here defined as people living in a given country who are either foreign-born or with foreign citizenship) – or 3.6 per cent of the world's total population and nearly 15 per cent more than only five years earlier, in 2015. While the percentage of international migrants within the global population has changed only by +0.2 per cent, their absolute number has significantly increased (+15 per

Table 1.1 *International migrants, 1970–2020 (WMR 2022, p. 23)*

Year	Number of international migrants	Migrants as a % of the world's population
1970	84,460,125	2.3
1975	90,368,010	2.2
1980	101,983,149	2.3
1985	113,206,691	2.3
1990	152,986,157	2.9
1995	161,289,976	2.8
2000	173,230,585	2.8
2005	191,446,828	2.9
2010	220,983,187	3.2
2015	247,958,644	3.4
2020	280,598,105	3.6

Note: The number of entities (such as States, territories and administrative regions) for which data were made available in the UN DESA International Migrant Stock 2020 was 232. In 1970, the number of entities was 135.

Source: UN DESA, 2008; UN DESA, 2021.

Table 1.2 *International migrant population stocks by destination and origin, 2015 (millions)*

Destination/ Origin	D/ed R.	D/ing R.	Africa	Asia	Europe	LAC	NA	Oc/a	Other	World
Dev_ed regions	55.2	85.3	12.0	40.3	50.4	29.7	2.5	1.6	4.1	140.5
Dev_ing regions	13.0	90.2	20.6	59.5	9.2	6.1	1.9	0.2	5.7	103.2
Africa	1.4	19.2	16.4	1.2	1.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	1.9	20.6
Asia	8.8	66.3	4.1	59.4	6.9	0.4	0.5	0.1	3.6	75.1
Europe	42.0	34.2	9.2	20.2	39.9	4.6	1.0	0.4	0.8	76.1
LAC	2.8	6.4	0.1	0.3	1.3	5.9	1.3	0.0	0.3	9.2
NA	9.2	45.2	2.3	15.5	7.5	24.6	1.2	0.3	3.1	54.5
Oceania	4.0	4.1	0.5	3.0	3.0	0.2	0.2	1.1	0.1	8.1
World	68.2	175.5	32.6	99.8	59.6	35.8	4.3	1.8	9.8	243.7

Source: UN International Migration Report, 2015, DESA Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations, Table 1.2, page 2, available at www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2015.pdf, last accessed 13 April 2017.

cent) even though it is estimated that the global COVID-19 pandemic reduced the international migrant stock by approximately two million (WMR 2022, p. 23).

It is worth noting that international migration oftentimes occurs within the same major area of the world (UN International Migration Report 2015, p. 14). Indeed, this is the case for most migrants originating from Asia (60 per cent of the total, equivalent to 62 million persons), Europe (66 per cent or 40 million people), Oceania (59 per cent or one million people), and Africa (52 per cent or 18 million people) who live in another country of their major area of origin. It is only in Latin America and the Caribbean and North America where the majority of international migrants (84 per cent for the former and 73 per cent for the latter) live in a country outside their major area of birth. This clearly shows that there is a lot of intra-regional migration taking place, including within Asia and Africa between countries of different income levels. This attests to a complicated pattern of population flows that defies simplistic perceptions that all migration is directed to Europe or North America.

Recent analysis of migration corridors presented in the *World Migration Report* (2022, p. 27) also shows that some of the most important corridors are situated within the same world region, for instance, from Mexico to the United States, from Syria to Turkey, or between Russia and Ukraine (before the war). Other corridors involve two distant locations and different world regions such as India-UAE, India-Saudi Arabia, and India-US, to give a few examples.

Understanding the dynamics of the international movement of people requires placing migration into its broader socio-economic and political context with a view to understanding how international migration interacts with broader processes of social, political, and technological transformation. The integration of the world economy, the rapid growth of international trade, and the progress of digitalized technology are all important levers of socio-economic globalization. They intensify interconnectedness, facilitating the flow of information, goods, services, capital, and raw materials. This has several consequences on the economic and social life in different regions of the world and on international population flows.

As developing regions become integrated in international trade, they experience both the advantages and disadvantages of the global economy. Production is becoming both de- and re-localized through the emergence of global supply chains. This creates an increased and diversified supply of goods and services for both developing and developed regions but also leads to a global division of labour that is highly unequal. Local firms may thus become integrated into larger networks of production, but they may also be driven out of business because of the dominance of multinational conglomerates. Similarly, such socio-economic restructuring may create more jobs in factories and services in developing and less affluent regions yet may also drive large segments of the population in these same regions out of their properties and professions.

The global economy's integration has also changed the nature and intensity of competition between and within sectors of production, thus undermining the capacity of states to regulate their labour markets and maintain welfare guarantees for their workers (particularly in the developed regions where labour rights protection is institutionalized). These phenomena are also feeding into one another; thus technological advances create a competitive edge for industry and drive further research with a view to developing new technologies and increasing productivity and growth.

These shifts that take place largely in the economic field have important repercussions in society and politics. They may boost overall growth and drive economic development but they also increase socio-economic inequalities and often environmental hazards too. The social transformation spurred by restructuring the economy or local or regional production system alters social and economic hierarchies (as some people benefit more than others), influences values, and shapes lifestyles. Such changes may also lead to political upheaval, instability, or ethnic conflict when relations between ethnic or linguistic groups are destabilized.

In addition to these long-term processes, the global COVID-19 pandemic accelerated and intensified the role of ADTs in all walks of life, from migration governance to the provision of services (for instance employment orientation or language classes), how work is organized (for all, not just for migrants), and how people communicate and engage whether in the country of origin or destination or indeed globally.

The intensification of use of ADTs may widen old or create new divides related to digital literacy and access to high quality internet. ADTs and related algorithms (for issuing visas, offering newcomer support services, or facilitating migrant worker recruitment) incorporate past data usage and risk perpetuating negative biases. At the same time ADTs can also facilitate

communication and boost migrant agency, reinforce engagement and transnational solidarity, or create echo-chambers thus fuelling divisions and even extremism in society.

Socio-economic and technological transformations such as those induced and intensified by the globalization processes briefly described above are usually drivers of increased international migration. They magnify grievances and opportunities that lead people to seek better living and working conditions in distant lands while also facilitating transport and communication.

This *Handbook* focuses on the dynamics that link migration and globalization processes from an economic, social, political, and cultural perspective, looking at the challenges that emerge for labour markets, welfare systems, families and cultures, institutions and governance arrangements as well as norms. In the sub-sections that follow I discuss in more detail, and with reference to the relevant literature, the interconnection between migration and globalization before focusing more specifically on the governance of migration today in a globalizing context. The final section presents an overview of this *Handbook's* contents.

WHAT IS GLOBALIZATION?

Globalization 'refers to the widening, deepening, and accelerating of global interconnectedness' and can be described and understood in terms of four socio-spatial dimensions (Held et al. 2003, pp. 67–8): extensity, referring to the stretching of social, political, and economic activities across borders; intensity, the intensification of interconnectedness and of patterns of interaction and flows; velocity, the speeding up of global interactions and processes; and impact, deepening enmeshment of the local and global in ways that local events may affect distant lands.

Interconnectedness is fuelled by the advances in information and communication technology (ICT) of the past couple of decades. Transnational flows (of capital, goods, services, people, media images, ideas, or pollution) are key indicators of globalization, while transnational networks (of corporations, markets, governments, NGOs, crime syndicates, cultural communities) are its key organizing structures and ICTs its key tools (Castles 2000, p. 271).

Globalization has numerous political implications. It brings a series of challenges to the state (as a politico-territorial form of social organization), which appears to surrender to supranational institutions or private actors, while its borders are transcended by multiple flows and networks. Sassen (1996) identified a partial de-nationalization of national territories and a partial shift of some dimensions of sovereignty. Migration, however, remains largely anchored to the national state and to its control over its borders. While early accounts over-emphasized the powerful tendency of globalization to undermine state sovereignty and erode national borders, more recent approaches – and even recent events in Europe, North America, or Asia – underline the (re-)bordering processes advancing hand-in-hand with globalization forces (Andrijasevic and Walters 2010).

Turning to the economic implications of globalization, it is worth noting that the de-facto transfer of the control of national economic policy instruments (monetary policy, for instance, or interest rates) to supranational institutions and the domination of market forces over politics have important implications for democracy and the legitimacy of governments elected by the citizens. At the same time, policies at the national level and beyond are being challenged by transnational social movements (Hardt and Negri 2000; Castells 2010b). Moreover, exposure

to global forces at a time of generalized cuts in public spending deprive states from their earlier function of providing social protection for their citizens.

The cultural dimensions of globalization are complex and multidimensional. Already in the 1960s, Marshall McLuhan coined the term ‘global village’ to describe the social implications of transformations in the media from an individualistic print culture to interactive electronic interdependence. The proliferation of electronic digital media and communication tools radically transforms the patterns of human interaction and experience of time, space, and place (Appadurai 1996; Castells 2010a) while substantially altering our perception of our social and political context. The instant spread of media images and information across the globe does not simply shrink the distance between places or cultures, but irreversibly distorts distinct cultural forms and conduces to increasing homogenization under the prevalence and worldwide diffusion of ‘Western’ lifestyles and a global culture of consumerism. Yet, while globalization accelerates cultural homogenization, at the same time it also produces heterogeneity (Appadurai 1996), whether as a reaction to global forces or as a product of the global cultural flows. Cultural globalization can exacerbate identity-related conflicts as local grievances – for instance of second-generation migrant youth – that can be related to global hierarchies of power between Islam and the West, fuelling both religious fundamentalism and xenophobia and anti-immigrant sentiment (Triandafyllidou 2016).

Arguably, the changes that globalization brings are felt most strongly in the domain of economic production. Indeed, globalization entails multiple processes of economic restructuring that involve structural, technological, organizational, and spatial rearrangements of production and exchange, and a reconfiguration of the relationship between capital and labour. Global restructuring is spearheaded by the dominance of financial capital in productive and increasingly speculative investments, the rise of information as an important factor of productivity, the further growth and global character of multinational corporations, and the fragmentation and decentralization of the production process through practices of subcontracting and outsourcing. Global restructuring has given way to a new international division of labour as post-Fordism in the Global North went hand-in-hand with industrialization in the Global South. The combined effects of socio-economic change in developing and developed countries, respectively, briefly outlined in the next two paragraphs, set the background within which international migration accelerates and diversifies in the twenty-first century.

While the rise of India and China as well as Brazil as major economic players cannot be overestimated, the international economy and the global production system continue to be governed by mostly Western institutions, notably governments in North America and Europe and international agencies such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and the World Bank (Sassen 1998; Stiglitz 2006; Castles and Delgado Wise 2007). Despite promises of increased prosperity for all, the forces of globalization and the politics shaping it appear to exacerbate inequalities both between and within countries. Capital investment to developing countries had increased six-fold between 1990 and 1996 (Stiglitz 2006, p. 7), but the share of the world income they receive dropped from 32 to 19 per cent in 1970–2000 (Castles and Delgado Wise 2007, p. 5). While integration in the global economy and international trade networks offers important benefits to new industrial centres, the accelerated and segmented character of these processes unsettles local economies, replacing domestic production with export-oriented activity in specific sectors. Combined with the effects of structural adjustment programmes and uniformly applied recipes of privatizations and cuts in public investment, economic glo-

balization often leads to job loss (Taran and Geronimi 2003, p. 3) or informal work as a means of survival (Triandafyllidou and Bartolini 2020).

While the increased digitalization of production and trade generate a demand for a highly skilled workforce, related socio-economic and demographic changes also stimulate a demand for low-skilled labour to provide for cheap goods and services, thus producing further labour market segmentation. This type of socio-economic transformation is particularly pronounced among small firms in labour-intensive sectors such as agriculture, food processing, construction, and manufacturing as well as with the growth of demand for personal services such as domestic and care work (Palumbo, Corrado and Triandafyllidou 2022; Marchetti 2022).

Labour market segmentation does not entail, of course, clear-cut separating lines between formal and informal sectors but rather a complex web of activities and practices part of which may be registered while others are not. Sassen's (2001) analysis of global cities explains how the formal and informal sectors are intrinsically connected, as the expansion of middle and upper-middle classes generates a demand for consumer goods and services, coupled in turn with further demand for cheap goods and services by the lower social strata. Precarious and informal work thus emerges as 'a structural feature of contemporary globalization' (Peterson 2010, p. 244) and relates to the need for cheap and flexible labour.

MIGRATION AND GLOBALIZATION: DANGEROUS LIAISONS

Migration is 'global' par excellence: ever since early humans embarked from Africa to colonize the world, 50,000–60,000 years ago, the history of humanity is a history of migrations. If globalization's origins are to be traced to the beginnings of capitalism and modernity, as we have seen, then the development of a world labour market since the sixteenth century or so is a history of global migration, as L. Potts (1990) has shown, explaining how European expansion, colonialism, and industrialization involved mass population movements of colonizers and slaves, indentured labourers and convicts, new world settlers and industrial workers.

Naturally, migration is part and parcel of the dynamics of globalization – one of its most visible faces, key dimensions, and major driving forces complementing and reflecting processes of reorganization of production in global supply chains and acceleration of international trade. Processes of globalization have significantly changed the patterns of international migration, but they are also affected by the multidimensional migration trends. As Castles and Miller (2009) evocatively entitled their book, we lived in 'the age of migration', characterized by globalization, acceleration, differentiation, feminization, politicization, and a proliferation of migration transition (ibid., pp. 11–12). However, in the last decade things have changed. On one hand the global pandemic brought the world to a standstill, showing that some crises spurred by globalization such as a pandemic can bring migration to a halt. On the other hand, ADTs have become ubiquitous and have pioneered a different type of mobility, whether that of 'digital nomads' (Dreher and Triandafyllidou 2023) or that of digital platforms through which placeless work emerges (Lam and Triandafyllidou 2022).

The migratory movements of today are affecting virtually every part of the globe. This is primarily what Castles and Miller (2009) called the *globalization of migration*. The geographical span of global migration trends is evolving into an ever-complex map where previous patterns described as 'settler', 'colonial', or 'guest worker' migrations give rise to new forms of legal and irregular migration, co-ethnic and diaspora movements, as well as phenomena

like the feminization of migration (Triandafyllidou and Gropas 2014). There is now a differentiation of migration as there is a multiplicity of types and forms of migration and a diversity of migratory channels and routes, partly resulting from evolving and fragmented migratory policies. In addition, the *migration transition* no longer follows explicit linear patterns as in the past, and several countries or entire regions emerge at the same time as sending, receiving, and transit ones.

Even though the root causes of migration today remain essentially the same as ever – economic need, search for security and better quality of life prospects (including a future for one’s offspring) – there has been diversification, blurring, and overlap of the specific factors fuelling migration on a global scale. Migration theories of the past overstressed static push-pull factors, and neoclassical economics focused on wage differentials and other developmental disparities – both largely remaining the case. Nevertheless, rather than rationally acting individuals deciding on their own upon cost-benefit calculations, the new economics of labour migration shifted the level of analysis towards the micro and meso levels, highlighting the importance of family networks in migration decisions as well as in the migratory process at-large (Stark 1991).

The rise of international migration in recent decades is linked to growing inequalities, but also to the growing interdependence and interconnectedness, economic or otherwise, propelled by the forces of globalization (King 1995; Stalker 2000; Koser 2007; Castles and Miller 2009; Solimano 2010). These may be based upon the complex economic underpinnings of contemporary migration, as exemplified for instance in its relationship with accelerated and liberalized international trade (Rapoport 2018; Solimano 2010) or in the deeply intertwined mobility of labour and capital, usually moving in opposite directions (Sassen 1990; Sassen 2014; Delgado Wise 2022). People, however, do not take emigration decisions in a vacuum, nor respond mechanically to shifting conditions at home or changes in demand at destinations.

The role of migrant agency is crucial in understanding international migration in today’s dynamic environment. Agency implies that the migrant is able to exert a certain degree of control over structural factors and social relations. But more importantly agency denotes the intentional action of the migrant who seeks to navigate a set of given conditions and opportunity structures as they evolve. Even if information may reach them in an often-distorted way, people are increasingly *aware* of potentially better prospects elsewhere through images transmitted by global media and the internet, but also by those already departed, from their stories and visible benefits to relatives left behind, for example from remittances and Western-style consumption.

Homogenizing lifestyles and consumer habits diffuse more than ever a sense of *relative deprivation* in comparison to ‘Western’ living standards and the possibilities for personal development (Koser 2007; Castles and Miller 2009), thus rendering spatial mobility a generalized means for social mobility (Bommes and Sciortino 2011, p. 214). Smartphones and different types of software like Skype, WhatsApp, Zoom, or similar as well as the broader social media and YouTube have essentially transformed the figure of the migrant from an uprooted person to a connected one. Established transnational social networks and diaspora communities abroad not only affect migration decisions but may also assist with movement itself and provide support or employment in destination (Cohen 2008; Vertovec 2009).

Migrant decision-making and agency have received increasing attention in recent years regarding the role of desire, hope, and imagination in shaping decisions to migrate and the interplay between motivation, opportunity, and ability to migrate (Koikkalainen and Kyle

2016; Belloni 2016; Bal 2014; Carling and Schewel 2017; Collins 2018; Nakache, Pellerin and Veronis 2015).

The micro-level experience is of course shaped by structural factors such as gender, race, ethnicity, language, and class, all of which, with their intersections, shape household decisions on who migrates as well as migrants' labour market integration (Kofman and Raghuram 2006; Triandafyllidou and Isaakyan 2016). Recent research (Veronis 2014; Obokata and Veronis 2018) shows that women's household responsibilities vary in different spatial and cultural contexts, thus influencing their participation (or not) in local or international migration. From a governance perspective, migration and related policies around labour, development, welfare, health, and security are all gendered, often assuming a male breadwinner/primary migrant model (Kofman 2004; Kofman et al. 2000).

The multiplication and diversification of international migration flows and the dynamic role of migrants in navigating policies invites us to consider how migration governance develops in a globalizing world. This is the focus of the next section.

MIGRATION GOVERNANCE IN A GLOBALIZING WORLD: THE QUEST FOR DE-CENTRING

Migration is one of the important transnational governance challenges of our times. Questions of migration policy, management, and control are moving beyond national and local institutional frameworks and bilateral agreements towards regional and multilateral cooperation between receiving, transit, and sending countries. One could talk of the globalization of migration preoccupations in the sense that migration is a central political issue for high-, middle-, and low-income countries (Pécoud and de Guchteneire 2005, p. 5).

While calls for inter-governmental cooperation in migration are perhaps 60 years old, in recent times there has been a true impetus for setting up of a global governance framework for migration through the Global Compacts on both migrants and refugees and the resulting consultations. Even though international migration remains a contested topic – countries of origin and destination, migrants and their families, civil society organizations and international institutions having different views and interests – a consensus has been emerging that migration is mutually beneficial (a win-win-win situation for migrants, countries of origin, and countries of destination) if it is safe, regular, and orderly (GCM 2018).¹

The narrative of the 'good' regular migrant has become dominant, if not hegemonic, obscuring alternative perspectives on the needs and interests of different actors involved in the governance of international migration as well as different realities on the ground. The case of migrations across the Mediterranean in the past 15 years – but particularly since 2015 – can only testify to this stark contrast between the dominant policy narrative for a safe, regular, and orderly migration and the actual reality on the ground. There are strong drivers of both economic and humanitarian migration that push people to defy restrictions or borders and to move through channels that are disorderly, unsafe, and more often than not irregular.

The dominant narrative of safe, orderly, and regular migration tends to unilaterally privilege the wishes and needs of receiving country governments (and employers or other stakeholders), disregarding the country of origin, country of transit, and migrant's own perspective (Mouthaan 2019; Collet and Ahad 2017). This is not to say that migrants or countries of origin do not wish for migration to be orderly and safe and regular (quite the contrary actually). But

rather it is to say that our understanding of international migration and its governance remains predominantly Western-centric and focused on states and international organizations while we need to pay more attention to the role of different stakeholders and actors (Cuttitta 2020). We need to open up our perspectives and de-centre our approaches to international migration governance with a view of not only including those of origin and transit countries, but also those of a variety of stakeholders and of different spatial contexts, both rural and urban (Triandafyllidou 2022). This is not simply about acknowledging the multi-level governance of migration but about incorporating views from the margins (Cuttitta 2020).

The term ‘migration governance’ goes beyond government to designate the interaction and networking between public and private actors, both in horizontal (non-hierarchical) and vertical (hierarchical) ways in the governing of migration flows and migrant integration processes. It recognizes that relevant actors include not only national authorities but also civil society, employers, trade unions, various intermediaries like travel or employment agencies, education institutions, and formal and informal networks. Migration governance activity typically occurs at the national (and local to some extent) level as regulating borders and controlling who belongs to the nation-state and who does not is a quintessential aspect of the nation-state system and of national sovereignty (Scholten and Penninx 2016). However, the national and transnational levels are closely intertwined, even interdigitated as what occurs at one level affects the other, while several of the non-state actors involved may operate transnationally (see also Panizzon and van Riemsdijk 2019). This includes legal actors like education institutions, travel agencies, employment agencies, and non-governmental organizations, as well as illegal actors like migrant smuggling networks, those who forge or sell identity documents, and of course criminals like human traffickers.

The current hegemonic discourse about regular, predictable, safe, and orderly migration involves both state actors (notably, countries of origin, destination, and transit, and their different ministries and services involved in the governance of migration flows) and transnational stakeholders and networks of governance such as international organizations like the IOM, ILO, or the UNHCR; large transnational NGOs like Caritas or Doctors without Borders, Oxfam, or Terre des Hommes; inter-governmental forums like the Global Forum on Migration and Development; expert networks like the Global Migration Policy Associates or the Global Detention Project; or companies like Western Union, large phone and internet providers, or the not-for-profit World Education Services, to state only a few examples (Geiger and Pecoud 2010; 2014; Betts 2010). We are also increasingly witnessing ways in which transregional institutional cooperation shapes intraregional cooperation and governance (Bisong 2019).

Beyond the different interests, narratives, and action domains of the multiple actors implicated in migration governance at local, national, and transnational levels, we must not lose sight of the wider socio-economic and political context within which current flows and past or future ‘crises’ are embedded. We need to make sense of migration governance in relation to different periods and phases of migration so as to highlight the links between migration flows and wider social, economic, political, and cultural trends (see also Triandafyllidou et al. 2014, chapter 1). Oftentimes discussion of migration governance evolves around specific migration ‘crises’ like the refugee emergency of 2015–16, the Syrian conflict, or the protracted Venezuelan crisis but misses the larger context.

The migration flows across the Mediterranean from south and east to north and west need to be analyzed within the post-1989 end of Cold War context. Indeed, it has already been 30 years since the fall of the Berlin Wall. The implosion of Communism signalled the start

of new massive migration flows within Europe, mostly from east to west and south during the 1990s and early 2000s. Capitalism and a free market liberal democracy were greeted by political elites in both western and eastern Europe as the ‘good’ political and economic system. From then on, it was believed, human history would be a linear path without any significant ideological conflicts as Francis Fukuyama posited (1989; 2006). While Fukuyama did not necessarily mean that people were happier or better off thanks to historical ‘progress’, he argued that history as a coherent intelligible process had come to an end and liberal democracy had affirmed itself as the form of government. Even though several international crises marked the 1990s (the first Gulf War, the breakup of Yugoslavia, the bankruptcy of Argentina, the Oslo Agreements, the Kosovo war), it was 9/11 and the re-emergence of international terrorism that began to shake the ground beneath this vision that ideological conflict had ended. Even though the global order was no longer about two opposed poles of power, history had not come to an end but was actually (re-)started and with it several conflicts in different world regions as well as mixed migration flows of people seeking both protection and a better future.

Along with international terrorism, though, there were two concomitant processes that took place peacefully and discreetly – albeit with important repercussions for global governance in general but also for migration governance in particular. The first was the rise of new global economic powers; China, India, and Brazil emerged as world-level economic powerhouses that remained emigration countries but at the same time became migration destinations. The second and closely related phenomenon was different types of regional integration processes that developed or further reaffirmed themselves in various areas of the world like Latin America, Africa, and Asia, alongside deeper economic, if not political, integration in Europe that led to the development of enhanced regional mobility regimes within the European Union, but also within MERCOSUR in South America, the ECOWAS in West Africa, and to a lesser extent within ASEAN in Southeast Asia (Triandafyllidou et al. 2019).

In addition, the last decade has seen the emergence of transnational social and political grassroots movements including the mobilization around the 2011 Arab Spring, the Indignados movements across Europe and elsewhere in the years following the global economic crisis of 2008–09, and the rise of the climate change youth mobilization (Fridays for the Future).

While concerns with global challenges such as environmental protection or world peace date back to the 1970s, they have acquired a new, more markedly transnational character and a new form of ‘simultaneity’ – through the new possibilities that they could avail via social media. Migrants and refugees could be seen to navigate the Balkan route with their smartphones, citizen journalists have documented both the Arab Spring and the indignados or *gilet jaunes* protests, and Greta Thunberg could greet her supporters from the train that brought her from Stockholm to London.

These new elements that characterize the last 30 years – notably the emergence of new powers, the emergence/formation of a global civil society, and the increasing regional integration in different parts of the world – have created a new environment for migration governance too. Migration governance has to be understood within this volatile, multi-lateral context and needs to be related to the wider dynamics of an increasingly interconnected international environment. Understanding migration governance within the contemporary context requires zooming away from the narrower national and ‘Western’ destination country perspective and adopting a de-centred, culturally informed approach.

The notion of de-centring follows on from where the concept of ‘worlding’ has left. Worlding is a term initially coined by critical feminist theories (Spivak 1985) stressing the fact

that a situation in which we live is neither homogenized and global nor separate and local but situated at a specific place and at the same time immersed in transnational networks (Wilson 2007; Wilson and Connery 2007). ‘Worlding’ has been used in feminist studies to point out that critical gender approaches need to acknowledge that the experiences and issues of women (and men) in the Global South are different from those in the world’s west and north. The concept is inscribed in the post-colonial critical perspective and proposes a critical deconstruction of global governance discourses today.

Such a critical and de-centred approach follows on from relevant studies in international relations (Tickner and Blaney 2012) and global governance (Triandafyllidou 2017). It emphasizes the parochialism of Western-dominated scholarship but also the importance of engaging with such ‘different’ perspectives critically. Thus, for what concerns migration governance, the viewpoints of destination and transit or origin countries are mutually constitutive: they need to acknowledge each other and include each other’s views.

CONTENTS OF THIS *HANDBOOK*

This *Handbook* is organized into five parts. The first focuses on the governance of migration in the age of globalization and kicks off with a chapter by Idil Atak, who succinctly analyzes the international human rights framework for migration. This chapter offers an overview of the current normative and institutional framework regarding migrants’ international human rights and explores the restrictive policies implemented by states with a view to ‘managing’ migrations in a globalizing world. After highlighting some of the major achievements in the protection of migrants’ human rights at the international and regional levels, the chapter discusses how human rights law has become the primary source of migrants’ protection. It then identifies some of the recent challenges faced by migrants and how these relate to their human rights. To this end, the chapter focuses on international labour migration and the global refugee regime that not only offer an elaborate framework for migrants’ protection but also illustrate the tension characterizing the governance of migration in a globalizing world.

Chapter 3 focuses on the multi-level governance of migration and the role of international organizations. Antoine Pécoud, Shoshana Fine, and Sabine Dini note that migration policy has never been limited to the state level. While national governments usually retain the power of deciding on the admission of non-nationals, the broader governance of migration is always multilevel. The policy issues raised by migrants’ incorporation in receiving societies, for instance, are often addressed locally, at the urban level. In federal and decentralized states, other aspects of migrants’ lives (such as welfare entitlements) are dealt with at the level of regions or provinces. Beyond the state, regional integration processes influence national policymaking; this is evident in the case of the European Union (EU), but also elsewhere in the world – for example in South America’s Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) or the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). Finally, international actors have long-established standards that constrain states’ behaviours, such as human rights or the principles contained in the Geneva Convention. This chapter reviews the history of international organizations’ interest and involvement in migration issues, discusses why and how their role has changed, and offers a critical overview of the role of international organizations in contemporary ‘global migration governance’ and its impact and consequences.

The fourth chapter, authored by Oleg Korneev, focuses on the globalized third sector in migration governance. It starts with a discussion on the third sector's growing involvement in the migration field at local and national levels since the 1990s. Making a distinction between local and global civil society actors, the chapter proceeds with an analysis of the third sector as new governors aspiring to shape and enact migration regimes regionally and globally. Furthermore, the chapter reveals complex patterns of interactions between the third sector and other actors in global migration governance, paying attention to aspects such as financial dependence, subordinated politics, and competition. The chapter also draws on insights from recent scholarship that goes beyond examining pro-, anti-, and proper migrant organizations in Western liberal democracies, thus looking at the field from a genuinely global perspective. It critically assesses the notion of diaspora often unreflexively applied to various migrant organizations and challenges the ethnic lens typically used in such studies. It discusses important ideal-typical distinctions between advocacy and service-providing civil society organizations while emphasizing that they are often blurred on the ground. It also addresses intersections between migration and health, showcasing the role of the third sector in securing migrants' access to healthcare during the COVID-19 pandemic and discussing other important aspects of the migration-health nexus. The chapter shows that, against the backdrop of vanishing 'global migration governance optimism', uneven developments across top-down regional migration governance initiatives, as well as sustained criticism of various intergovernmental institutions, third sector actors have been steadily moving to the centre-stage of migration governance and related research.

Chapter 5, by Lucia Nalbandian, delves into the role of ADTs in migration governance today. This chapter examines the nexus of technology and migration, namely, the role of ADTs in governing migration. It begins with a clearly defined, pointed list of relevant definitions on ADTs and related concepts. What follows is an exploration of migration governance and how the role of technology in migration governance has changed. This chapter examines the everchanging roster of actors in the realm of migration governance, including state and non-state actors. Then, to build on the diverse role that various actors can play in the governance of migration, this chapter examines the power dynamics of using ADTs to govern migrants – from relying on machine-learning to sorting through immigration applications to engaging drone technology to prevent undocumented migrants from crossing physical land borders. In conclusion this chapter invites readers to consider what role – both positive and negative – ADTs can play in the governance of migration.

Bernadette Kumar and Sneha Ojha, in Chapter 6, turn to the complex interactions between migration governance and health services, a sector that has gained increased attention after the recent COVID-19 pandemic. The interlinkage between population movements and the cross-border international spread of diseases has been a long-standing public health concern. Yet, the recognition of migration as a determinant of health and a factor impacting in diverse forms on the physical, mental, and social health and well-being of migrants is a more recent area of focus. This new awareness has propelled the theme of the health of migrants, refugees, displaced people, other mobile groups, and surrounding communities to the forefront of global attention within both the public and health discourses, as well as in migration policy and governance debates. Existing knowledge shows that in most cases, the improved socio-economic conditions migrants meet in their destination countries yield positive health outcomes, and that migrants contribute positively to economies, societies, and health systems. However, for many migrants – particularly those in the most vulnerable circumstances – the adverse situations

experienced along their journey and at destination, including limited access to healthcare and public health protection, socio-economic disadvantages, marginalization, discrimination, and neglect, too often translate into illnesses and harm. In the case of the COVID-19 pandemic, migrants and displaced populations have suffered the consequences of the pandemic the most. The pandemic unequivocally demonstrated that in a globalized world and in interconnected societies nobody is safe until everyone is safe, and that social exclusion pays no public health dividends. This chapter outlines the global health and migration policy discourses and what challenges persist in advancing the agenda of health for refugees and migrants for the well-being of all.

The first part of the *Handbook* concludes with two chapters that focus on the dark aspects of migration and globalization, notably migrant smuggling and forced labour. Ilse van Liempt in Chapter 7 reviews the complex phenomenon of migrant smuggling. She notes that global mobility has given rise to an entire 'industry' of migration involving individuals, institutions, humanitarian organizations, private companies, and transnational criminal organizations. The process of the facilitation of movement across international borders which is not authorized by the state, often referred to as human smuggling, is a growing business. Even though the body of academic literature on human smuggling is growing, the field (still) suffers from sensationalist media accounts, public and political agendas that want to 'fight' smuggling, and difficulties in generating data. There is relatively little work on theoretical and conceptual aspects around human smuggling, and the empirical work that is available on human smuggling is discipline-bound and often regionally focused or case study-based. This chapter provides an overview of various disciplinary readings of the literature on human smuggling and identifies the most important gaps in the literature.

Chapter 8 by Fabiola Mieres turns to consider the linkages between migration, recruitment, and forced labour in a globalizing world. Over the years, the number of initiatives seeking to address 'labour recruitment' as a governance priority have augmented from a variety of actors spanning not only governments, but also corporations and NGOs. Even though efforts of advocacy and awareness-raising are important developments in terms of highlighting the connections between human trafficking and forced labour with recruitment practices, there is a risk of isolating the topic from employment and structural transformation issues while obscuring the nature of the root cause of extreme forms of labour exploitation. Building on a dataset of initiatives constructed between 2014 and 2017 to show how the field evolved, the chapter ends by reflecting on the case of recruitment practices between Mexico and the US in the context of the Fair Food Programme to illustrate what constitutes an 'integrated approach' to addressing systemic labour exploitation while suggesting areas of further research.

Part II investigates the linkages between migration, trade, and the global economy.

Stein Monteiro in Chapter 9 reviews the close link between migration and trade as this is reflected in formal trade agreements like USCMA (formerly NAFTA), AFTA, MERCOSUR, and CETA and analogously through temporary and permanent migration programmes operating in immigrant-receiving countries like Canada, the US, and Australia. These schemes regularize the flow of merchant traders and entrepreneurs that drive goods trade, technology, and knowledge transfer across borders. Further, the presence of multinational corporations has meant that trade and migration are further linked through intra-company transfers and the offshoring of production processes to different parts of the world. Aside from these formal agreements and programmes, there are also non-formal migration and trade routes that connect people and economies. The rapid growth in the volume and diversity of international

migrants for study, work, and family has allowed for the creation of new value chains through the demand for more cultural goods, exports-imports, and a demand for diversity in products. This chapter discusses the interrelatedness of migration and trade through the operation of various formal trade agreements, transnational actors, and non-formal (i.e., outside of trade agreements) migration trends.

Chapter 10 focuses on migration and development in relation specifically to the role of remittances. Bilesha Weeraratne argues that migration and development are part of the same process that is constantly interactive and remittances are the most important link between the two. International migration has a great capacity to influence development in both the origin and destination country through the movement of tangible and intangible resources across countries. Weeraratne focuses on the role of such remittances in the nexus between migration and development. Adopting a broad and nuanced concept of development, this chapter presents a theoretical background on the role of migration and remittances in development and the manner in which migration and remittances have impacted it. In doing so, the chapter examines the developmental aspects of health, education, housing, poverty, inequality, employment and entrepreneurship, financial inclusion, conflict, politics, and macroeconomy while acknowledging that the pure effect of migration and remittances on development cannot be easily discerned due to complicated socio-economic impacts. This chapter also considers the latest developments in the field of migration and remittances such as the use of fintech and blockchain technologies.

K. Ravi Raman and Jajati Keshari Parida discuss the relationship between migration and innovation with a special focus on the case of India in Chapter 11. India is one of the top emigrating countries in the world with a diaspora of 18 million Indians worldwide as of 2021 (WMR 2022). India is also one of the countries in the Global South witnessing large-scale internal migration, particularly in the post-reform phase – since the early 1990s, to be precise – and this is an even more significant development with huge implications for the regional economy. However, these two streams of migration are quite disparate and distinct in India. International migrants are mostly aspirants, relatively better skilled and from economically better-off (mostly from high- and middle-income groups) households. They often have very strong social support networks in the destination countries. In sharp contrast, the internal movements of people within the country are mainly driven by poverty and hunger and unemployment, with mostly low-skilled and unskilled migrants looking for means of survival. The Indian economy's recent structural transformation from mainly agricultural to non-agricultural coupled with the technological change in the form of agriculture's mechanization and the construction sector boom are believed to affect this process too. This chapter attempts to explore the trends and patterns of international and internal migration, their underlying causes, and socio-economic consequences using secondary data sources such as the UN Global Migration Database and India's National Sample Survey. The chapter is organized in four sections. The first explains the trends and patterns of international migration and its reasons. It also provides the details of remittance receipts and their role in poverty, economic growth, and overall socio-economic development in India. The next section explores the trends and patterns of internal migration and looks at the causes and consequences for urbanization in India. Finally, the chapter closes with some concluding remarks.

Matteo Sandi in Chapter 12 investigates the link between migration, education, and crime. The chapter shows that one critical way in which migration affects earnings is by improving access to high-quality education and reducing the risk of criminality. Having discussed the role

of migration in determining economic adjustment in times of prosperity and in times of crisis, this chapter reviews education and crime as two key mechanisms behind the earnings' returns to migration. What is the existing evidence in the economics literature? How may migration be able to generate economic adjustment through these channels? What evidence exists of the effect of migration on education and crime outcomes? These are the questions this chapter seeks to answer.

The third part of this *Handbook* turns to regional migration governance patterns and the interlocking dynamics of internal, inter-regional, and international migration.

The section begins with Mary Setrana and Michael Okyerefo's chapter on internal and international migration dynamics in Africa. The nature of Africa's migration history presents a challenging but interesting perspective on the dichotomous traditions of internal and international migration. The relationship between internal and international migration is complex, stemming from various factors such as the introduction of visa regimes in the 1970s; the implementation of EU externalization policies on the continent; the use of diverse data sources; different analytical techniques and research focus; and different funding and policy emphasis. In Africa, recent migration management strategies pay attention to international migration, often centring on movements from Africa to Europe, but mostly ignore how Africa was divided by non-Africans, which has been at the core of internal and international migration differences and challenges. However complex, only a few scholarly works and policies have focused on this area of research, which comprises a knowledge and policy gap that is worth investigating. Against this background, Chapter 13 seeks to examine the intricate relationship between internal and international migration in the African context. The chapter argues that the uniqueness of Africa's migration history makes it more appropriate to describe the link between internal and international migration in its own right and how internal and international migration in the African context complement and supplement each other.

Chapter 14, by Qian Zhang and Xiaoyi Wang, investigates the internal and international migration dynamics in China. Human movements within and across China's borders are increasingly diverse, complex, and interlinked, in strong entanglements with changing globalization and urbanization processes. Based on a systematic review of the intellectual developments, this chapter highlights the longstanding but rarely explicitly explored linkages between China's domestic migration and globalization, and between domestic and international migration. The literature suggests that China's internal migration, mostly taken as rural-to-urban labour movement, is significantly shaped by international divisions of labour and China's own positioning in global production networks. Meanwhile, migrants' internal migration/mobilities are required to be connected to international migration infrastructures based in strategic urban areas. This chapter further shows that although internal and international migration studies in China have been largely separated from each other and locked into their different main concerns, their themes and views commonly echo the development-migration nexus approach. Yet, this approach is not enough for capturing the new forms of migration and migrants in China, such as lifestyle migrants, elite expatriates, and African traders. The chapter concludes by discussing how research on migration in China can go beyond the main institutionalist approach and related rural-urban and internal-international binaries by deeply engaging with theories and methodologies in the broad discipline of migration studies.

Irina Molodikova in Chapter 15 discusses the turbulent patterns of migration in the Eurasian system with a focus on Russia. The author notes that migration in the Eurasian system is still affected by the former Soviet system and the processes of nation-building that ensued in the

1990s as well as related armed conflicts. Russia continues efforts to maintain a dominant position in relations with these countries, supporting a visa-free space with most of them and attracting their labour migrants. However, over the course of 30 years, new political and economic unions of these countries and memberships have been formed – the CIS, the EAEU, the EU membership or the possibility of it – that generated new directions and types of migration. New sub-regional migration centres have appeared in the region, like Kazakhstan, influencing migration flows. The geography of these flows is not expanding in Russia's favour despite its efforts to remain the main engineer of political and economic unions in the region. The COVID-19 pandemic had a great impact on the transformation of migration flows in the world and in the region, as well. It negatively affected seasonal and circular migrations, which are traditional for migratory movements within the region mainly to Russia, and restructured migrants' employment. The pandemic increased political and economic instability in the countries of the region, giving rise to series of crises, wars, and coup d'état attempts, accompanied by a surge of forced migrants, mainly within the region. The Russian military operation since 24 March 2022 not only provoked an outflow of refugees into the EU and other countries of the world, unprecedented since the Second World War, but aggravated the global economic crisis. It is difficult to foresee all the consequences of this process at the present time, but there is no doubt that they will be global.

Chapter 16, authored by Diego Acosta and Luisa Feline Freier, investigates the regional processes of migration governance in South America. This chapter offers an overview of recent developments as well as the literature on migration governance in South America at both the regional and national levels. The chapter focuses on regional free movement agreements, specifically the Southern Common Market (MERCOSUR) Residence Agreement and Decision 878 of the Andean Community (CAN). It also discusses these regional instruments' impact on the legal and political responses to the arrival of the more than five million Venezuelan refugees and migrants.

Richa Shivakoti in Chapter 17 looks at the governance of labour migration in South and Southeast Asia. Shivakoti notes that circular labour migration among Asian nations is a significant trend for the thousands of men and women who move to other countries to work in low-wage sectors for repeated one- or two-year stints. It remains a vital opportunity for migrant workers and their families to earn a livelihood, for their sending countries through remittances, and for the destination countries where they work and contribute to the economy. Narratives for the migration-development nexus have often highlighted the positive aspects related to such migration schemes but there are also many issues related to precarity, vulnerability, and lack of access to rights that are equally important. This chapter sheds light on how Asian countries are governing temporary labour migration through a cross-cutting layer of bilateral, sub-regional, regional, inter-regional, and global cooperation efforts, by both state authorities and non-state actors.

Chapter 18, by Andrew Geddes, focuses on the governance of migration within the European Union. Geddes notes that the past, present, and future, the EU and European integration within the EU are closely bound with international migration to, from, and within European countries. The 'governance' of this migration is widely seen as reflecting a re-scaling of the response across levels of governance (sub-national, national, and supranational) as well as the involvement of a wider range of both public and private actors. In contemporary Europe, migration could take the form of the 'internal', intra-EU/EEA migration associated with a supranational treaty-based right to free movement that has become central to the EU's identity as an inter-

national organization, or what the EU defines as ‘external’ (that is, from non-EU countries) migration and asylum. It is accurate to say that migration (in its various forms) became a – if not *the* – defining issue in European politics in the 2010s and to this day. This chapter surveys the governance of migration in Europe and efforts to deal with its fragmentation. This fragmentation is an inherent feature of a policy field that includes very different types of migration – to work, study, seek refuge, join family members, to name but four – as well as differing institutional contexts for the management of migration in European countries. The fragmentation of the governance field also poses major challenges to the EU in its quest to develop common migration and asylum policies. In addition, a more recent challenge is the divergence between the drivers of migration that can cause people to move to Europe (economic inequality and conflict being key reasons) and the drivers of migration politics (with increased public opposition to immigration) in European countries.

Zeynep Sahin Mencutek and Umran Gurses (Chapter 19) discuss the governance and politics of migration in the Middle East. This chapter focuses on the politics of immigration and migration governance in the post-Arab Spring Middle East when the region saw conflict-induced mass displacements of Palestinians, Iraqis, and Syrians. These have become protracted refugee situations, creating socio-political concerns in neighbouring receiving countries and raising questions about sincere responsibility-sharing of refugee protection at the global scale. Although responses of regional states, including oil-rich Gulf countries with high demand for migrant labour, have quite different drivers and governance dynamics, their overall immigration policies also have some similarities. Reception policies tend to be ad hoc and assume the temporal stay of many immigrants, strategically avoiding focus on migrants’ permanent protection or integration thus aggravating immigrants’ multidimensional precarity. The chapter examines how these two interlinked tenets – temporal approach and multidimensional precarity – are mainly driven by regional receiving countries’ social, demographic, and security concerns as well as domestic and international political interests.

Pragna Rugunanan in Chapter 20 investigates the regional migration dynamics in southern Africa. The author argues that migration on the African continent has always been a part of everyday life. Migration within the continent is more prevalent than migration from Africa to Europe or other parts of the world. In the southern African region, people migrate for work and trade, because of political instability, cultural reasons, seasonal labour migration, forced displacement, and environmental hazards. In 2022, there was an estimated 363.2 million people and 6.4 million international migrants in southern Africa. Migration occurs mostly intra-regionally. Policies and Africa/EU partnerships around migration and mobility in southern Africa emerge largely as a result of bilateral agreements between EU member states and southern African governments, such as between the Netherlands and South Africa, and the DRC and Belgium. South Africa is the most developed country in the region and an economic pillar, making it attractive for trade, education, and other opportunities. The chapter proposes to explore the socio-economic impact of globalization and migration, cognizant of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic’s effect on mobility in the region. A desktop review of the current literature on migration governance on the regional migration dynamics in southern Africa is presented, juxtaposed against the economic, social, and political globalization and migration flows in the region.

Part IV of the *Handbook* reviews the linkages among migration, globalization, and climate change.

In Chapter 21, John R. Campbell and Richard Bedford review the role of climate change in migration in the Pacific region. Climate change is likely to compromise the habitability of many Pacific Island locations in three ways: reducing land security (a place in which to live); decreasing livelihood (e.g. subsistence and cash incomes); and diminishing habitat security (e.g. healthy and safe environments). These reductions in the island life support systems are likely to be drivers of induced (voluntary) or, in the most severe circumstances, forced migration. Pacific Island people have a long history of migration, and (to varying degrees) several countries have migration access to Pacific Rim countries. However, some of the countries that are among those likely to be most seriously affected – including Papua New Guinea, Tuvalu, and Kiribati – have a very restricted range of migration options. A key issue in the Pacific is the relationship between the people and their land, which in most parts of the region is believed to be mutually constitutive. There is growing resistance to climate change induced or forced migration in many of the islands identified by ‘experts’ as being among the most vulnerable and scientific notions of habitability are being challenged by traditional knowledge-holders. Whether people are able to stay in place or have to move, the loss and damage caused by rupturing the bond uniting people and their land are incalculable.

Fanny Thornton (Chapter 22) reviews the concept and policy category of climate refugees. This chapter considers the complex interacting factors that contribute to both migration and immobility in the context of climate change. It investigates push and pull factors of migration, factors contributing to immobility, broad trends, hotspots, opportunities in moving on or staying put, as well as the potentially detrimental effects of either. Attention is paid to emerging scientific evidence concerning climate (im)mobility, and dynamics in select regions are highlighted. The chapter concludes with commentary as to how (im)mobility is best supported, or at least how some of its potentially harmful consequences can be minimized.

Last but not least, Kathleen Hermans discusses climate change and migration in Central Asia. Hermans notes that research on climate change and migration has blossomed in the past two decades, but has largely concentrated on Africa, South Asia, and the US. Other regions at high risk, including Central Asia where migration is highly important for local livelihoods, remain a major blind spot in climate-migration studies, as such creating critical knowledge gaps. Central Asia – including the countries of Uzbekistan, Kazakhstan, Tajikistan, the Kyrgyz Republic, and Turkmenistan – experiences high levels of water stress, mainly caused by climate change, drought, and extreme evapotranspiration. Together with long-lasting mismanagement of natural resources, this has threatened agricultural production, food security, and health conditions, and aggravated rural poverty. Chapter 23 reviews existing research on how climate change affects migration dynamics in central Asia. It pays special attention to approaches used to identify, measure, and understand migration related to climate change and its consequences. Considering the scarce empirical evidence, the chapter concludes by identifying priorities for future research to improve Central Asia’s position in the current and upcoming debates on climate change and migration.

Part V concentrates on cultural perspectives on migration in a global era. Chapter 24, the first chapter in this section, discusses transnational family dynamics in pandemic times in Asia. The authors – Brenda S.A. Yeoh, Franchesca Morais, Theodora Lam, and Shirlena Huang – note that family ties in an era of transnational migration are constantly being either challenged or facilitated by changing political, social, economic, and technological conditions in the global world. Within Asia, family formations and practices are especially shaped by transnational mobilities that are primarily transient, repeated and/or circular. Drawing on the

efflorescence of Asian transnational families with the mutually constitutive effects of ‘family’ and ‘migration’, this chapter first utilizes ideologically laden imaginaries to give coherence to notions of belonging despite the physical dispersal of their members. Second, it highlights how transnational families are realized through lived experiences, where various degrees of intimacy are negotiated across transnational spaces in the context of the advent of new communication technologies and the time-structuring conditions of Asia’s prevailing migration as well as pandemic regimes. Finally, it examines how families assume transnational morphologies with the strategic intent of ensuring economic survival or maximizing social mobility. The growing literature on Asian transnational families is thus paving the way for a more critical understanding of gender and generational relations, identities, and politics within families.

Chapter 25 looks at transnational families in the era of global mobility and digital lifeworlds. Authors Loretta Baldassar, Majella Kilkey, Laura Merla, and Raelene Wilding note that as a result of the dominance of highly individualized, economic, and gendered analyses of migration and globalization processes, family life has often been relegated to the ‘back stage’ of research on globalization and migration. This chapter examines the relationship between family, globalization, and migration through the lens of care and in the context of increasing global mobility and rapid developments in communication technologies, focusing specifically on the experiences of transnational families. The chapter begins by examining how uneven globalization processes produce ‘crises of care’ that migration can help alleviate. It moves on to explore the transnational care strategies migrants and their kin in the country of origin develop to maintain familyhood across borders, including when trapped in immobility. In such a context, the opportunities provided by information and communication technologies to maintain connections and to care across distance have become especially important. In conclusion the chapter argues that mobility and internet access are thus key features of globalization that require careful policy attention at both national and transnational levels.

The *Handbook* concludes with Chapter 26, which focuses on the gender-migration nexus more broadly. Sabrina Marchetti, the chapter’s author, notes that taking a gender perspective changes our understanding of migratory phenomena. She discusses the notion of ‘feminization of migration’ and offers an historical overview of the scholarship that has developed around the gender–migration nexus in the last 50 years. After a general description of the main characteristics of ‘gendered migrations’, the chapter pays special attention to the case of migrant domestic and care workers that have become a central object of inquiry in this scholarship, mobilizing notions such as ‘international division of reproductive labour’ or ‘global care chains’. Another case dealt with in more detail is that of people who are trafficked, asylum seekers, or refugees by looking at the way the gender dimension affected their experiences as well as the norms and policies activated to respond to their specific situations.

NOTE

1. This section borrows heavily from Triandafyllidou, A. (2020) De-centring migration. A radical view, *Geopolitics*, 27(3), pp. 811–25.

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