

Facilitating cooperation on migration and mobility between the European Union and India

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INDIGO POLICY has received funding from the European Union's Seventh Framework Programme for Research, Technological Development and Demonstration under Grant Agreement No 609535.

Date of publication: April 2017
First edition

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EU	European Union
HSM	Highly skilled Migrants
ICWF	the Indian Community Welfare Fund
JAP	Joint Action Plan
LMPA	Labour Mobility Partnership Agreement
MOIA	Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs
MoUs	Memoranda of Understanding
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
R&D	Research and Development
UK	United Kingdom

ABSTRACT

This analytical report reviews from a theoretical perspective migration and mobility within the EU-India Strategic Partnership.

The literature review confirms that the major challenge facing both partners lies in translating formal government agreements into deeper partnership applied to field of migration and mobility.

This study concludes that migration and mobility between India and the EU is already occurring but could be further enhanced by an adequate policy framework between both regions.

INTRODUCTION

This paper discusses the importance of reinforcing the dialogue on migration and mobility between India and the European Union (EU). This paper tries to answer two main research questions: is the current policy framework encouraging Indian highly skilled migrants to come to the Europe Union? Why is it critical to address the importance of highly skilled migrants to reinforce the strategic partnership between India and the EU?

In this policy brief, it is assumed that the European Union is falling short in attracting highly skilled Indian migrants despite the contribution that Indian highly-skilled migrants could play in solving the labour shortages in the EU.

The first part of this policy brief, intends to present the importance of the status of engagement between India and the EU in the field of migration and mobility. In addition, it is also explains the importance of highly-skilled migration and the reason why Indian and EU policy makers should further develop a coherent agenda on migration and mobility between these two regions.

The second part of the paper briefly outlines the Indian initiatives and policies in migration and mobility.

The paper concludes by highlighting some key issues that are both relevant for India and the European Union.

METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The analysis presented in this report draws on literature from a wide variety of sources. The research team exclusively conducted a review of official sources, in particular European Commission communications, several research studies both from India and Europe, directives, reports, and documents from the Indian Ministry of Science and Technology and other public Indian actors. Research from European and Indian scholars on science, migration and mobility were also compiled and this information was then used to develop an initial draft.

FIRST PART: SETTING THE SCENE OF THE ANALYSIS

1.1 INDIA AND THE EUROPEAN UNION LOOKING TOGETHER TO THE HIGHLY SKILLED MIGRATION

The EU-India relations have significantly progressed over the last years. The EU-India cooperation agreement began in 1994 and this agreement has increasingly been updated including a wide range of areas of collaboration between both regions (European Council, 2013).

In 2004, India and the European Union entered into a strategic partnership enabling both partners to better address international issues in the context of globalisation and increasing of economic integration. This political cooperation covers different international concerns such as security, international political issues, energy, environment, climate change and trade (European Commission, 2016). The rise of India as an increasingly important economic and strategic partner brings a range of benefits to the European Union (Fargues et al., 2010).

In support of the strategic partnership, leaders at the 2005 summit (and revised in 2008) adopted the EU-India Joint Action Plan (JAP), which defined common objectives and proposed supporting activities in the areas of political, economic, and development cooperation (European Commission, 2012). The improvement of ties between both regions intended to facilitate trade, investment, and human capital movement.

As policy dialogue is concerned between India and the European Union, the movement of human capital is limited to setting up of a joint working group to enhance cooperation on delivery of consular and visa services, business and tourism, and facilitating the movement of people between the regions. For instance, the JAP aimed to enhance the education and academic exchanges between the regions, but this has not yet been materialised. While the small increase in emigration flows from India to the EU countries are indicators to the potential of these developments or commitments, they have not so far resulted in any substantial increase in emigration flows from India to the EU countries.

The talks on India–EU engagements have underlined the importance of engagement on movement of people between the regions. In 2001, the European Commission presented a proposal for a directive to establish a common legal framework for migration to the EU, covering a full range of labour migration issues. However, this initiative was blocked by some Member States, as migration falls within the jurisdiction of national governments (González et al., 2013).

In response, at the European level, the Commission proposed segmented alternatives as it put forward individual measures for different types of migration. One of these initiatives was the directive known as the

“Blue Card Directive”¹ in 2009, for highly skilled migrants (HSMs²). This was the first to achieve approval and Member States were obliged to transpose it by mid-2011. According to several studies, the Directive is generally considered to be insufficient to answer all the demands as it does not give immigrants access to the whole European labour market, but only the country they apply for the blue card, allowing only subsequent movement to a second state under strict conditions (González et al., 2013). This might be partially explained by the income disparity among EU Member States, which is the main reason for the refusal of some EU richer countries, such as Germany, to accept the free movement of HSMs, as many could qualify for a permit in a poorer Member State.

Nevertheless, if it is compared to the United States (US), its main competitor, there are some areas in which it falls short in this regard. For instance, labour markets are bigger in the US and migrants have the possibility to move freely to different states in the US, while in the EU there is an additional application process to migrate to a different EU Member State. Secondly, even if they could move freely across Member States, the divisions in the “common” European labour market would impede their mobility (González et al., 2013).

The 12th EU-India Summit in 2016 discussed possible ways to facilitate mobility at EU level and Member States level, which also prevent and combat irregular migration; however, it still does not clearly define a EU migration roadmap for facilitation and enhancement of human capital movement between India and the EU.

Literature review has demonstrated that European migration policies have evolved considerably in recent times, and the doors of many EU Member States are only opened to HSMs (González et al., 2013). However, the European Union is not attracting highly skilled migrants in comparison to the United States. It is estimated by a study that “69 % of Indian-born immigrants in the US have completed tertiary education and the educational profile of the Indian population in Australia and Canada also favours highly-educated migrants, with respectively 53.3 % and 40.7% of Indian migrants having tertiary degrees”. On the other hand, the skills composition of Indian migrants in Europe is largely composed by migrants with lower of education (Fargues and Lum, 2014).

An important concern related to the EU labour market is the ageing of its population and it is estimated that by 2020 a labour shortage of 12 million in the EU across all levels of workers. These projections also indicate shortages in large numbers in the high skilled categories as opposed to low-skilled category workers (CEDEFOP, 2010).

Setting an adequate EU migration framework with India since India is amongst the world’s leading sources of highly-skilled labour and will thus allow the problem of shortage of highly-skilled labour in the EU. As Kadria (2006) expresses, the migration of highly skilled Indians to developed countries has been a key factor in the continued increase in scientific and industrial output and resolved domestic labour shortages in many of advanced countries.

1 Directive 2009/50/EC — Conditions of entry and residence of non-EU nationals for the purposes of highly qualified employment

2 Highly skilled persons are commonly defined by education or occupation, that is, by their human capital and/or by their current jobs. The most common definition defines skilled persons as those 25 and older who have tertiary education (Martin, 2012).

The next section addresses a short reflection on the importance of the mobility of the international mobility of highly skilled migrants.

1.2 THE IMPORTANCE OF THE INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY OF HIGHLY SKILLED WORKERS

The international mobility of highly skilled workers, in particular human resources in science and technology such as scientists, engineers and IT experts is a crucial policy issue in the majority of Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (OECD, 2008). Highly skilled persons are commonly defined by education or occupation, that is, by their human capital and/or by their current jobs.

The emigration of skilled workers such as researchers and scientists can be beneficial for creating and diffusing knowledge in their country of origin. In particular, emigration possibilities may encourage the development of skills. In addition, when skilled individuals move to larger and 'denser' economies, they can benefit the sending country by producing 'better' knowledge than they could at home, accumulating human capital faster and improving their productivity, thereby increasing the potential return flows of knowledge. This in turn can increase the global stock of knowledge.

Mobility is not just about meeting demand for professional workers, its capital for innovation stems from its contribution to creating and diffusing knowledge. The continued growth of formal research and development (R&D), the expansion of scientific publishing and the rapid rise of patenting attest to this. Once they are in another country, people transmit their know-how and skills. In the workplace, knowledge spreads to colleagues, especially those in close contact. Knowledge also spills over to people and organisations nearby and can contribute to the emergence of local concentrations of activity. Mobile talent also acts as a vital complement to the transfer of knowledge through flows of goods and capital, especially in high-technology production areas, across several borders (Freeman, 2006).

There is also evidence that R&D conducted in a foreign country has a positive effect on domestic productivity of the receiving country. Using data from 16 major OECD countries from 1980-98, Guellec and Van Pottelsberghe de la Potterie (2001) indicated that R&D cooperation conducted in other countries can have a major positive effect. Thus, while higher productivity certainly benefits the receiving country, it may also increase knowledge creation and opportunities for knowledge flows back to the source country, as well as positive productivity effects.

The "brain circulation" can stimulate knowledge transfer to sending countries. This may mean the return of skilled migrants to their home country after a period abroad, or a pattern of temporary and circular migration between home and abroad. According to OECD analysis (2008), "professionals diffuse the knowledge they acquire to their home country and maintain networks, thereby facilitating continuing knowledge exchange. To make the most of brain circulation, the home country needs to have sufficient absorptive capacity and returning talents need to be able to re-enter local labour markets at a level that is appropriate for their skills and knowledge".

Human capital is thus put to its most productive use and valuable human capital is not wasted. The literature on economic geography associates the movement of labour to agglomerations with productivity gains and a larger effective global human capital stock. An international job market can improve the quality of job matches for both workers and employers; when employers need to access scarce or unique skills, it is increasingly efficient to search across borders, while workers, for their part, can scan a wider labour market to find the work most interesting to them. According to Regets (2001), "better international flows of knowledge guides to more efficient knowledge production everywhere and better solutions to problems and less duplication of R&D".

Additionally, one study by Dolman (2008) confirmed a positive correlation between migrants and bilateral trade flows, "with a 10 % increase in the number of migrants from a particular country estimated to raise bilateral trade with that country by 0.9 %. The data further revealed that migrants have a larger effect on the direction of trade than on its volume, as lower trade costs due to migrant knowledge tend to shift the direction of trade".

Theory suggests that mobility of highly skilled workers is associated with overall global gains. Labour mobility is a part of globalisation and is re-allocating labour to locations where it earns the highest return (OECD, 2008).

The importance of migration and mobility of researchers and scientists can provide benefits globally as summarised in table 1.

Table 1: Possible effect of highly skilled international migration on receiving countries

Possible positive effects	Possible negative effects
Science and technology <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased R&D and economic activity due to availability of additional highly-skilled workers • Entrepreneurship in high-growth areas • Knowledge flows and collaboration with sending countries • Immigrants can foster diversity and creativity • Export opportunities for technology • Higher Education Systems • Increased enrolment in graduate programmes and keeping smaller programmes alive • Offset ageing of university professors and researchers • Labour market • Wage moderation in high-growth sectors with labour shortages • Immigrant entrepreneurs foster firm and job creation • Immigrants can act as magnets for accessing other immigrant labour (network hiring effects) 	Higher Education Systems <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decreased incentive of natives to seek acquisition of higher skills; may crowd out native students from best schools • Science and technology • Technology transfer to foreign competitors, possibly including hostile countries

Source: Cervantes and Guellec (2002)

1.3 LABOUR MARKET SCENARIO IN THE EUROPEAN UNION

According to the 2013 Eurostat publication "The EU in the world 2013 — a statistical portrait", the labour force (aged 15 to 64) in the EU-27 was around 240.4 million persons, of whom 216.7 million were in employment in 2011 (Eurostat Statistical books, 2013). An important issue connected to the labour market in the EU is the ageing of its population. All EU Member States face the problem of ageing and this problem is expected to continue for at least another 50 years (Chanda and Gupta, 2015).

In addition, based on some recent analysis from Fargues and Lum (2014) and Chanda and Gupta (2015), this imbalance in the EU age pyramid has resulted in a declining ratio for the working population vis-a-vis those who are retiring or have already retired.

According to Eurostat Statistical books (2013), there were four people of working age (aged 15-64) for every EU citizen aged 65 years or over in 2008. In addition, by 2060, this figure is estimated to come down to two people of working age for every EU citizen aged 65 years or over. As a consequence, the share of people aged 65 years or over in the EU population is expected to increase from 17.1 % to 30.0 % during the same period.

This ageing phenomenon at the European level is probably to affect its Member States not only socially but also economically in a significant manner in the coming decades. An important dimension to be considered of ageing in the EU is the demand-supply mismatch that has ascended in several of its Member States, which is expected to intensify in coming years if appropriate solutions are not taken to resolve this issue (Chanda and Gupta, 2015). Another consequence of ageing and resultant demand-supply mismatch is the skilled labour shortage that has emerged in the Member States of the European Union.

This increasing demand for skilled labour, due largely to Europe's success in attracting huge manufacturing FDI inflows is creating a situation in which the demand-supply gap for skilled labour is proving difficult to fill (Chanda and Gupta, 2015).

The tertiary sector of most EU countries received the largest share of foreign investment in the past few years. Table 2 shows FDI inflows for selected EU economies during the period 2007-2010.

Table 2: FDI inflow (flow) in selected EU countries

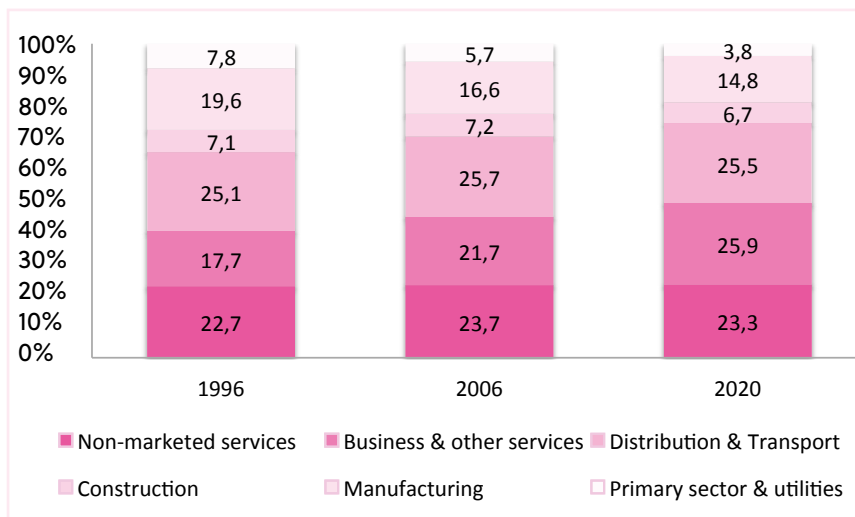
Country	Sector	2010	2009	2008	2007
France	Primary	-648	262.9	988.8	183.4
	Secondary	5,911.70	1,324.10	19,326.90	6,973.40
	Tertiary	-4,574.60	14,435.30	4,356.40	41,042.20
Germany	Primary	176.3	-57	2,217.70	765.1
	Secondary	17,619.90	10,496.50	-5,608.80	7,553.70
	Tertiary	26,415.30	30,301.80	22,410.40	74,110.60
UK	Primary		-6,222.30	1,080.90	1,738.80
	Secondary		8,216.30	34,309.10	23,642.80
	Tertiary		64,806.80	49,848.70	161,003.40
Italy	Primary		6,913.80	7,748.90	4,512.50
	Secondary		4,363.00	4,262.60	6,750.30
	Tertiary		16,856.70	16,779.60	21,460.70
Poland	Primary		15.8	159.9	194.9
	Secondary		4,749.60	2,282.10	6,839.00
	Tertiary		8,398.50	12,427.60	15,259.30

Source: Author's construction based on information retrieved from International Trade Centre Investment Map

The table shows that the tertiary sector has steadily attracted a higher proportion of FDI inflows for most EU countries. Reports on employment projections in the EU recognise that there will be more job vacancies in the field of finance and business activities segments in the years to come (ENM, 2011).

Figure 1 outlines that business and other services have been over the years increasing, confirming the connection between investment, growth and labour market needs, and consequently, it is also deduced an increase in immigration requirements across sectors.

Figure 1: FDI inflow (flow) in selected EU countries



Source: Employment trends by broad sector shares in % EU-25 + Norway and Switzerland (Cedefop, 2008) Note Figures are as per IER (Warwick) Estimates based on Cambridge Econometrics E3ME model. E3 refers to energy-environment-economy. E3ME models were first constructed to analyse the long-term implications of policies on energy-environment-economy. For more details, see Pollitt (2009).

Table 3 shows the estimated employment gap in the European Union by 2050 and the employment rate required to fill the vacancies against a current employment rate of around 63 % (Chanda et al., 2014). Table 4 displays the number of skilled workers coming to specific EU countries in recent years, mostly on short-term visas.

Table 3: Employment gap in the EU by 2050 (four scenarios)

Scenario	Employment gap (in thousands)	Employment rate needed to close gap (%)
Ageing effect only	30,485	76
Baseline scenario	30,216	76
No migration scenario	20,904	78
Low growth	25,915	75
High growth	36,972	76

Source: Cedefop (2009), Table 3.2:32,

Table 4: High-skilled worker entry from non-EU nations

Country	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
Poland	5,083	4,583	4,046	4,424	4,920	5,697
UK	69,000	52,000	58,000	52,000	50,000	36,000
Spain		8,899	3,462	4,637	9,407	6,568
France	917	981	1,111	1,254	3,124	3,953
Germany				151	221	311

Source: European Migration Network (2011), "Satisfying Labour Demand through migration", European Commission

According to the study CEDEFOP (2009) (Table 3) and the European Migration Network (2011) (Table 4), clearly show the fact that the skills shortage in the EU is a continuing problem and that short-term work permits will not be enough to resolve it (Tejada et al., 2014). At the same time, the issuing of long-term permits remains a sensitive topic in the EU, despite the need for such workers.

1.4 LABOUR MOBILITY PARTNERSHIP WITH THE EUROPEAN UNION

As already mentioned in the previous section, the India–EU engagements for facilitating cooperation of the movement of people initiated with the India-EU Joint Working Group on Consular Issues. According to Gupta (2013), India and the European Union have foreseen the possibility of signing a Labour Mobility Partnership Agreement (LMPA) to ensure controlled migration between the two regions.

Another report states, "that partnership envisages the exchange of information relating to diverse fields of employment. The aim of the LMPA is to provide cooperation in areas of labour market expansion, employment facilitation, orderly migration, exchange of information and cooperation introducing best practices. In addition, labour mobility is part of another policy initiative within the India-EU Bilateral Trade and Investment Agreement that has been under negotiation since 2007" (The

Economics Times, 2010). It is worth highlighting that there has been no progress to date on labour mobility. Therefore, without any common EU migration policy and the difficulty to obtain a visa and work permit in the EU acts as major deterrents to Indian migrants interested in moving to the EU for work (Gupta, 2013).

More recently, the EU-Summit Brussels in 2016 led to another Joint Declaration between India and the European Union on migration and mobility. However, this Joint Declaration did not contribute further to the engagement of both sides on this matter.

In the next section, it will be explored the migration from India to the European Union.

SECOND PART: MIGRATION FROM INDIA TO THE EUROPEAN UNION

This section briefly explores the migration from India to the European Union, taking into consideration the outward emigration and some key policies initiatives.

In India, it is difficult to obtain reliable data concerning Indian migrants abroad. This view is supported by recent studies of Guha (2013), Van der Mei (2013) and Verma (2013) revealing that the Indian government did not make any substantial efforts to get data on a regular basis and in a systematic manner (Premi and Mathur, 1995). Nangia and Saha (n.d) (cited in Gupta, 2013) mentioned that some researchers have used census data and other sources to estimate the number of Indians in overseas countries (Davis, 1951; Desai, 1963; Jain, 1982; Madhvan, 1985).

Nonetheless, considerable progress has been made by the Indian government in improving its capacity to collecting data related to emigration of Indians abroad. As a matter of fact, the National Sample Survey Office of the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation Government of India has conducted a Round of Socio-Economic Survey from July 2007 to June 2008 and obtained relevant information (Gupta, 2013). Sasikumar and Hussain (2008) had shown some data on annual labour outflows from India based on statistics provided by the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs, Government of India.

Relying exclusively on the accessible data, Sasikumar and Hussain (2008) outline that two noticeable patterns are possible to be observed, notably for emigration since the 1990's:

- Persons highly skilled, high technical qualifications and skills migrate to high-income, developed and traditionally migrant-receiving countries such as Canada, the United kingdom (UK) and the US;
- Unskilled and semi-skilled workers and professionals migrants, with contract workers to the high-income countries in the Gulf (mainly to the GCC countries).

Figure 2: Annual Labour Outflows from India as Indicated by Number of Emigration Clearances Granted (1990-2007)



Source: Author's construction based on Sasikumar and Husain (2008), Table 11, Page 50

According to the analysis of Gupta (2013), although precise emigration data is not openly available in India; many destination countries in the European Union have collected information of Indians who have immigrated to their territories, in their immigration registers. Hence, it is possible to find some information from the receiving European Member States side on the number of Indians who have migrated to these nations.

Regarding this data, it is possible to see that the UK is the leading country, attracting the largest number of Indian emigrants, followed by Denmark, Italy, Germany, Netherlands and Sweden. It is worth to mentioning that this data relates exclusively to remunerative activities and includes the categories of Highly Skilled Workers, Researchers, Seasonal Workers and Other Remunerative Activities (Gupta, 2013).

Figure 3: Annual immigration to Selected EU Countries

Source: Author's construction based on data obtained from Eurostat Database



According to Eurostat database, the UK and Italy received almost three quarters of the total annual immigration to the EU from India for the period of the analysis. Conversely, many of the EU Member States have only received a small number of Indian migrants over the period 2008-2009. In addition, an analysis of immigrants according to their occupation category reveals that the majority of these emigrants are either highly-skilled workers or are involved in other remunerative activities (Gupta, 2013).

Sasikumar and Hussain (2008) also highlighted that Belgium, France and Germany are considered new main destination countries for Indian migrants, mostly for white-collar jobs, as these nations "are facing severe skill shortages in many of their emerging sectors and hence have designed specialised employment programmes to solve such shortages".

2.1 EMIGRATION INITIATIVES AND POLICIES OF GOVERNMENT OF INDIA

According to the study of Gupta (2013), emigration in India is mainly directed by the Emigration Act of 1983, which defines “Emigrate” and “Emigration” as “departure from India of any person with a view to taking up any employment (whether or not under an agreement or other arrangements and with or without the assistance of a recruiting agent or the employer) in any country or place outside India”. In the Emigration Act, it is outlined the category and type of employment open for emigration reasons; the set of criteria for the process of recruitment, guidelines for agents in charge recruitment. The most important dimensions of the Act are as stated below:

No citizen of India is allowed to migrate without obtaining emigration clearance from the Protector of Emigrants.

Various countries are classified into two categories — Emigration Check Required (ECR) countries and Emigration Check Not Required countries. All persons having ECR-endorsed passports and going to any of the 17 ECR countries to take up employment require emigration clearance. However, ECR passport holders going to any ECR country for purposes other than employment do not require emigration clearance.

According to the review study of Gupta (2013), this Act was amended by the Government of India in 2009 to incorporate new terms and conditions for the recruiting agents so as to make them more manageable.

2.2 INDIAN INITIATIVES TOWARDS MIGRATION AND MOBILITY

As international migration is more and more integrated part of economic and international relations, the Government of India has been implementing a number of initiatives to enhance the emigration from India to other regions of the world (Chanda and Gupta, 2015).

Some of these are described below:

- Setting up of a Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs (MOIA) to look after various issues related to international migration of Indians;
- Establishment of a specific division, the Emigration Policy Division in the MOIA in March 2006, to facilitate migration and diaspora engagement;
- Drafting of new emigration legislation to replace the Emigration Act of 1983;
- Proposals for signing Memoranda of Understanding (MoUs) with the Gulf countries;
- Schemes for skill upgrading and pre-departure orientation of prospective emigrants;
- Setting up a framework for carrying out on-site welfare measures and social policies related issues;
- Setting up Overseas Indian Centres to coordinate on-site welfare;
- Replicating the best practices of other countries such as The Philippines in the area of emigrant welfare;

- Revamping the recruitment system to make it more professional and accountable;
- Establishment of the Council for Overseas Employment to advise the Government on overseas employment matters and to develop strategies and good practices in migration management through studies and research (Gupta, 2013).

In addition, the Indian Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs has initiated a significant number of proposals and reforms, covering different topics such as, audit of security agents, establishment of a national professional body of recruiting agents. Moreover, some policies also covered the initiatives related to put stop to corruption and fraudulent practices.

Regarding the Indian migrants themselves, the Indian Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs has implemented trainings for reinforcing the skills of prospective Indian migrants. Furthermore, pre departure information and orientation is intervening part of the programme.

The MOIA also disposes of a 24/7 helpline desk under the Overseas Worker Resource Centre to provide information and assistance to emigrants and their families. Moreover, a multimedia raising awareness campaign was launched to educate the emigrants about emigration procedures, potential risks involved, precautions to be taken and their rights and obligations as emigrants (NRI Department, n.d).

The Ministry has also created an Indian Community Welfare Fund (ICWF), which has a presence in the 43 Indian Missions across the world in overseas countries that have a significant Indian population. The purpose of the ICWF is to provide on-site welfare services to Indians overseas — to the most deserving cases according on a means-tested basis (Gupta, 2013). Expenditure on incidentals and for airlifting the mortal remains to India or local cremation/burial of the deceased overseas Indian in such cases where a sponsor is unable or unwilling to do so as per the contract and the family is unable to meet the cost.

As far the policy dialogue is concerned, the MOIA is also expanding the list of destination countries that could potentially become a base for the Indian migrants. According to the analysis of Chanda and Gupta (2015), “it has been engaged in bilateral and multilateral dialogues with overseas countries and is in the process of signing labour mobility partnership agreements and MoUs with countries where employment opportunities for foreign workers are likely to emerge in the future”.

Therefore, the policy context for emigration has been developing in India and is increasingly aimed at protecting the interests of Indian emigrants. To this end, the government is acting both reactively and proactively. It is providing information to the potential emigrants before they leave and is also making every effort to redress emigrants’ complaints in the destination countries, with the help of recruiting agents, the Indian Missions/posts abroad, foreign governments and/or foreign employers concerned (Gupta,2013).

2.3 POLICY SUGGESTIONS TO FACILITATE INDIA-EU MIGRATION

Emigration from India towards to the European Union countries has steadily increased over the years and is likely to rise in the coming years by the reason of the spread of education in India, labour shortages in the EU and growing opportunities for employment and labour mobility across the EU. One of the recommendations is referred to the need to monitor the number of Indians migrating to the EU. Therefore, it is necessary that governments actively engage on both sides in dialogues and frame policies to facilitate orderly migration and curb irregular migration (Gupta, 2013).

As suggested by several studies, the dialogue between India and the European Union should be focused on those sectors that are currently under pressure / shortage of skilled migrants. According to the analysis presented in this report, those sectors are: healthcare, IT, engineering, construction, agriculture and forestry.

Following the recommendations of CARIM/INDIA (2012) on the US experience with Indian highly migrants, the EU may conduct research analysis of highly skilled Indians in the EU to get to know their perceptions of the benefits and costs of migration to other EU member states. Additionally, it is advisable to attract more female highly skilled Indian migrants. According to CARIM (2015), women completing college and university educations may be more likely to emigrate temporarily or permanently if they perceive more opportunities abroad, especially those with advanced degree. Finally, it is also advisable to facilitate and ease for Indians who graduate from universities in EU countries to remain and work in EU (Martin, 2012).

Also, Member States are encouraged to develop their own mobility and migration policy regarding India. All in all, the European Commission should further enhance the legal framework of Indian highly skilled migrants. Flexible visa policies, more scholarships, mutual recognition of degrees and greater opportunities for extended stay and employment for students and professionals after education or first-term employment should increase the rates of retention (Fargues, and Lum, 2014).

CONCLUSIONS

This policy brief aims to answer the questions of whether the current policy framework is encouraging highly skilled migrants to come to the European Union as well as it tries to address the importance of highly skilled migrants in order to reinforce the strategic partnership between India and the EU.

As it was outlined by the literature review, the lack of appropriate policy initiatives between both regions may explain the reduced number of Indian highly skilled migrants who would prefer to live in the EU. This is a major challenge facing both partners, especially in translating government agreements into deeper partnership applied to the field of migration and mobility.

Data shown in this study proves that India has not been a major migrant-sending country to the EU and migration is part of the solution for labour shortage in the EU. India is one of the very few countries that have such highly educated human resources. Future migration policies should look at India as a potential source for qualified migrants.

The path that lies ahead therefore must reflect a mutual commitment to building trust and cooperation. The increasingly growing Indian community in EU Member States can be leveraged so that India and the EU can construct a mutually beneficial relationship, which migration and mobility is an essential part of the India-EU Strategic Partnership.

India and the European Union can thus build cooperation by engaging a dialogue in which both parts have a role to play: the EU, by expressing a message of openness to managed migration in crucial sectors; and India, by implementing reforms in educational reform, pre-departure training and orientation of migrants. Both sides should come forward to frame policies to facilitate orderly migration between the two regions.

Cooperation in areas of mutual interest and potential, such as IT, healthcare, education, tourism and construction, can enhance mutual development. In this context, the immigration regulations for student mobility need to be focused for shaping the future strategic and economic interests between India and the EU.

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