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VISION

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DEVELOPMENT & VALIDATION OF QUALITY OF WORK LIFE SCALE IN THE IT SECTOR

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ABSTRACT

The growth, development, efficiency, and effectiveness of an organization depend on how effectively the human resources are managed. Competent, skilled, and efficient human resource is very crucial for the functioning of the organization. It is in this context the significance of this paper arises. This paper gives a detailed view about the development and validation of the scale measuring the quality of work life of the employees working in the IT sector. The exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis using SEM and Partial least square approach is done to confirm the validity and reliability of the scale. The analysis reveals the legitimacy of the quality of work life scale through its factor loadings and reliability.

KEYWORDS: *Reliability, Validation, Legitimacy,* Disparagement, *Prevailing, Intrinsic*.

INTRODUCTION

Modern management has realized that human factor is the most important of all factors of production. The inadequacy of human resources may result in the disparagement in all other factors of production. Many societies have developed and became wealthy using the potentialities of their human resources who have the drive for creativity, ingenuity, and the spirit of enterprise. McGregor has stated that the effectiveness of the organizations can at least be doubled if their managers are able to discover how to tap the unrealized potentials present in their human resources. The human resources can grow and develop their potential in the long run, if they are properly organized and motivated and hence the value of human resources cannot be depreciated.

Quality of work life refers to the degree of satisfaction an employee derives from his work depending on the extent to which he feels motivated, valued, rewarded etc. It is concerned with the extent of the relationship between an employee and the organizational factors prevailing in that working environment. Many studies have revealed that the organization should provide working environment conductive to satisfy the needs of the workers. It mainly involves the work-related aspects like work environment, wages and working hours, incentives and benefits, career development, etc., which are directly related to the motivation and satisfaction of the workers.

(Wichit, 2007) Studied the quality of work life and its relationship with demographic factors, job characteristics and organizational environment among the bus drivers in Bangkok. The study pointed out that bus drivers had a moderate level of quality of work life and the organizational

environment, job characteristics and age had a positive relationship while work duration had a negative relationship with the quality of work life.

(Khani A, 2008) Explored the nurses' quality of work life in Iran since they had suffered from the higher demands of the profession and of the workload and underpay. The study indicated that the salaries were inadequate and the workload was too heavy for the nurses. Further the respondents had little energy left after work and were unable to balance their work and family lives and stated that rotating schedules negatively affected their lives. The study suggested implementing discretionary employee benefits programs to enhance the work life quality of nurses.

(Hanita Sarah Saad, 2008) Studied the employees' perception of their quality of work life in a private university in Malaysia. The test revealed that each of the quality of work life variable on its own is a salient predictor of job satisfaction. The study suggested that other dimensions of job satisfaction, especially on the intrinsic rewards and key performance indicators or the performance evaluation criteria should be used while doing the future research on job satisfaction in other areas.

Scale Development and Validation

After reviewing the literature, the researcher found that various components of quality of work life were used in different sectors to measure the same. Hence it became necessary to develop a suitable scale to measure quality of work life and validate the same in the IT sector in Kerala.

Data Collection and Cleaning

The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents before distributing the questionnaires. A total of 700 questionnaires were distributed among the respondents out of which 626 questionnaires were collected upon the completion from the respondents. Out of the 450 questionnaires distributed in the Technopark Trivandrum, 414 questionnaires were collected from the respondents. 200 questionnaires were distributed in Infopark Kochi and Koratty out of which 176 were returned by the respondents, while 36 questionnaires were returned out of 50 questionnaires distributed in the Kinfrapark Malappuram thus constituting a total of 626 questionnaires.

After the collection, the data were then checked to identify the missing responses, outliers, and reliability. Using Excel and Warp PLS 4.0 the data outliers were identified, thus ensuring the quality of the data. The multivariate outliers were identified at a minimal level on examining the data. A total of 69 responses were thus identified reducing the primary data collected to **557** in number.

The primary data collected was subjected to the principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation using SPSS 20. An Exploratory factor analysis was done separately for each of the scales of Quality of work life, Employee satisfaction and Employee turnover.

Quality of Work Life Scale (QWLS)

The most important components relating to the quality of work life which were frequently used in the previous studies were identified which included working environment, fair compensation, job contentment, opportunities for skill utilization, employee career development, fair treatment, autonomy of work, organizational communication, job security, total life space, facilities, and attitude of management. An exploratory factor analysis was done to identify the major

components contributing to the quality of work life and to reduce the indicators that form the dimensions using the principal component analysis.

Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA)

SPSS 20 was used to conduct factor analysis to identify the major components of the Quality of work life scale. It is suggested that the factor extraction can be done by extracting combinations of variables that explain the greatest amount of variance if the data set had a large set of variables. The selection of the method of factor rotation (between common factor analysis and component analysis) was based on two criteria: (1) the objectives of the factor analysis and (2) the amount of prior knowledge about the variance in the variables (Hair et al 2009). The Component Factor Analysis method, also known as Principal Component Analysis was adopted in the study since the primary objective was to reduce the data, focusing on the minimum number of factors that needed to account for the maximum portion of the total variance (common, specific and error variances) represented in the original variables set (Eappan, 2014).

Hair, Black, Babin and Anderson (2009) has summarized certain assumptions for factor analysis, which included linearity and homoscedasticity (which means dependent variable exhibits equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variables). They further argued that these statistical assumptions need not be met if the data matrix had sufficient correlation to produce representative factors and justify the application of factor analysis. The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy approaches are used to determine the sufficiency of correlations in the data set for factor analysis (Eappan, 2014). The results of the KMO and Bartlett's test are discussed in the table 1.

**Table 1 KMO and Bartlett's Test of Quality of Work Life Scale**

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.929
	Approx. Chi-Square	12911.251
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Df		1176
Sig.		.000

Source: SPSS FA Output

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test was performed to check the sampling adequacy of data for factor analysis. The KMO statistic indicated the proportion of variance in the variables that might be caused by the underlying factors. Kaiser and Rice (1974) stated that if the KMO values were greater than 0.6, it was adequate. The Barlett's test of sphericity related to the significance of the study and indicated the suitability of the responses collected to the problem being studied. The Barlett's test of sphericity is a statistical test to identify the presence of correlations among the variables and tests the hypothesis that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix i.e. all diagonal elements are 1 and off diagonal elements 0 indicating that all variables are uncorrelated and hence suitable for structure detection and it must be less than 0.05 for the factor analysis to be recommended. Since the KMO value is 0.929, it is acceptable. Barlett's test values (12911.251, dof 1176, Sig 0.00) indicates that the values are significant and implies that non-zero correlations existed at the significance level of less than 0.001, and hence proceed to factor analysis (D R Swamy, 2015).

The component factor analysis method, also known as principal component method was used in the study since the primary concern was to reduce the data based on the minimum number of factors needed to account for the maximum portion of the total variance represented in the original set of variables. The latent root criterion technique was used to decide on the number of factors to be extracted. The factors having latent roots or Eigen values greater than 1 are considered significant with the component analysis (Eappan, 2014).

The principal component analysis using varimax rotation was shown in the Appendix.
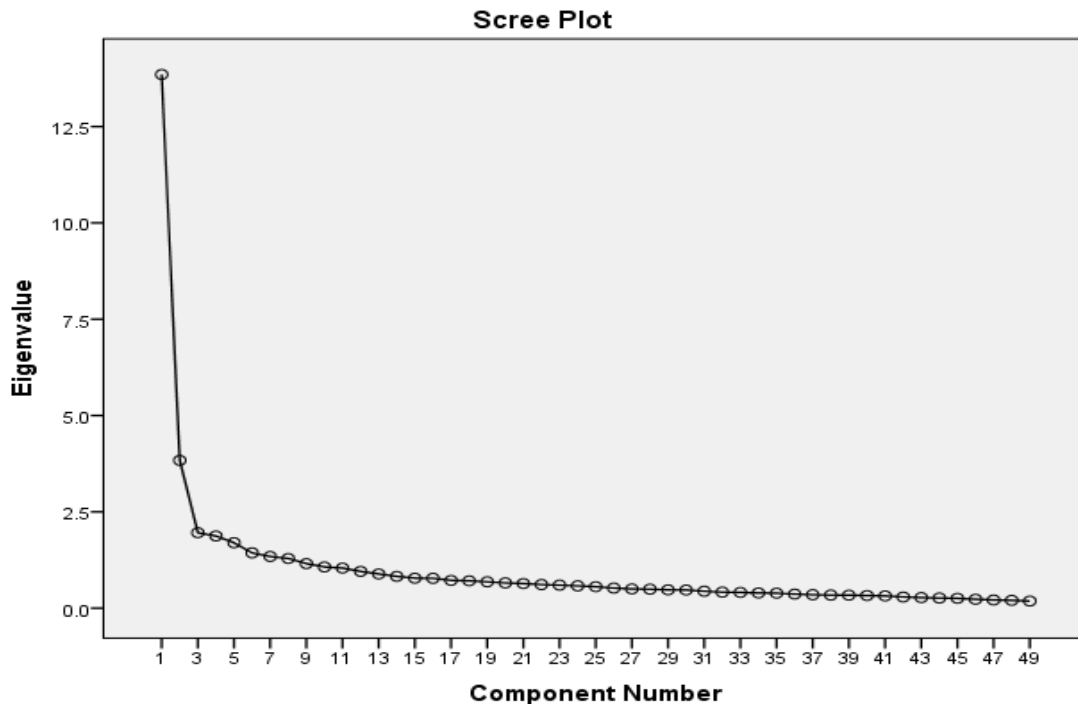
Fig 1: Scree Plot of Quality of Work Life Scale

The analysis revealed that nine factors identified from the factor analysis together explained 58.047 % of the total variance. The Scree plot represented that by laying a straight edge across the bottom portion of the roots, there were nine factors before the curve becomes approximately a straight line. Based on the principal component analysis, the most important nine components of quality of work life identified based on the Eigen values were

1. Employee Development,

2. Autonomy of Work,

3. Total Life Space,

4. Fair Treatment,

5. Attitude of Management,

6. Adequate and Fair Compensation,

7. Work Environment,

8. Organizational Communication, and

9. Job Security.

The communalities derived from the factor analysis were reviewed for assessing the importance of the data through questionnaire for factor analysis. If the factor loadings were greater than 0.5, the data set was considered as appropriate (Stewart 1981); (D R Swamy, 2015). The statements having the factor loading greater than 0.5 were finalized for the scale. In general, higher factor loadings were considered as better, and loadings below 0.3 were not interpreted. As a rule of thumb, loadings above 0.71 are excellent, 0.63 very good, 0.55 good, 0.45 fair, and 0.32 poor (Tabachnick and Fidell 2007), (Kumar G, 2011).

Out of the 49 items in quality of work life questionnaire, eight items having factor loading less than 0.5 were removed from the final scale and thus the Quality of work life scale was finalized with 41 statements under nine components.

The following table 2 shows the Eigen values with respect to the nine components derived.

Table 2 Summary of Factor Analysis of Quality of Work Life Scale

Factors	Measurable Statements	Weights	Eigen Values	% of Variance	Cumulative Variance
Employee Development	My career is developed. Facilities for self improvement. Opportunities to improve job. Opportunities to develop new skills. Different approaches to work. Work enhances the creativity. Opportunities for career advancement. Satisfied with growth chances. Proper training is given.	0.709 0.686 0.681 0.637 0.628 0.611 0.578 0.550 0.533	5.940	12.122	12.122
Autonomy of Work	Receive adequate freedom in work. Encouraged to experiment with new methods. Freedom to take decisions about job. Opportunities to try innovative ideas. Ideas to make new changes appreciated. Opportunities to express the views in decision making. Periodic changes in duties.	0.824 0.787 0.765 0.695 0.592 0.534 0.521	5.381	10.982	23.104
Total Life Space	Happy with my family life. Time to fulfill my family commitments. Enough time to spend with family Leave for my personal purposes.	0.825 0.801 0.761 0.691	4.020	8.204	31.308

Fair Treatment	Members identified based on skill. Performance appraisal. Freedom to speak and voice opinions frankly. Receive equal treatment.	0.600 0.582 0.570 0.535	2.946	6.012	37.319
Attitude of Management	Treats the employees humanly. Organization is a socially responsible unit. Supports the employees. Policies of the organization are fair, employee oriented.	0.732 0.651 0.577 0.549	2.775	5.663	42.983
Adequate and Fair Compensation	Satisfied with current income. Satisfied with the chances of salary hike in job. Income justified cost of living. Income does not match with the effort taken in job.	0.675 0.556 0.520 0.519	2.546	5.197	48.180
Work Environment	Physically safe in work area. Comfortable work space. Physical work environment enables to work effectively.	0.822 0.783 0.503	1.725	3.521	51.701
Organizational Communication	Clarification about the duties and responsibilities. Adequate clarity and transparency in communication. Correct information about work process and results.	0.633 0.562 0.517	1.558	3.180	54.881

Job Security	Satisfied with the job security.	0.526	1.551	3.166	58.047
	Strive hard to achieve the organization's objectives.	0.514 0.511			
	Organization enhances social prestige.				

Source: SPSS FA Output

After the exploratory factor analysis, the researcher modified the quality of work life scale based on the analysis results. A Confirmatory factor analysis was then done to confirm the components of the Quality of work life scale through Structural Equation Modeling using the Warp PLS 4.0.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA)

The main objective of conducting the confirmatory factor analysis was to determine the ability of a predefined factor model to fit an observed set of data. It helps to determine the significance of the specific factor loadings and evaluates the convergent and discriminant validity of the data set. The confirmatory factor analysis was done using the Warp PLS 4.0 in the study.

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM)

Structural equation modelling is a confirmatory technique used to determine whether the model developed for the study is valid for data and is considered as the appropriate method for testing the hypothesized model for the best fit of the data. It combines both the confirmatory factor analysis and the path analysis. Structural equation modelling involves a number of statistical methodologies to measure a network of causal relationships framed in accordance to a theoretical model, which relates two or more latent complex concepts and each measured through a number of observable indicators. In structural equation modelling, the inner or structural model describes the relationships between the latent variables identified in the study while the outer or measurement model explains the relationships between the latent variables and their indicators. The estimation of both the structural model and measurement model can be done through the Warp PLS 4.0

Partial Least Square Approach

Warp PLS is a powerful Partial Least Squares based SEM software that examines the nonlinear or 'warped' relationships among the latent variables and thereby estimates the path coefficients. Partial least square approach or variance-based approach was adopted in this study, which focuses on maximizing the variance of the dependent variables identified by the independent variables instead of reproducing the empirical co-variance matrix (Haenlein and Kaplan 2004). The PLS based structural equation modelling explains the residual variance of the latent variables and of the manifest variables (indicators) at best in any regression run on the model (Fornell and Bookstein 1982), (Eappan, 2014). The PLS based SEM has two main stages: a PLS regression analysis, whereby weights and loadings are calculated and a path analysis (Kock, 2014).

The Warp PLS 4.0 software standardizes the raw data before proceeding for analysis. Standardized data usually range from -4 to 4 with outliers assuming values towards the right or left of those extremes or sometimes beyond thus ensuring the normal distribution of the data set.

The following figure 2 shows the results of the confirmatory factor analysis:
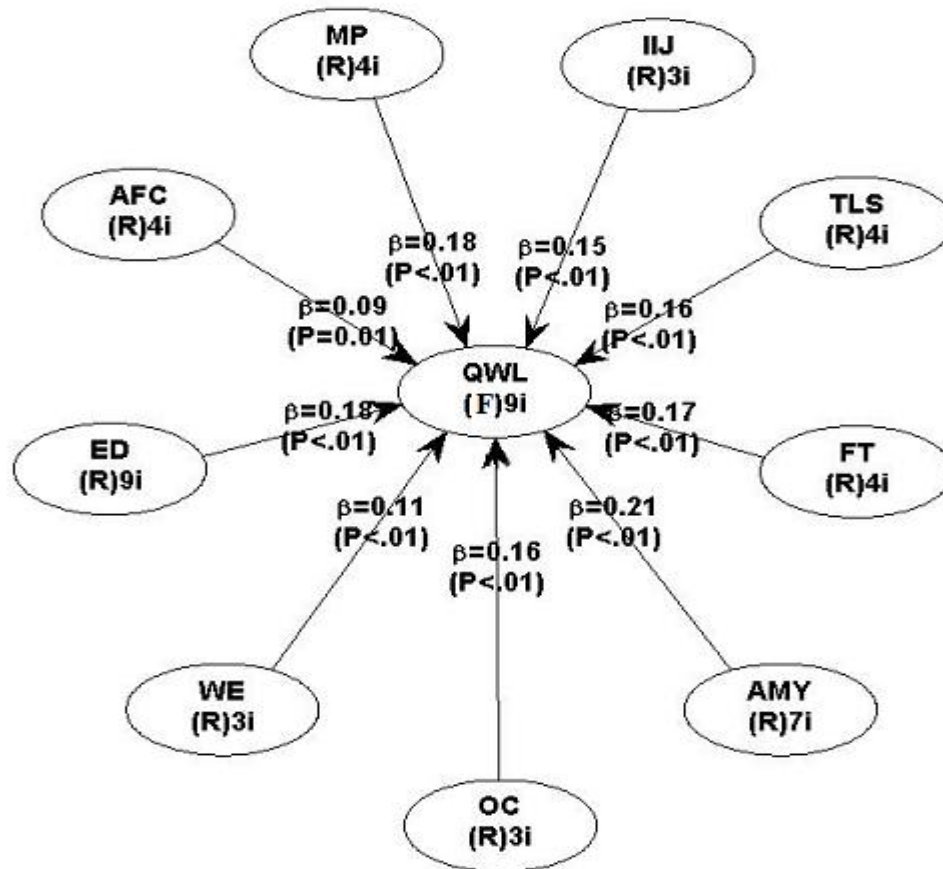
1.   **Fig 2: Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Quality of Work Life**

The statistical significance of the Quality of work life and its dimensions were important in this study. The path coefficients (β) and the p-values of the relationships were shown in the Figure 2. Since the p-value was less than 0.01, all the paths were significant and all the path coefficients (β) were positive which indicated that any increase in these dimensions will result in an increase in the Quality of work life.

Table 3 The Model Fit Indices of Quality of Work Life Scale

Model Fit indices and P values
APC= 0.156, P value < 0.001
ARS= 0.992, P value < 0.001
AVIF= 1.773, Acceptable <= 5

Source: Warp PLS 4.0 Output

It is suggested that the p-values for the Average Path Coefficient (APC) and Average R Squared (ARS) be lower than 0.05 to assess a model to be fit. Moreover, the Average Variance Inflation Factor (AVIF) should be lower than 5 (Ned Kock, 2014)(Eappan, 2014). All the three criteria were met in this model and hence assumed that the model represented the data.

Validation of Quality of Work Life Scale

Validity refers to the ability of an instrument to measure what it is supposed to measure. Face validity indicated that the questionnaire included a representative set of items that measured the concept and, in its appearance, adequate coverage of the concepts was ensured thus establishing the face validity of the questionnaire. The questionnaire drafted for the study was reviewed by a panel of experts and their suggestions were incorporated thus establishing the content validity.

Criterion validity can be established by the predictive or the concurrent validity. Churchill (1979) viewed predictive validity as an essential measure, but Rossiter (2011) argued that it can be desirable but not essential for validity, by definition, is internal to the measure and hence validity need not be established externally by revealing that scores on the measure predict those from another measure. During the data analysis and model testing, the predictive validity was established in the study. The Q squared coefficient of the QWL in the above model was 0.992 (this value was provided for the endogenous or dependent variable). The Q squared coefficient also known as Stone-Geisser Q squared coefficient, reflects the predictive validity associated with the latent variable. The accepted predictive validity suggested by a Q squared coefficient should be greater than zero (Ned Kock, 2014)(Kock, 2014). Since the value (0.992) was greater than zero, the predictive validity of the model was established. Another form of predictive validity is Nomological validity, which is not essential, though merely desirable in a measure (Rossiter 2011) (Eappan, 2014).

Construct validity indicated the effectiveness of the operationalization of theoretical concepts in the measurement of the construct. It expresses how well the results obtained from the use of the measures fit in the theories around which the test was designed. The convergent validity and discriminant validity are a measure of this validity (Kumar G, 2011).

Convergent Validity ensures whether the scale was correlated with other known measures of the concept. It was used to establish that the responses to the questions were sufficiently correlated with the respective latent variables. A measurement instrument was considered to have good convergent validity if the question- statements associated with each latent variable were understood by the respondents in the same way as they were intended by the designers of

the question- statement (Kock, 2014). The measurement model has acceptable convergent validity if it satisfies two criteria: p-values associated with the loadings should be lower than 0.05 and loadings for indicators of all respective latent variables must be 0.5 or above (Hair et al 2009) (Eappan, 2014). In the QWLS, the loadings related to each latent variables were higher while the cross loadings were low (shown in Appendix). Moreover, the factor loadings related to the latent variables were above 0.5 and the p-values were lower than 0.01 and hence the scale has acceptable convergent validity.

Discriminant Validity checks whether the scale is sufficiently different from other similar concepts to be distinct. It verifies whether the responses given by the respondents were correlated with the other latent variables. The square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) for each latent variable should be higher than any of the correlations between the latent variables under study and any other latent variables in the measurement model to establish the discriminant validity (Fornell and Larcker 1981), (Eappan, 2014). The square roots of the average variance extracted were shown on the diagonal of the latent variable correlation table 4. Since the value of the average variance extracted was higher than any other values above or below or to its right or left, the discriminant validity of the model was ensured.

Table 4. Correlations among Latent Variables with the Square roots of AVEs

Items	WE	OC	AMY	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	AFC
WE	**0.801**	0.338	0.452	0.426	0.132	0.197	0.254	0.353	0.337
OC	0.338	**0.777**	0.487	0.352	0.398	0.400	0.403	0.431	0.271
AMY	0.452	0.487	**0.708**	0.428	0.362	0.429	0.433	0.244	0.319
ED	0.426	0.352	0.428	**0.702**	0.466	0.383	0.450	0.490	0.366
FT	0.132	0.398	0.362	0.466	**0.835**	0.425	0.300	0.475	0.158
TLS	0.197	0.400	0.429	0.383	0.425	**0.833**	0.471	0.374	0.104
JS	0.254	0.403	0.433	0.450	0.300	0.471	**0.747**	0.456	0.148
AM	0.353	0.431	0.244	0.490	0.475	0.374	0.456	**0.757**	0.342
AFC	0.337	0.271	0.319	0.366	0.158	0.104	0.148	0.342	**0.693**

 Source: Warp PLS 4.0 Output

Thus, it can be understood that the validity of the quality of work life scale is established. The model indicated that all the path coefficients significantly contributed to the variable quality of work life and thus confirms the factors contributing to the quality of work life.

Reliability Test

The reliability of an instrument indicates the extent to which the instrument yields the same results on repeated trials. If a tendency of consistency was found on repeated measurements, it can be referred to as reliability. External reliability was measured using the test-retest method. If

the two tests produce the same results, which mean the studied variable does not fluctuate greatly overtime, the scale is said to be reliable. Internal reliability was used to indicate the homogeneity of the items in the scale to measure the construct. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient and the composite reliability (which was used to measure the overall reliability of a collection of heterogeneous but similar items) were used in the study to assess the reliability of the scale. The Cronbach's alpha is an index used for measuring reliability associated with the variation accounted for by the true score of the underlying construct. The following table 5 shows the reliability of the scale developed for the study:

Table 5. Reliability analysis of the Scale

Scale	Variables	Cronbach's Alpha Value	Composite Reliability Value	No: of Item
Quality of Work Life Scale	Employee Development	0.869	0.896	9
	Fair Treatment	0.855	0.902	4
	Total Life Space	0.852	0.901	4
	Autonomy of Work	0.830	0.874	7
	Attitude of Management	0.752	0.843	4
	Working Environment	0.717	0.840	3
	Organizational Communication	0.669	0.820	3
	Job Security	0.643	0.791	3
	Adequate and Fair Compensation	0.603	0.766	4
Quality of Work Life Scale (Overall)		**0.849**	**0.883**	**41**

Source: primary Data

The composite reliability ranged from 0.751 to 0.902 and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient was ranged from 0.603 to 0.869 as seen in the table 5. According to Field (2005) the values between 0.7 and 0.8 of Cronbach's alpha are acceptable values of consistency. The generally agreed upon lower limit for Cronbach's alpha value is 0.7 (Straub, Boudreau and Gefen 2004), though it may decrease to 0.6 (Hair et al 2009) in the case of exploratory research. Here the Cronbach's alpha values were all above 0.6 and hence conclude that the scale is reliable. The generally accepted threshold of the composite reliability was above 0.7 (Fornell and Larcker 1981) and here all the values were above 0.7. A more conservative approach to verify reliability was that one of the two coefficients should be equal or greater than 0.7 (Eappan, 2014). The reliability of the scale was thus ensured since the above criterion was met.

CONCLUSION

The scale for measuring quality of work life among the employees working in the IT sector in Kerala was thus validated. The scale had 41 items under 9 constructs for assessing the work life quality of the IT employees. The validity and reliability criteria were met by the qwl scale and hence it can be used for measuring the quality of work life of the IT employees. Using the warp PLS, structural equation modelling was done which indicated that the model represented the data

set. Thus, it can be concluded that the quality of work life scale is appropriate for determining work life quality of the IT employees.

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Appendix
1. Results of Exploratory Factor Analysis through SPSS 20:

KMO and Bartlett's Test

| Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.929
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	12911.251
	Df	1176
	Sig.	.000

Source: SPSS FA Output

Table Total Variance Explained - QWL

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	13.852	28.269	28.269	13.852	28.269	28.269	5.940	12.122	12.122
2	3.837	7.830	36.099	3.837	7.830	36.099	5.381	10.982	23.104
3	1.959	3.997	40.096	1.959	3.997	40.096	4.020	8.204	31.308
4	1.874	3.824	43.920	1.874	3.824	43.920	2.946	6.012	37.319
5	1.698	3.466	47.386	1.698	3.466	47.386	2.775	5.663	42.983
6	1.435	2.930	50.315	1.435	2.930	50.315	2.546	5.197	48.180
7	1.341	2.737	53.053	1.341	2.737	53.053	1.725	3.521	51.701
8	1.291	2.635	55.687	1.291	2.635	55.687	1.558	3.180	54.881
9	1.086	2.360	58.047	1.156	2.360	58.047	1.551	3.166	58.047
10	1.071	2.185	60.232						
11	.941	2.024	62.355						
12	.915	1.950	64.305						
13	.888	1.813	66.117						
14	.825	1.684	67.801						
15	.779	1.590	69.391						
16	.776	1.583	70.974						
17	.721	1.472	72.446						
18	.710	1.449	73.895						
19	.685	1.398	75.293						
20	.656	1.339	76.632						
21	.640	1.306	77.938						
22	.612	1.249	79.187						
23	.598	1.220	80.408						
24	.578	1.180	81.588						

25	.558	1.138	82.726								
26	.522	1.066	83.792								
27	.499	1.018	84.810								
28	.493	1.006	85.816								
29	.476	.971	86.786								
30	.470	.959	87.745								
31	.440	.897	88.643								
32	.417	.851	89.493								
33	.408	.832	90.326								
34	.396	.808	91.133								
35	.389	.794	91.927								
36	.366	.746	92.673								
37	.349	.713	93.386								
38	.341	.695	94.081								
39	.337	.688	94.769								
40	.328	.670	95.439								
41	.317	.648	96.087								
42	.291	.594	96.681								
43	.275	.561	97.242								
44	.264	.538	97.780								
45	.256	.523	98.303								
46	.231	.471	98.773								
47	.212	.432	99.205								
48	.205	.418	99.623								
49	.185	.377	100.000								

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Source: SPSS FA Output
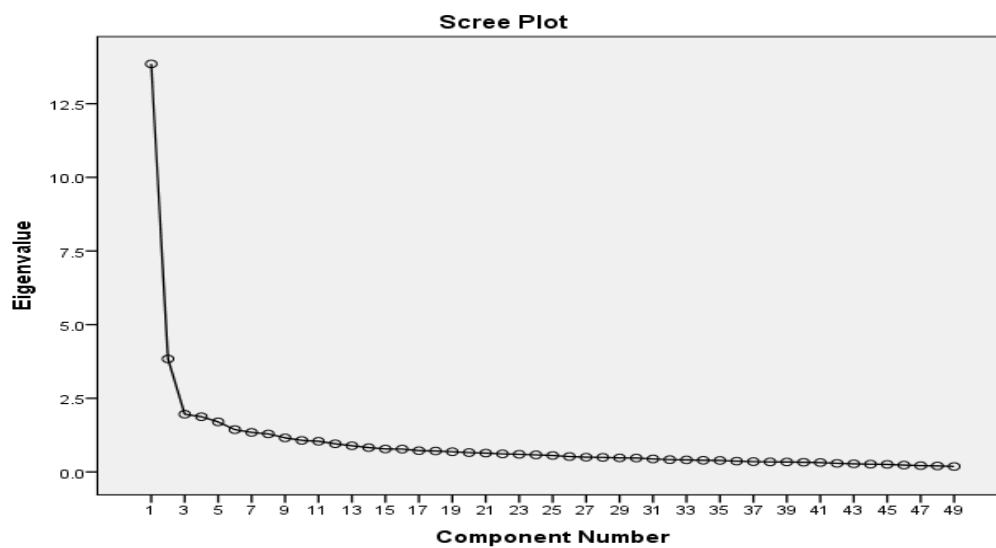
Scree Plot of Quality of work life

2. Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis through Warp PLS 4.0:

2.1 Model fit and quality indices: Quality of Work Life Scale

Average path coefficient (APC) =0.156, P<0.001

Average R-squared (ARS) =0.992, P<0.001

Average adjusted R-squared (AARS) =0.992, P<0.001

Average block VIF (AVIF) =1.773, acceptable if <= 5, ideally <= 3.3

Tenenhaus GoF (GoF) =0.753, small >= 0.1, medium >= 0.25, large >= 0.36

Sympson's paradox ratio (SPR) =1.000, acceptable if >= 0.7, ideally = 1

R-squared contribution ratio (RSCR) =1.000, acceptable if >= 0.9, ideally = 1

Statistical suppression ratio (SSR) =1.000, acceptable if >= 0.7

Nonlinear bivariate causality direction ratio (NLBCDR) =1.000, acceptable if >= 0.

2.2 Path coefficients

	WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	AFC	QWL
WE										
OC										
AW										
ED										
FT										
TLS										
JS										
AM										
AFC										
QWL	0.107	0.164	0.206	0.179	0.168	0.162	0.151	0.180	0.085	

2.3 P values

	WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	AFC	QWL
WE										
OC										
AW										
ED										
FT										
TLS										
JS										
AM										
AFC										
QWL	0.002	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001	0.012	

2.4 Standard errors for path coefficients

	WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	AFC	QWL

WE									
OC									
AW									
ED									
FT									
TLS									
JS									
AM									
AFC									
QWL	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	0.038	

2.5 Combined Loadings and Cross Loadings – Quality of Work Life Scale

Items	AFC	WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	P Value
AFC1	**(0.857)**	0.524	0.306	0.556	0.417	0.226	0.346	0.572	0.631	**<0.001**
AFC2	**(0.524)**	-0.489	-0.531	-0.348	-0.285	-0.353	-0.327	-0.194	-0.358	**<0.001**
AFC3	**(0.745)**	0.179	0.248	0.264	0.423	0.465	0.215	0.212	0.169	**<0.001**
AFC4	**(0.755)**	0.405	0.367	0.408	0.268	0.252	0.513	0.328	0.414	**<0.001**
WE1	-0.024	**(0.876)**	-0.123	-0.017	-0.036	-0.186	-0.170	-0.084	-0.171	**<0.001**
WE2	0.165	**(0.881)**	0.220	0.216	0.147	0.135	0.090	0.204	0.196	**<0.001**
WE3	-0.201	**(0.618)**	-0.139	-0.283	-0.158	0.070	0.113	-0.173	-0.037	**<0.001**
OC1	0.190	0.517	**(0.826)**	0.612	0.512	0.705	0.519	0.514	0.590	**<0.001**
OC2	0.552	0.811	**(0.818)**	0.156	0.199	0.118	0.058	0.132	0.203	**<0.001**
OC3	-0.896	-0.606	**(0.679)**	-0.097	-0.159	-0.205	-0.905	-0.188	-0.046	**<0.001**
AW1	-0.701	-0.037	0.129	**(0.549)**	-0.594	-0.220	-0.302	-0.215	-0.665	**<0.001**
AW2	-0.337	-0.426	-0.695	**(0.668)**	-0.136	-0.563	-0.595	-0.589	-0.385	**<0.001**
AW3	0.005	-0.303	-0.335	**(0.730)**	-0.413	-0.577	-0.389	-0.318	-0.403	**<0.001**
AW4	0.080	0.265	0.309	**(0.785)**	0.447	-0.508	0.391	0.341	0.511	**<0.001**
AW5	0.104	0.184	0.215	**(0.802)**	0.348	0.413	0.154	0.235	0.226	**<0.001**

AW6	0.244	0.383	0.606	**(0.755)**	0.676	0.046	0.581	0.704	0.509	**<0.001**
AW7	0.436	0.279	0.367	**(0.632)**	0.255	0.068	0.331	0.226	0.076	**<0.001**
ED1	-0.274	-0.077	-0.247	-0.116	**(0.633)**	-0.086	-0.063	-0.178	-0.166	**<0.001**
ED2	-0.104	-0.035	-0.170	-0.098	**(0.747)**	-0.141	-0.229	-0.156	0.018	**<0.001**
ED3	-0.005	0.240	0.238	0.459	**(0.721)**	0.472	0.280	0.246	0.408	**<0.001**
ED4	0.280	0.156	0.236	0.226	**(0.789)**	0.264	0.326	0.213	0.267	**<0.001**
ED5	-0.062	0.319	0.135	0.108	**(0.773)**	0.133	0.228	0.018	0.069	**<0.001**
ED6	0.390	0.357	0.492	0.432	**(0.673)**	0.345	0.422	0.516	0.249	**<0.001**
ED7	-0.035	-0.050	0.146	-0.085	**(0.670)**	0.002	-0.082	0.010	-0.045	**<0.001**
ED8	-0.400	-0.206	-0.173	-0.476	**(0.573)**	-0.384	-0.241	-0.044	-0.179	**<0.001**
ED9	0.262	0.023	0.089	0.231	**(0.712)**	0.188	0.080	0.161	0.099	**<0.001**
FT1	0.087	0.050	0.131	0.193	0.258	**(0.857)**	0.091	0.138	0.176	**<0.001**
FT2	0.018	-0.083	-0.068	0.056	-0.088	**(0.854)**	-0.085	-0.030	-0.165	**<0.001**
FT3	-0.160	-0.213	-0.388	-0.419	-0.390	**(0.829)**	-0.304	-0.333	-0.291	**<0.001**
FT4	0.053	0.256	0.355	0.168	0.222	**(0.799)**	0.310	0.229	0.289	**<0.001**
TLS1	0.115	0.533	0.642	0.593	0.562	0.604	**(0.815)**	0.566	0.645	**<0.001**
TLS2	0.078	-0.061	0.025	0.042	0.129	-0.008	**(0.887)**	0.002	-0.022	**<0.001**
TLS3	0.044	-0.186	-0.149	-0.114	-0.079	-0.044	**(0.869)**	-0.175	-0.203	**<0.001**
TLS4	-0.267	-0.288	-0.551	-0.559	-0.667	-0.591	**(0.756)**	-0.411	-0.437	**<0.001**
JS1	0.255	0.171	0.448	0.385	0.539	0.157	0.299	**(0.742)**	0.430	**<0.001**
JS2	0.356	0.516	0.666	0.546	0.622	0.194	0.296	**(0.783)**	0.511	**<0.001**
JS3	-0.655	-0.592	-0.721	-0.175	-0.649	-0.161	-0.134	**(0.715)**	-0.168	**<0.001**
AM1	0.019	0.056	0.078	0.117	-0.105	0.335	0.196	0.221	**(0.731**	**<0.00**

								)	1
AM2	0.082	0.211	0.285	0.205	0.193	0.285	0.049	0.278	**(0.765)**	<0.001
AM3	-0.066	-0.309	-0.345	-0.386	-0.123	-0.584	-0.309	0.394	**(0.768)**	<0.001
AM4	-0.034	0.046	-0.012	0.070	0.031	-0.017	0.074	-0.093	**(0.765)**	<0.001

2.6 Structure loadings and cross-loadings

	WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	QWL	AFC
WE1	0.876	0.236	0.377	0.363	0.010	0.065	0.160	0.235	0.399	0.301
WE2	0.881	0.224	0.309	0.274	-0.031	0.028	0.134	0.239	0.353	0.315
WE3	0.618	0.399	0.434	0.422	0.441	0.482	0.375	0.426	0.618	0.175
OC1	0.257	0.826	0.363	0.382	0.423	0.325	0.298	0.328	0.553	0.136
OC2	0.251	0.818	0.396	0.469	0.441	0.383	0.398	0.382	0.619	0.226
OC3	0.286	0.679	0.382	0.443	0.283	0.211	0.234	0.291	0.513	0.285
AW1	0.427	0.421	0.549	0.442	0.255	0.287	0.217	0.294	0.520	0.280
AW2	0.343	0.350	0.668	0.313	0.443	0.403	0.369	0.330	0.567	0.186
AW3	0.364	0.346	0.730	0.449	0.289	0.233	0.288	0.383	0.558	0.357
AW4	0.310	0.354	0.785	0.482	0.428	0.367	0.353	0.476	0.624	0.178
AW5	0.390	0.336	0.802	0.499	0.263	0.229	0.288	0.392	0.568	0.250
AW6	0.208	0.368	0.755	0.451	0.527	0.396	0.402	0.442	0.624	0.154
AW7	0.227	0.262	0.632	0.441	0.313	0.217	0.212	0.359	0.476	0.196
ED1	0.297	0.389	0.473	0.633	0.423	0.399	0.373	0.361	0.585	0.130
ED2	0.375	0.391	0.489	0.747	0.312	0.219	0.319	0.433	0.588	0.290
ED3	0.301	0.439	0.553	0.721	0.481	0.386	0.395	0.464	0.657	0.181
ED4	0.304	0.416	0.460	0.789	0.363	0.314	0.329	0.385	0.609	0.382
ED5	0.430	0.429	0.472	0.773	0.332	0.327	0.300	0.327	0.596	0.211
ED6	0.303	0.351	0.360	0.673	0.217	0.197	0.277	0.220	0.472	0.330
ED7	0.232	0.398	0.353	0.670	0.283	0.190	0.268	0.270	0.476	0.198
ED8	0.147	0.314	0.280	0.573	0.202	0.149	0.295	0.281	0.410	0.198
ED9	0.261	0.352	0.450	0.712	0.317	0.223	0.297	0.335	0.539	0.366
FT1	0.117	0.444	0.477	0.467	0.857	0.518	0.438	0.446	0.662	0.167
FT2	0.117	0.430	0.485	0.408	0.854	0.523	0.440	0.376	0.640	0.168
FT3	0.107	0.374	0.388	0.354	0.829	0.515	0.396	0.395	0.590	0.126
FT4	0.098	0.413	0.349	0.323	0.799	0.532	0.392	0.367	0.566	0.062
TLS1	0.179	0.347	0.335	0.276	0.516	0.815	0.403	0.324	0.534	-0.032
TLS2	0.161	0.376	0.407	0.404	0.554	0.887	0.414	0.330	0.612	0.152
TLS3	0.085	0.306	0.337	0.312	0.554	0.869	0.350	0.258	0.533	0.122
TLS4	0.243	0.302	0.351	0.278	0.451	0.756	0.407	0.342	0.538	0.100
IIJ1	0.207	0.355	0.360	0.429	0.318	0.302	0.742	0.399	0.544	0.204
IIJ2	0.229	0.361	0.380	0.325	0.478	0.411	0.783	0.394	0.577	0.119
IIJ3	0.130	0.181	0.225	0.254	0.317	0.339	0.715	0.225	0.407	0.003
AM1	0.171	0.309	0.384	0.268	0.485	0.408	0.427	0.731	0.559	0.171
AM2	0.283	0.347	0.392	0.354	0.344	0.214	0.356	0.765	0.540	0.246
AM3	0.328	0.346	0.442	0.496	0.270	0.228	0.304	0.768	0.575	0.379
AM4	0.283	0.302	0.429	0.360	0.346	0.289	0.300	0.765	0.543	0.236

AFC1	0.213	0.179	0.207	0.246	0.046	-0.011	0.077	0.265	0.275	0.857
AFC2	-0.003	-0.155	-0.140	-0.084	-0.209	-0.266	-0.160	-0.129	-0.156	0.524
AFC3	0.256	0.291	0.324	0.399	0.276	0.175	0.184	0.292	0.436	0.745
AFC4	0.367	0.252	0.305	0.287	0.149	0.196	0.161	0.325	0.404	0.755

2.7 R-squared coefficients

WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	QWL	AFC
								0.992	

2.8 Adjusted R-squared coefficients

WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	QWL	AFC
								0.992	

2.9 Average variances extracted

WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	AFC	QWL
0.642	0.604	0.501	0.493	0.698	0.694	0.558	0.574	0.481	0.466

2.10 Q-squared coefficients

WE	OC	AW	ED	FT	TLS	JS	AM	QWL	AFC
								0.992	

HARNESSING DIASPORA RESOURCES FOR NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF CHINA, INDIA, AND SOUTH KOREA'S POLICIES AND STRATEGIES

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ABSTRACT

Policies, strategies, and institutions are essential to channel diaspora resources toward national development. The main goal of the study is to analyze how China, India, and South Korea have harnessed the resources of their diaspora for national development. Our results show that each country has its uniqueness in terms of diaspora policies. However, all successful policies start with establishing a dedicated institution, granting legal status, and providing financial mechanisms for investment and incentives for the diaspora.

KEYWORDS: *Diaspora Engagement Policies, Components of Diaspora Policies, China, India, South Korea.*

1. INTRODUCTION

International remittances are one-way transactions without a corresponding economic value return to the sender, based on the interpersonal connection between the sender and recipient (Gelb S. &., 2018). Due to globalization, the number of migrants, and consequently, the volume of remittances, is increasing.

Globally, the volume of remittances has increased over the past two decades. The first slight decline was registered during the worldwide economic recession in 2008, and the second during the pandemic. While global remittances were predicted to decline by14% by 2021 compared to 2019 pre-COVID-19 levels, they proved much more resilient than expected, registering a slight decline of 1.6% between 2019 and 2020. Remittance flows are increased by 1.6% between 2022 and 2023 and are projected to grow at a higher rate of 3% in 2024 (Figure 1.) (World-Bank KNOMAD, 2024).

Figure 1.Remittance inflows (US$ billion) (World-Bank KNOMAD, 2024)

This upward trend continues to be robust due to expanding remittance service providers' networks and lowering costs, improving data collection on migration and remittances, and increasing migrant incomes and stocks. Moreover, improved monitoring of international flows—undertaken to prevent the financing of illicit activities—hasalso enhanced remittance tracking (Olivie, 2022).

Almost 75% of remittances are received by low- and middle-income countries. In 2023, the top five recipient countries for remittance inflows were India (USD 120 billion), Mexico (USD 66 billion), China (USD 50 billion), the Philippines (USD 39 billion), and Pakistan (USD 27 billion) (Figure 2). India has been the largest recipient of remittances since 2008(World-Bank KNOMAD, 2024).
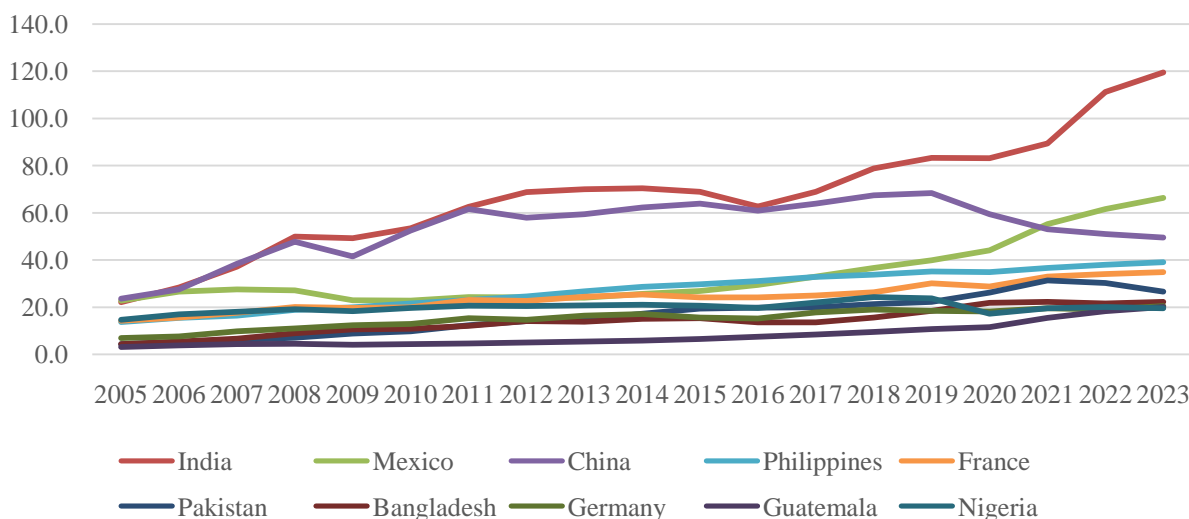
Figure 2.Top 10 remittance recipient countries (amount of inflow remittances in bln USD) (World-Bank KNOMAD, 2024)

Digital remittances are sent via a payment instrument online or self-assisted and received in transaction accounts, including bank accounts, microfinance institution accounts, or mobile money accounts (Guermond, 2022). Digital remittances uptake emerged as an essential financial tool for migrants and recipients during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2020, when physical transfers were impossible, primarily through informal channels, due to the closure of borders. The limited access to traditional remittance infrastructure increased demand for cashless, remote methods of sending money across borders. As a result, many migrants turned to digital remittance tools, thus also increasing formal remittance flows (D. Harris, 2021).

Remittances are vital for supporting remote regions. They reduce poverty by increasing household income and purchasing power (Deonanan, 2020; Fonta, 2015). However, remittances alone cannot drive economic development. They often lead to higher spending, inflation, price increases in the property market, disparities between remittance recipients and non-recipients, and a culture of over-dependency and reliance on funds from abroad (Mishra A. K., 2016). If remittances are not channeled into investments, the brain drain effect can undermine the benefits of this income source (Fang, 2023).

Migration is an old phenomenon and a prerequisite for remittances and the formation of diasporas (Constant, 2016).While financial remittances are the most visible economic benefit, there are also social remittances, such as transferring technologies, knowledge, and innovations from destination countries to the home country (Deonanan, 2020; Karikari, 2016; Fromentin, 2017). Recognizing the critical importance of remittances, the governments of low—and middle-income countries have begun to explore other contributions that migrants and diaspora members can offer.

A major limitation of existing research is the lack of comparative analysis of different countries' diaspora policies. Scholars often focus on individual policy components without providing a holistic view. Additionally, these comparisons do not present digital approaches implemented in recent years. This study aims to fill these gaps and contribute to the academic literature. We conduct a comparative analysis of the diaspora policies of China, India, and South Korea. These countries were selected for three reasons: they are well-developed economies, they have large diaspora populations scattered around the globe, and they have successfully implemented diaspora engagement policies (ECPR, 2024). Understanding how these countries leverage their diaspora to facilitate the flow of investments, technology, knowledge, innovation, and business opportunities is crucial for developing mutually beneficial policies for diaspora members and their home countries.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 provides a review of the relevant literature and introduces the definitions of components of diaspora engagement policies. Section 3 examines the diaspora engagement policies of the People's Republic of China, India, and South Korea. Section 4 presents a conclusion.

2. Literature Review

The term diaspora refers to individuals, communities, and populations living outside of their country of origin. This term includes permanent and temporary migrants, their children, and subsequent generations (Wickramasekara P. T., 2018). Diaspora engagement policies are defined as a national strategy aimed at reaching out to the diaspora and utilizing their resources for the economic development of their countries of origin (Butsch, 2020).

These policies range from protecting migrants to strengthening the sense of national identity among their decedents and promoting remittances and investments through their linkages (Vezzoli, 2010). The development and implementation of diaspora engagement policies demonstrate how governments, policymakers, and citizens think beyond national borders to create non-territorial forms of organization (Jovan Filipovic, 2012). These policies consist of strategies that help migrants secure their status in foreign states and contribute to the welfare of their homeland (Chen, 2021).

Diaspora engagement policies have both international and internal elements. They are an integral part of the development strategies in many countries, contributing to technological progress and industrial transformation (Lim, 2018). Policymakers recognize the diversity within the diaspora in terms of ethnicity, community of origin, gender, migration status, skill profiles, and generations to develop specific strategies for each group (Wickramasekara P. T., 2018; Mencutek, 2018). These policies should mutually benefit diaspora members and their ancestral homelands (Stojkov, 2023; Constant, 2016). Understanding the diaspora engagement policies of other countries and learning from their experiences is crucial for developing effective strategies.

While early police studies focused on the financial potential of the diaspora, particularly in the form of remittances (Baser, 2022; Goldring, 2004; Devkota, 2016; Fonta, 2015; Kakhkharov J. &., 2020), recent research has shifted towards social remittances, such as knowledge, skills, innovation, business ideas (Gamlen A. , 2014; Di Iasio, 2022; Fackler, 2020). A review of the interdisciplinary literature reveals various objectives for these policies. In Lithuania and Jamaica, such policies focus on supporting the population abroad and encouraging return migration. Chile, Australia, and New Zealand are working on creating diaspora business networks that can support their homeland. Ireland, India, and Scotland have more pluralistic approaches, encompassing overseas support, remittances, charity, and business connections (Ancien, 2009).

When it comes to the components of diaspora policies, (Vezzoli, 2010) categorizes four specific elements, each playing a crucial role in the diaspora engagement landscape. These include facilitating remittance transfers and investments, promoting SMEs in origin countries, and encouraging the transfer of technologies, knowledge, and skills. (Ancien, 2009) further identifies ten different aspects of these policies, while (Gamlen A., 2018) divides them into two groups: one focusing on state interests and the other fulfilling the state obligations. (UNCDF, 2021) identifies twenty-three mechanisms for diaspora finance. (Park, 2021) highlights three main elements of diaspora policies: legal, informational, and psychological, each of which carries significant weight in the diaspora engagement discourse.

After reviewing the literature, we adopt the taxonomy developed by(Isaeva, 2024) for our analyses. This taxonomy identifies four key aspects of diaspora engagement policies: legal, institutional, financial, and informational/cultural. Each aspect contains several components. Legal approaches involve changes in regulation and legislation. Institutional strategies describe the organizations that should be established. Financial mechanisms focus on enabling diaspora financing. Informational and cultural aspects encompass events, projects, and programs that foster engagement with the diaspora. In the next section, we use this taxonomy to conduct comparative analyses of the diaspora engagement policies of China, India, and South Korea.

3. Diaspora engagement policies of China, India and South Korea

China, India, and South Korea have different histories, migration patterns, and approaches to engaging their diaspora populations. These countries demonstrate that "one size does not fit all," and a broad range of approaches exists. Each government has designed its policies and strategies based on its interests and the specific situation of its diaspora. China, India, and South Korea have recognized the potential of their diaspora and successfully engaged them in national development and growth, thereby creating a positive image of the country and increasing its soft power.

This study explores the policies and strategies of China, India, and South Korea to stimulate diaspora engagement and boost diaspora financing. We systematically review secondary sources, such as government and research agency reports, articles, and other online resources. Table 1 presents the findings from the comparative analysis of the diaspora engagement policies of these countries.

TABLE 1. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF DIASPORA ENGAGEMENT POLICIES OF CHINA, INDIA, AND SOUTH KOREA

	China	India	South Korea
Legal			
Definition of diaspora	HuaqiaovaHuaren	NRI va PIO	Kyopos, Koryos, Chosuns
Status of diaspora	Overseas Chinese Certificate	OCI card	H2 and F4 visas, dual citizenship
Rights of diaspora	Rights and benefits can vary depending on local regulations	Multiple entry lifelong visa, registration exemption, property ownership (excluding agricultural land), rights to study, work, business activities	Multiple entry visa valid for five years, simplified registration, property ownership (excluding agricultural land), rights to study, work, business activities
Institutional			
Diaspora Affairs	Council Overseas Chinese Affairs Office (OCAO) and the All-China Federation of Returned Overseas Chinese (ACFROC)	Prime Minister's Global Advisory Council of Overseas Indians, Indian Council of Overseas Employment, Indian Community Welfare Fund	Division for Overseas Koreans at the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Overseas Korean Policy Committee
Diaspora research	Huaqiao University and Social Sciences Academy	High-Level Committee on Indian Diaspora	Overseas Korean Foundation
Education and Culture	Confucius Institutes, ACFROC Youth Committee	Overseas Indian Centers, Indian culture services	King Sejong Institute, Overseas Korean Agency
Investment	Hui-zhang-centers, local diaspora offices of OCAO	Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre (OIFC), Local diaspora offices	Overseas Korean Traders Association
Financial			

Remittances	Cross-Border Interbank Payment System (CIPS)	Integrated Remittances Gateway	
Products for diaspora banking	Insurance and pension schemes	NRI deposit, insurance and pension schemes, diaspora bonds in 1991,1998 and 2000	Checking and saving accounts, insurance, and pension schemes
Investment	Economic zones in traditional diaspora hometowns, Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), World Chinese Entrepreneurs Convention	Community Development Financial Institution, Indian Diaspora Investment Initiative	World Korean Business Conventions
Informational and Cultural			
Education	Language and cultural courses in 556 Confucius institutions	Scholarship program for diaspora children, language and cultural courses in 37 Indian centers	"Korean Homeland Education" program, language and cultural courses in 248 branches of King Sejong Institute
Programs	"Spring Sunshine Plan," "Thousand Talents Program," "Thousand Youth Talents Program," "China Root-seeking Tour" program	"Swarnajayanti Fellowship," "Ramalingaswamy Re-entry Fellowship," "Outstanding Scientist of Indian origin," "Tracing the Roots" project	"Employment Management Program", "Visit and Employment Program", "First Trip Home" project
Diaspora day		PravasiBharatiya Divas, PravasiBharatiyaSamman Awards	Korean Day for Overseas Koreans
Platforms	"My China Roots" online platform, WeChat, WEBEX	Global Indian Network of Knowledge	Global Network of Korean Scientists and Engineers

This table highlights key components of the diaspora engagement policies in China, India, and South Korea, showcasing various strategies for fostering connections with diaspora communities. The following section provides a detailed exploration of each country's case individually.

3.1.China

China has the largest diaspora in the world. More than 10.7 million Chinese live overseas; the total Chinese diaspora population, including their descendants, is approximately 60 million (World Bank, 2021). Historically, Chinese migration was concentrated in South Korea, Japan, and Singapore. However, over the past two decades, the number of Chinese diaspora members in the United States, Canada, and Spain has increased sharply (Figure 3).
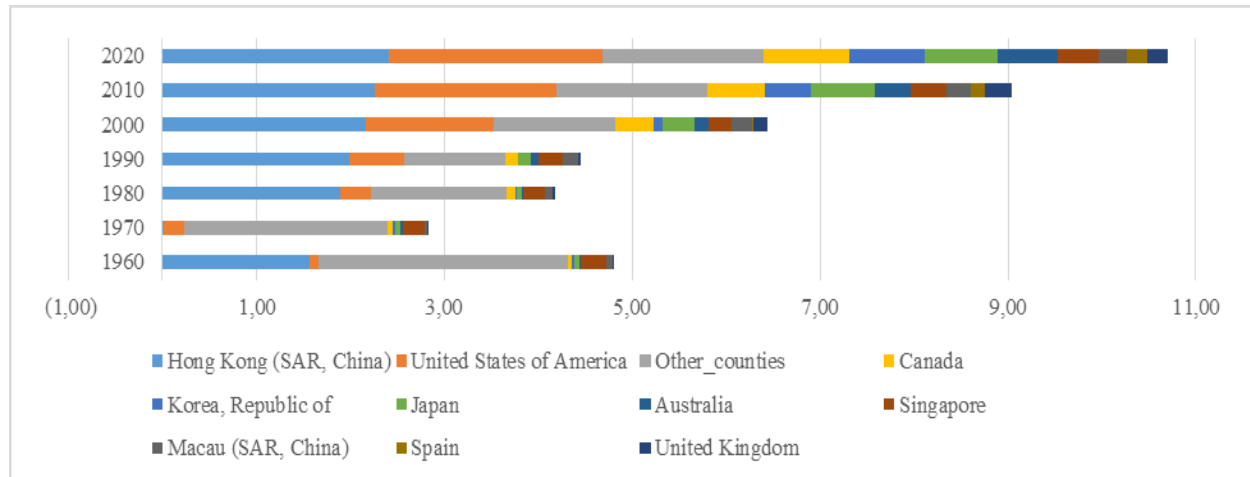
Figure 1. Top ten destination countries of Chinese migrants (in millions)(World Bank, 2021).

The Chinese diaspora is characterized by hyper-mobility, hyper-diversity, and hyper-connectivity (Guo, 2022). Since the 1990s, the Chinese have actively engaged its diaspora, cultivating long-distance nationalism among overseas Chinese (Chen, 2021). The Nationality Law of China prohibits dual citizenship since 1980. In 2009, China reformed its diaspora policies through the Provisions on Defining the Identities of Overseas Chinese, Chinese of Foreign Nationalities, Returned Overseas Chinese, and Relatives of Overseas Chinese. This document categorized the diaspora into two groups: Huaqiao and Huaren. Huaren refers to migrants and their descendants who are citizens of other countries. Huaqiao refers to citizens of China residing abroad (Tan, 2021; Guo, 2022).

Two major organizations are responsible for formulating and implementing policies concerning overseas Chinese, namely, the State Council Overseas Chinese Affairs Office (OCAO) and the All-China Federation of Returned Overseas Chinese (ACFROC)(Liu H. &., 2016; Agunias D. R., 2009). Established in 1949 and re-branded in 1978, the OCAO operates within the Chinese central government, with offices extending to provincial, municipal, county, township, and village levels (Liu J. M., 2022). Until 2018, OCAO's primary role was developing and implementing diaspora policies. In 2018, several units of OCAO were absorbed by the United Front Work Department of the Chinese Communist Party, and the function of liaising with emigrants was transferred to ACFROC (Schäfer, 2022).

The ACFROC, founded in 1956 and revitalized in 1978, initially focused solely on migrant returnees (Liu J. M., 2022). However, it gradually expanded its reach to include a growing number of Chinese overseas students. Today, ACFROC manages a wide range of activities, including liaising with overseas Chinese and their dependents and returnees and organizing academic and cultural programs (Tan, 2021; Thunø, 2024).

Huaqiao University and Social Sciences Academic Press publishes the Annual Report on Overseas Chinese Studies, offering analyses of diaspora policies and recommendations (Y. Jia, 2023). Since the 1990s, its network of a dozen institutions has formed an institutional connection between overseas Chinese and China, contributing to developing diaspora policy guidelines (Schäfer, 2022). In 2004, China established Confucius Institutes to promote Chinese language and culture, support international Chinese language education, and facilitate cultural exchanges.

By 2024, there are 556 institutions in 154 countries (Confucius Institude, 2024). The ACFROC's Youth Committee, founded in 2001, fosters economic, scientific, and cultural exchanges, particularly among youth. The China Federation of Overseas Chinese Entrepreneurs, established in 2003, supports overseas Chinese enterprises and strengthens entrepreneurial organizations (Liu H. &., 2016).

China places particular emphasis on attracting investment, technology, and Chinese talents from abroad. In 1996, the Ministry of Education launched the "Spring Sunshine Plan" to recruit overseas Chinese talent with notable achievements to work at Chinese universities on a short-term basis. This initiative facilitated the return of numerous science and engineering graduate students from developed countries, consequently fostering high-tech business development (Devane, 2006). The "Thousand Talents Program," initiated by the Central Organizational Department in 2008, aimed to recruit leading scientists, research professionals, technological innovators, and entrepreneurs. This program included the "Innovative Talents Project" and the "Entrepreneurial Talents Project", targeting overseas Chinese under the age of 55 (Tan, 2021). Over six years, the program has recruited more than 4,000 talents (Tigau, 2017). In 2011, the "Thousand Youth Talents Program" was launched, targeting individuals under the age of 40 who have earned a doctoral degree from prestigious foreign universities in the fields of natural science, engineering, and technology (Cao, 2020).

Special economic zones have been established in traditional diaspora hometowns in Guangdong and Fujian provinces, granting the diaspora legal privileges in social welfare and economic investments. The Chinese government actively supports Chinese companies abroad to enhance economic cooperation between China and other countries (Liu J. M., 2022). Since 1991, the central government has organized the annual World Chinese Entrepreneurs Convention to promote economic cooperation among overseas Chinese entrepreneurs and business communities worldwide. The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), launched in 2013, seeks to create new business opportunities for the Chinese diaspora. In 2017, two online platforms - the Overseas Chinese and BRI Information Releasing Platform and the website for the Coordination of BRI Overseas Chinese Entrepreneurial Organizations - were launched, involving more than 270 entrepreneurial organizations (Ren, 2022).

Between 1978 and 2017, more than 84% of Chinese students studying abroad returned to China, with over 24.000 employing approximately 3.1 million returnees in more than 300 pioneer parks by 2017. By 2022, 60% of Chinese university rectors, 81% of science academy staff, and 50% of department heads at the Ministry of Science and Technology were repatriated overseas Chinese (Schäfer, 2022). China's success in attracting investments from its diaspora has also been significant (Tigau, 2017). By 2020, around 70% of foreign investments in China were attributed to the diaspora (Song C. &., 2021).

During the COVID-19 pandemic, China transformed the crisis into an opportunity for transnational nation-building and power enhancement through digital technologies. Engaging with the diaspora via the WeChat application enabled real-time interactive communication and facilitated donations. Although exact figures are unavailable, evidence indicate that AFROC's fundraising efforts were met with positive responses globally (Ceccagno, 2023). Digital services, such as online notary services, online litigation, and health and judicial chat groups, were provided via Weixin in close collaboration with local offices of AFROC and overseas Chinese associations (Thunø, 2024).

It is difficult to have accurate figures on the total number of overseas Chinese associations. As of 2024, estimates suggest there are over 20.000 associations globally, with approximately 7.000 in Malaysia, 3.000 in the United States, and 2.000 in Europe (Xiang, 2024). These associations, along with Hui-zhang centers, play an increasingly important role in facilitating the penetration of Chinese capital into foreign countries (Chen, 2021).

Historically, the relationship between China and its diaspora was predominantly characterized by remittances and investments. However, since the 1990s, the focus has shifted toward social remittances (Schäfer, 2022). The government of China dedicates time and resources to research to explore diaspora and its needs before investing in the development of institutional support to assist, encourage, and protect diaspora members. To maximize the role of its diaspora in national development, China employs multi-dimensional and multi-scalar linkages, particularly in attracting highly skilled talent and engaging the diaspora in public diplomacy. The country's remarkable economic development and investment booms would not have been possible without the support of the diaspora. Nonetheless, China's diaspora–development nexus remains heavily state-controlled, with little input from diaspora organizations and individuals shaping diaspora policies.

3.2.India

In 1998, India created the Person of Indian Origin (PIO) cards, and in 2003, Non-Resident Indians (NRI) status. NRI refers to an Indian citizen residing abroad and holding an Indian passport, while PIO refers to a person with Indian ancestry without Indian citizenship. These two schemes were merged in 2015 into the Overseas Citizens of India (OCI) card(Harijanti, 2018). All PIOs, except citizens of Pakistan and Bangladesh, can apply for an OCI card. They allow multiple entries, multi-purpose, lifelong visas for living and working in India (Ministry of Home Affairs, 2017). India has over 32 million diaspora members residing in more than 134 countries (Dwivedi, 2023). The United States hosts the highest number of overseas Indians, followed by the United Arab Emirates and Malaysia (Figure 4).
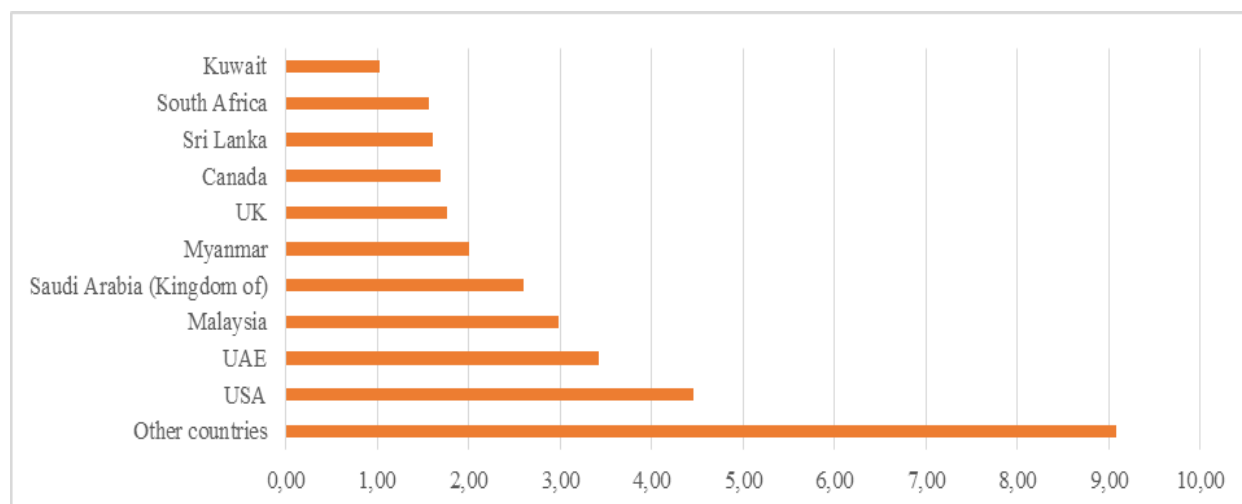
Figure 2. Indian diaspora in the world (in millions)(Dwivedi, 2023)

A Special Coordination Division in the Ministry of External Affairs was established in 1985 as the agency to coordinate affairs related to overseas Indians. In 2000, the NRI/PIO division was created to deal exclusively with issues relating to the Indian diaspora under the Ministry of

External Affairs. At the same time, a High-Level Committee on the Indian Diaspora was established to conduct diaspora research and develop policy frameworks and strategies to forge a mutually beneficial relationship with the diaspora(Mishra A. K., 2016; Loshkariov, 2023). The Overseas Indian Facilitation Centre was launched in 2007 to secure Indian diaspora investments, facilitate business partnerships, function as a clearinghouse for all investment-related information, and provide advisory services to investors about opportunities and trends in the Indian economy (Pande, 2017). The Prime Minister's Global Advisory Council of Overseas Indians was established in 2009 to harness diaspora resources for national development (MFA, 2023).

The Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs was established in 2004 to coordinate migration-related affairs. The Ministry worked in three directions: enhancing linkages with development work, promoting circular and return migration, and addressing the needs of specialized groups. 2016, it merged with the Ministry of External Affairs of India (MEA, 2016). The Indian Council of Overseas Employment was founded in 2008 as a strategic 'think tank' on overseas employment markets for Indians and overseas Indian workers (Agarwala, 2015). The Indian Community Welfare Fund, set up in 2009, aims to assist overseas Indian nationals in times of distress and emergency (Chanda, 2018). Since 2010, the Global Indian Network of Knowledge has expanded the intellectual engagement of Global Indians with their counterparts in India. It is an online knowledge network of doctors, scholars, and technologists. This network facilitates connections, advice sharing, and research opportunities (Li, 2019).

Some states in India have local diaspora offices, such as Non-Resident Keralite Affairs, the NRI Division in Gujarat, and the NRI Commissioner in Andhra Pradesh and Punjab. The Keralan government created the Non-Resident Keralite Affairs in 1996 primarily to protect its migrant workers from abuse and exploitation. Today, it addresses complaints against illegal recruitment agencies, assists stranded Keralites, and facilitates the repatriation of bodies. It also has an insurance scheme for unemployed returnees, unskilled laborers, and domestic workers. In Gujarat, the local government created an NRI Division within its administration department to strengthen ties with Gujaratis abroad. For a fee of 5 US dollars, the office issues a "Gujarat Card" to Gujaratis living in other Indian states and outside India. Cardholders receive special treatment at Gujarat government offices and large discounts at local hotels and shops (Agunias D. R., 2009; Mishra A. K., 2016).

In addition, India has an Overseas Indian Association and philanthropic funds worldwide that serve as field formations on matters relating to overseas Indians. In the UK alone, there are over three hundred Indian-led migrant organizations. These associations reveal the dynamism of the Indian diaspora in terms of development issues (Vezzoli, 2010).

India's exchange regime, which strongly restricted remittances to India, was liberalized in 2000(Vezzoli, 2010). In 2006, India launched the Integrated Remittances Gateway, enabling NRIs to send money instantaneously anywhere in India within 24 hours (Indo-Asian News Service, 2006). As a result, since 2011, India has been receiving the largest amount of remittances in the world. In 2023, remittance inflows exceeded 80 billion US dollars (World Bank-KNOMAD, 2024).

The State Bank of India has successfully issued diaspora bonds in three issues. India Development Bonds, issued following the balance of payments crisis in 1991, raised 1.6 billion US dollars. Resurgent India Bonds issued following sanctions imposed after nuclear testing 1998

raised 4.2 billion US dollars. India Millennium Deposits in 2000 raised 5.5 billion US dollars. All bonds were issued without US Securities and Exchange Commission registration. Bonds had a non-negotiable fixed rate with a five-year maturity. Bonds could be redeemed by family members in India in rupees or repatriated by migrants in foreign currency (Ketkar, 2010; Ancien, 2009; Mishra A. K., 2016). The exclusivity was particularly effective in India because it is believed that the Indian diaspora prefers to invest in instruments exclusive to them and hold assets in Indian rupees (Ozaki, 2016). However, India has not made diaspora bonds a regular feature of its foreign financing and has used them as a source of emergency finance.

Since 2005, India has offered non-resident ordinary accounts in rupees, which are non-repatriable, repatriable accounts in rupees, and repatriable accounts in six foreign currencies. Foreign currency non-resident deposits have high interest rates and one to five years of fixed terms. The interest and balance of this deposit are exempt from income and wealth taxes, respectively. Holders of foreign currency non-resident deposits can obtain loans in India and abroad, both in domestic and foreign currencies (UNCDF, 2021). These deposit schemes remain essential for obtaining foreign capital (Tigau, 2017). The Social Security Agreement allows all NRIs and PIOs to use the National Pension System (Odermatt, E., 2013). To alleviate double taxation, Indian authorities amended budget legislation in 2020 to exempt Indian expats from paying tax on overseas income (Loshkariov, 2023).

Returned migrants transfer technologies and global standards into Indian startups (George, 2023). While the Indian diaspora provides only 3% of India's foreign direct investment, they play a significant role in high-tech development, particularly in the software industry. India is an excellent example for other developing countries, as its software industry has grown through diaspora investment and entrepreneurship (Devane, 2006).

Policies regarding return migration had gained momentum since the late 1990s when government institutions started offering contractual positions and fellowships to outstanding overseas Indian scientists, technologists, and academics. The Department of Science and Technology within India's Ministry of Science and Technology initiated the Swarna jayanti Fellowship in 1997. This scholarship was for Indian nationals aged 30-40 years who were residing abroad and had the potential to promote scientific endeavors in the economy. In 2006, "The Ramalingaswamy Re-entry Fellowship" was launched to facilitate the return of highly skilled diaspora members, targeting Indian scientists aged under 55 working in overseas institutions or universities who wish to return and pursue their research interests in Indian institutions. In 2008, the Council of Scientific and Industrial Research of India launched a fellowship for "Outstanding Scientist/Scientists-Technologists of Indian origin." The program was offered to scientists of Indian origin to come back or leverage their expertise for the growth of research and development in the country (Li, 2019).

The Pravasi Bharatiya Samman Awards and Pravasi Bharatiya Divas were introduced in 2003. Pravasi Bharatiya Divas is celebrated on January 9 every year to mark the contribution of Overseas Indians to India's development. Annually, up to 20 members of the Indian diaspora who have made significant national and global contributions receive the Pravasi Bharatiya Samman Awards during the Pravasi Bharatiya Divas. The Know India Program, launched in the same year, is a three-week internship organized by the Ministry of External Affairs for PIOs aged 21-35. The program's primary objective is to promote social, economic, and cultural awareness of India among second and subsequent generations of PIOs (Singh N. &., 2018).

Since 2008, the genealogy service "Tracing the Roots" has helped PIOs trace their roots in India. The Scholarship Program for Diaspora Children, launched in 2006, allows children of PIOs and NRIs to pursue higher education in various fields at Indian universities/institutes (MEA, 2023). However, all these programs primarily target the privileged professional-class diaspora working in high-tech jobs in the United States and Western Europe, excluding citizens of neighboring Pakistan and Bangladesh (Bauböck, 2010).

The government's perception of migrants and overseas Indians has shifted from negative to positive over the past two decades. In parallel, India embarked on a broader development path through investments in the economy and education, which created a more favorable environment that allowed diaspora engagement policies to accelerate the pace of diaspora engagement. However, it would be naïve to expect that specific diaspora engagement policies could have succeeded without a broader development dynamic creating an attractive investment environment. In summary,India's diaspora engagement policies promote the idea that the Indian diaspora's first loyalty is to their destination country. Indian patriotism should align with building affiliation to the new home.

3.3.South Korea

Brain drain was a significant issue in South Korea during the 1960s and 1970s when many Koreans left for better opportunities in Western countries. In the 1990s, South Korea began to view its diaspora as a valuable asset. The country's diaspora engagement policies were a response to a demographic crisis, falling fertility rates, and a stagnating economy. The first step of these policies was facilitating the return of the diaspora(Lim, 2018).

The Korean diaspora has seen significant growth over the decades. In 1960, the number of overseas Koreans was approximately 2.07 million (Figure 5). This figure has steadily increased, reaching around 7.49 million by 2019 (S. Lee, 2024). The diaspora is widely dispersed, with the largest communities in China, the United States, Japan, and Canada, and some notable communities in Australia, Russia, and Uzbekistan (Song C. , 2014).

There are three main groups of Koreans: Kyopos, who reside in the United States, Europe, and Japan; Koryos, based in former Soviet Union countries; and Chosuns - the Korean diaspora in China (Mylonas, 2013). South Korea granted them virtual extraterritorial citizenship to attract the diaspora under the Immigration and Legal Status of Ko

reans Overseas Act in 1999. The act introduced the H2 and F4 visa schemes and was amended in 2004 to include the Chosuns. It
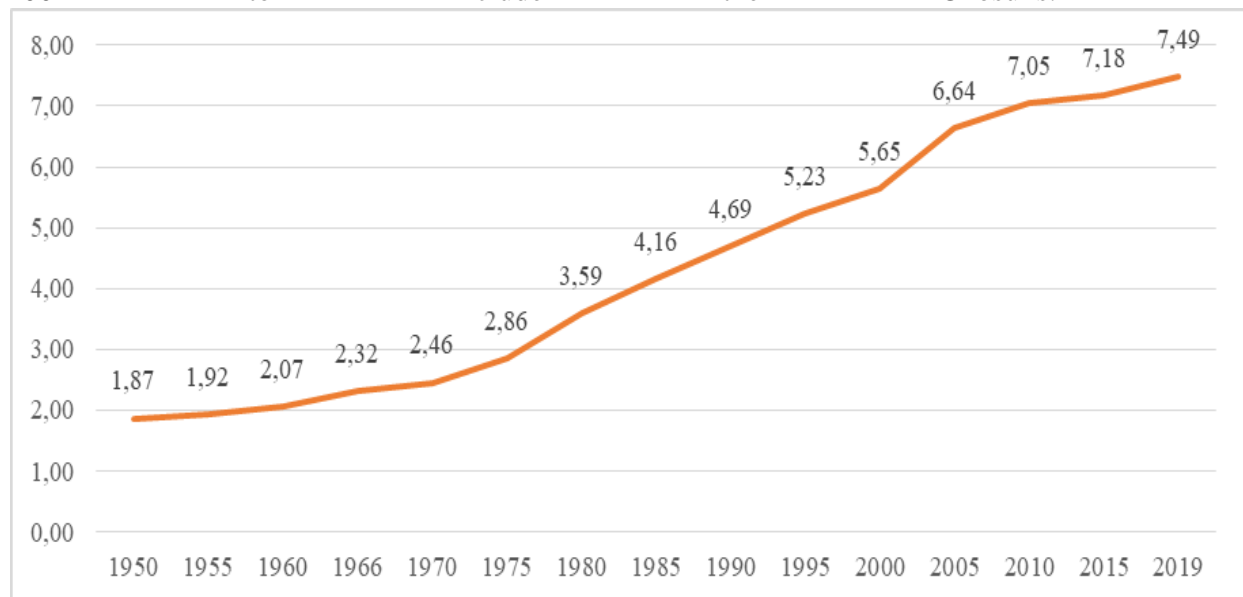
Figure 3. Number of overseas Koreans (in million people) (S. Lee, 2024)

granted overseas Koreans the right to enter South Korea freely, conduct business, own real estate, use foreign exchange transactions, and access health insurance and pensions(Harijanti, 2018).

In a further step, South Korea recognized dual citizenship in 2010 (Constant, 2016). By 2011, the country granted overseas Koreans the right to vote in presidential and National Assembly elections from their country of residence (Hong, 2017; ESCAP, 2020). However, policies regarding the diaspora vary depending on the host country and the individuals' age. For example, policies concerning the Kyopos differ from those targeting the Koryos. Additionally, while Koreans over 60 are eligible for citizenship, younger Koreans are not (Constant, 2016).

The leading institution overseeing migrant Koreans is the Division for Overseas Koreans within the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The Overseas Korean Policy Committee, which is affiliated with the central government, continuously monitors and discusses Diaspora-related policies. The committee includes Vice Ministers from other ministries (Hong, 2017). The Overseas Korean Foundation was established in 1997 under the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It is a non-profit organization that encourages overseas Koreans to visit their homeland, promotes research, builds a network of talented Kyopos, and fosters Korean language and culture among overseas Koreans and their descendants (Agunias D. , 2010).

The Korean Ministry of Science and Technology launched the Global Network of Korean Scientists and Engineers in 1999 to promote connections among diaspora members. The network taps into the knowledge and skills of Koreans abroad to advance science, technology, and business in Korea. At the same time, it helps the Korean business community connect with overseas scientists and engineers (Eun-Ja, 2017; Song C. , 2014).

Since 1998, the Overseas Korean Foundation has run several programs to support, assist, and reconnect Korean adoptees worldwide with their ethnic homeland. The First Trip Home program, launched in 2008, assists overseas Korean adoptees in finding their birth families (G.O.A'.L., 2020). The Ministry of Women and Family organizes reconnection services for ethnic Korean women married to foreigners (Song C. , 2014). Since 1998, Korean Homeland Education has offered programs to cultivate the ethnic identity of overseas Koreans and help second and third generations of overseas Koreans grow into global talents (NIIED, 2024). The King Sejong Institute is responsible for teaching the Korean language and disseminating Korean culture abroad. 2024 the institution has more than 248 branches in 85 countries (Ri, 2024). In 2007, the Korean government designated October 5 as Korean Day for overseas Koreans to honor and contribute to the harmony and development of overseas ethnic Koreans worldwide (Lyan, 2019).

The Overseas Korean Foundation and the Overseas Korean Traders Association have hosted the annual World Korean Business Convention since 2002 to connect overseas Koreans with the business community in South Korea (WKBC, 2023). In addition, more than 3.000 economic, political, social, and cultural Korean associations are operating globally. They offer various services, such as Korean language classes and cultural and religious events (Agunias D. , 2010).

The case of South Korea illustrates that state, policymakers, and public institutions play a significant role in harnessing the diaspora for the home country's development. Through diaspora engagement policies, South Korea transformed "brain drain" into "brain gain" and now benefits from the return migration of elite scientists and engineers. These policies have yielded economic, political, and cultural benefits. South Korea has built a new nation of expatriate Koreans, including ethnic Koreans, wherever they reside (Song C. , 2014). While Koreans in developed countries contribute their professional knowledge, Koreans in China and former Soviet Union countries contribute with their labor (Song C. &., 2021). The Overseas Korean Foundation continues to foster a Korean identity among the diaspora, enhancing and expanding economic and political cooperation. The experience of South Korea in diaspora engagement offers valuable lessons for other countries with similar ambitions.

4. CONCLUSION

Diaspora affairs involve a complex combination of economic and political aspects, reflecting the heterogeneous nature of diaspora communities. We aim to determine which policies should be adopted to harness the full potential of the diaspora and ensure optimal outcomes. To answer this research question, we examine the diaspora policies of three countries: China, India, and South Korea. We explore how the governments of these countries have engaged their respective Diasporas in the interest of national development. Specifically, the study assesses four main components of diaspora policies: legal, institutional, financial, and cultural.

Despite the continuous increase in remittances to Uzbekistan, no study has analyzed the policies and instruments that harness other diaspora resources. In this study, we aim to close this research gap. We use findings and interpretations from a literature review to design a new taxonomy. Using this taxonomy, we systemically review the diaspora engagement policies of the People's Republic of China, India, and South Korea. This study proposes diaspora policies for Uzbekistan.

The findings suggest that home countries must establish dedicated government institutions responsible for developing and implementing diaspora policies to benefit from diaspora knowledge, innovation, and finance. They should also grant legal status and privileges to diaspora members and provide a financial mechanism for diaspora investment. Lastly, cultural and informational approaches should be introduced to decrease information asymmetry and build trust with the diaspora.

Currently, Uzbekistan has no dedicated policies for its diaspora. The country is in the early stages of forming diaspora policies. Current policies focus more on migrant workers and protecting citizens. The Government of Uzbekistan should recognize the potential of the diaspora beyond remittances and develop long-term plans and policies for engaging with them. These policies should clearly define the diaspora, establish government institutions to manage diaspora affairs, and provide incentives for diaspora members. Recognition of dual citizenship or granting a specific status to the diaspora are also important steps in engagement. This can be achieved through continuous dialogue, consultations, and cooperation with the diaspora and by establishing specific institutions and platforms that facilitate effective diaspora engagement and support.

This study draws insights potentially valuable for policymakers considering the design or management of diaspora engagement policies. Regardless of the number and destination of the diaspora population, the experiences of the countries in this study highlight the importance of migration. Migrants are a source of investment capital, entrepreneurship, technology, knowledge, and business networks. They often possess greater capabilities and are more entrepreneurial than non-migrants. Even migrants who have "failed" in destination countries may have acquired skills and networks there that enable them to be competitive upon returning to their country of origin. Migrants and diaspora members have helped China become a massive manufacturing power, India becomes a global technology hub, and South Korea become a leading digital nation.

This study is an important resource for academics and policymakers seeking to understand the current trends and insights into diaspora policies. Academics and policymakers can gain a comprehensive understanding of the diaspora policies of India, China, and South Korea. Scholars can adopt the taxonomy in this study to analyze the diaspora engagement policies of other countries. While this study presents a modest effort to analyze diaspora policies, it may have missed some valuable research from other sources. Additionally, the literature review approach is qualitative, which may limit the generalization of the results and advocate for caution in interpretation. Through our analysis, we have advanced a systematic literature review and comparative analysis that can be easily replicated in the future for continuous updates.

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