

Settlement of Foreign Labour Market Policy in ASEAN + 3 Free Trade Perspectives in Indonesia

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Indonesia's relationship with the ASEAN + 3 initially began in 1997 with the ASEAN Plus Three (APT) Summit. The summit resulted in an agreement of cooperation in the fields of trade, investment and finance. The agreement itself provides three broad implications for Indonesia (Verico, 2013). First, Indonesia must reduce import duty on imported goods, thereby encouraging increased imports for Indonesia. Second, Indonesia will face a large number of foreign direct investment (FDI) from ASEAN + 3 countries. Third, Indonesia will face an influx of foreign labours entering ASEAN + 3 countries. Based on its national origin, foreign labour from China dominates the Indonesia foreign labour industry. Referring to the list of permits for hiring foreign labour issued by the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, 21,271 labours (28.7%) of the total 74,183 foreign labours in Indonesia were from China. The exquisite numbers of trade transactions between Indonesia and China and the large amount of aid and cooperation between the two countries have led to this dominating increase in Chinese labours in Indonesia. In the January-November 2016 period, the number of foreign labours from China increased by 21.44% from the end of 2015. In addition to legal foreign labours, Indonesia also experienced issues in monitoring those than entered illegally. Besides information released in media news, no official statistics are available to estimate the amount of illegal foreign labours entering Indonesia. Illegal foreign labours found by the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration during 2016 were as many as 800 TKA, most of which came from China, though reality in the field is much higher. This instability in statistical evaluation and insufficiency in information is due to Indonesia's lack of control system or database. A control system is necessary as both legal and illegal foreign labour may end up in the

trade-off of local labour areas, which poses problems with Indonesia's high unemployment rates.

Key words: *ASEAN +3, foreign labour, foreign direct investment.*

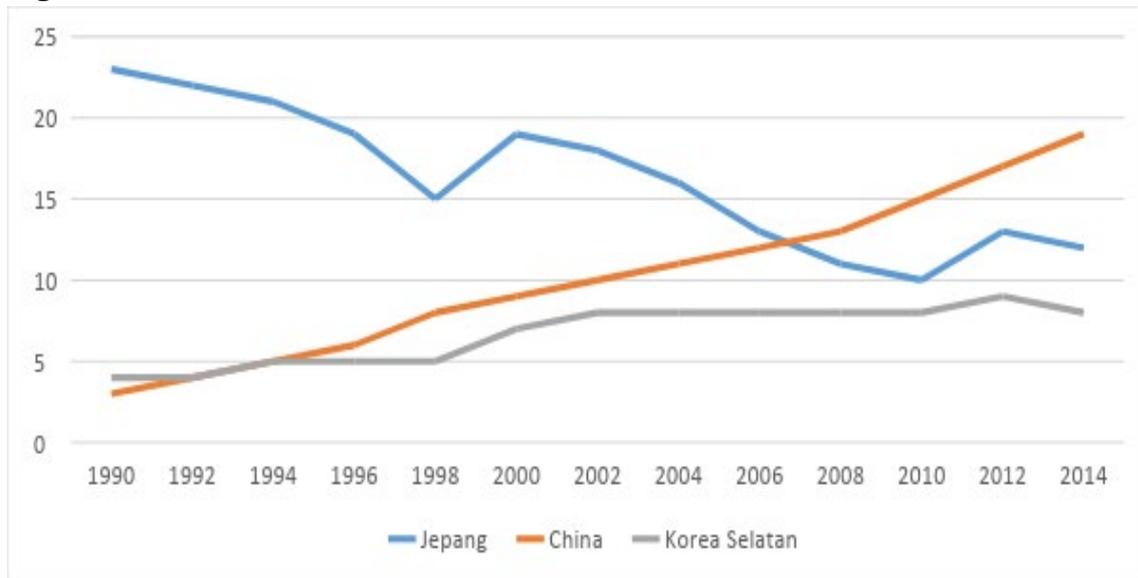
Introduction

In recent years, a drastic change has occurred in international trade relations between Indonesia and ASEAN + 3 (all ASEAN countries plus Korea, China and Japan). Indonesia's cooperative relationship with ASEAN + 3 initially began in 1997 with the ASEAN Plus Three (APT) Summit. The summit resulted in an agreement of cooperation in the fields of trade, investment and finance, and provides three broad implications for Indonesia (Verico, 2013). First, Indonesia must reduce import duty on imported goods, thereby encouraging increased imports for the country. Second, Indonesia will face a large number of foreign direct investment (FDI) from ASEAN + 3 countries. Finally, Indonesia will face the influx of foreign labours entering ASEAN + 3 countries.

Theoretically, free trade can provide economic benefits and reduce transaction costs. The existence of free trade can open market access for goods and services, fulfil raw materials and increase capacity building for human resources. These benefits of free trade will be further increased if the competitiveness of industry and domestic human resources is far higher than that of industries and human resources abroad. ASEAN + 3 is the third largest economy in the world after the EU and NAFTA. The population of this region is 1.85 billion with an area of 14 million km². Of all ASEAN + 3 countries, China has the largest economic power both in terms of economic strength, number of labours and area coverage. Since 2000, it was marked by the joining of China to become a member of the world trade organisation (WTO). China then began to engage in more trade expansion, especially in ASEAN countries.

The data in Figure 1 below shows that after China joined the WTO, the intensity of its foreign trade with countries in ASEAN increased. Following its alliance with the WTO, China was predicted by many economic observers to become a "giant" of the world economy and that Japan's trade role in the ASEAN region would subsequently shift. The data in Figure 1 supports these claims, showing that in 2008, China's trade share exceeded Japan's, with the latter experiencing a decline in trade share in ASEAN countries.

Figure 1. Asia's trade share + 3 in ASEAN total trade



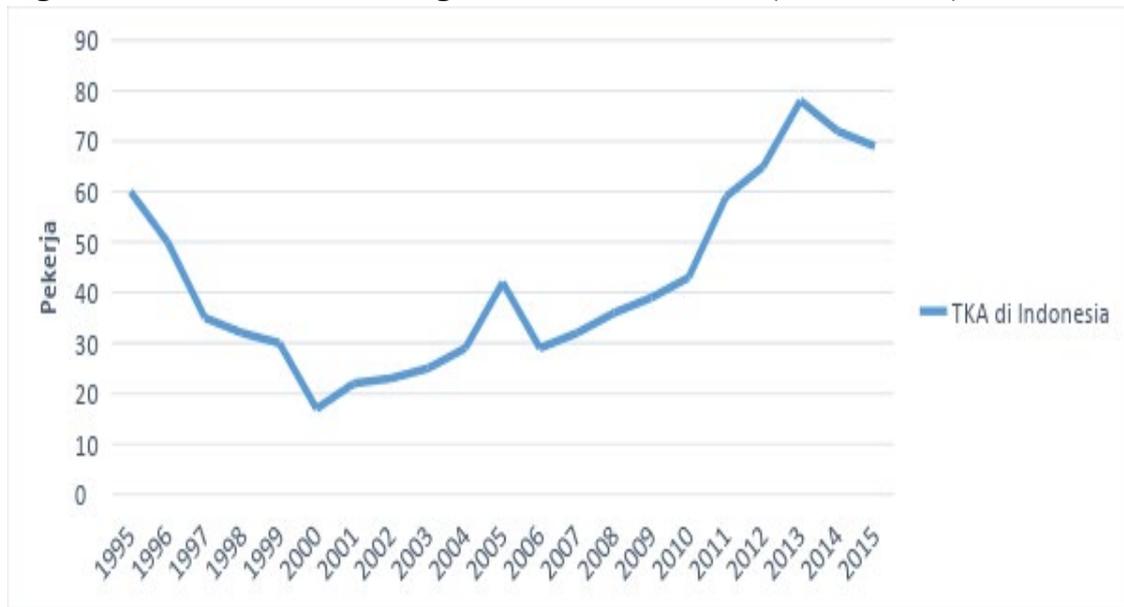
(Source: UN Comtrade Statistic)

The data above also illustrates the change in Japan's trading strategy. Formerly, all Japanese product components were assembled on home soil in Japan, after which the final goods were exported to partner countries. This strategy has changed, however, with Japan relocating its industry to countries in ASEAN so that the final goods distributed are not listed as made in Japan (Aziz, J Iwan, 2014). This strategy is referred to as the production network, which has seen an increase in Japanese foreign direct investment (FDI) in ASEAN countries.

A similar strategy is conducted in China, though the two countries did not implement the same production network strategy. The magnitude of China's economic growth pushes both China and Japan to generate massive market expansion. China's strategy for the ASEAN market is to therefore place China at the centre of production, while distribution and consumption are left entirely for international markets (He & Yang, 2015). In addition to the investment strategy to ASEAN countries, China always requires the use of foreign labours from its country (Liste, Janvier, Jacob Kolster, 2012).

Aside from the increasing trade volume between ASEAN regions and ASEAN + 3, the execution of the ASEAN + 3 free market agreement also increases the number of foreign labours into Indonesian territory. The statistical data in Figure 2 below further explains this.

Figure 2. Total number of foreign labours in Indonesia (in thousands)



(Sources: Kementerian Tenaga Kerja dan Transmigrasi)

The data above shows an increase in the trend of legal foreign labour after Indonesia succeeded in recovery efforts following the economic crisis of 1997/1998. This trend then declined slightly in 2005 due to delays in awaiting the ASEAN-China free trade area (ACFTA) agreement. Following this, however, the number of legal foreign labours in Indonesia has increased dramatically. The foreign labours that enter Indonesia are largely professional staff.

From the data issued by the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration (*Kementerian Tenaga Kerja dan Transmigrasi*), foreign labours who obtained work permits until November 2016 increased by 7.5% from the December 2015, reaching 74,183 labours. The increase amounted to as many as 69,025 labours. Most foreign labours are professional, reaching 31% of the total number of foreign labours. The data further shows that until November 2016, Indonesia imported 2,568 directors and 408 commissioners from abroad. The large number of foreign companies and joint ventures in Indonesia that utilise foreign labours have led to an influx of foreign labours.

Based on their national origin, foreign labours from China dominate those labours working in Indonesia. Referring to the list of permits for hiring foreign labour issued by the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration, of the total 74,183 foreign labours in Indonesia, 21,271 (28.7%) were from China. The numbers of trade transactions between Indonesia and China and the large amount of aid and cooperation between the two countries have led to Chinese-dominant labours in Indonesia. In the January-November 2016 period, the number of foreign labours from China increased by 21.44% .

In addition to legal foreign labours, Indonesia also experienced problems in monitoring foreign labours who entered illegally. Aside from media news coverage, however, no official statistics have been gathered regarding the size of these illegal foreign labours. The Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration found as many as 800 TKA during 2016, most of whom came from China, though the reality in the field is much higher. This is due to Indonesia's lack of control system or database that can provide information regarding this matter. Without a control system, both legal and illegal foreign labours may end up in the trade-off of local labour which is highly problematic in the midst of Indonesia's high unemployment rates.

Labour mobility

The equilibrium model of the competitive labour market is built on the assumption that labours will continue to look for higher-paying jobs and companies will seek lower-paid labours. The equilibrium point is calculated based on the value of the marginal product produced by the labour workforce. This value will increase until the value of the marginal product of labour equals 0. If the condition reaches this point, the allocation of labours and companies becomes effective and no other way exists to increase the value contribution of labour to the national income.

In reality, however, the labour market does not always function according to the above assumptions. Labours are often unaware of the value of their own skills and abilities and lack information about other employment opportunities in the labour market. From the company side, it is also very rare to have information regarding the actual level of productivity of labours they employ. This means that both the labour workforce and the companies that employ them have not yet reached efficient levels. There are many ways to improve the allocation of labour however, including implementation of cross-border labour mobility. In the United States, 1.4 million foreign labours of both legal and illegal status enter the country annually (Hanson, 2006).

Labour migration abroad is usually carried out by people who have higher skills or education. When they receive benefits that continue to increase in migrant areas, these labour workers will stay and settle in that area (Hoxhaj, 2015). These benefits are not always consistent, however, with instances of profits becoming losses due to the changing competition in certain migrant regions. This spike in competition and losses often results in labours being forced to return to their home areas (Borjas, 1993, 2017). The basis of these arguments is based on the framework of the neoclassical migration theory (Baets, 2003). In the neoclassical view, there exists a difference in real wages between countries that can be the reason for someone to migrate. If this difference remains constant, migrants will only return if they cannot get high wages as expected or be exposed to psychological determinants, such as homesickness (Lo, 2015; York, 1987).

Further, in developing countries, labours with high formal education possess a higher likelihood of working in the non-agricultural sector (Junge, Diez, & Scha, 2013; Lee & Wie, 2017; Lim & Basnet, 2017). They are also more likely to look for and engage in sectors that provide the highest wages (Acemoglu, 2002; Autor, Katz, & Krueger, 1998; Feng, Hu, & Moffitt, 2017). An individual with formal education and experience of employment in the non-agricultural sector will therefore receive higher wages outside rural areas.

History of foreign labours based on the historical legal review approach

Following Indonesia independence, many occupations were held by foreign labours as many sectors of work remained that were carried out in the colonial period. During that period, many Indonesian labours were inadequate to occupy certain fields, such as in the technical and business fields in a company. The Government therefore enacted Law No. 3 of 1958 concerning foreign labour placement, which was enacted to regulate special provisions concerning foreign labours. This law is also often referred to as the Law on Foreign Labours Placement, and generally emphasises that foreign labours may only occupy positions that are unable to be filled with Indonesian labours. In other words, this law requires that Indonesian labours occupy the broadest possible fields of work, and only in the condition that such local workers are inadequate, foreign labours may be employed. Foreign labours who are granted permission to work in the territory of Indonesia must, however, be limited and monitored. The supervisory institution with licensing instruments that involves several agencies thus became the identity of Law No. 3 of 1958.

Over the time, the era of free trade led to regional level trade blocks marked by the existence of the ASEAN Free Trade Area (AFTA), with the World Trade Organisation (WTO) marking the global level. This then supports the progress of trade which increasingly knows no boundaries between countries. In addition to the trade sector, these limits are also increasingly absent in the world of employment. More and more foreigners enter Indonesia with different backgrounds and objectives, and work is one of their main goals. Free markets also affect this world of employment. This influence is further seen in Indonesian regulations, namely the enactment of Law Number 1 of 1967 as amended by Law Number 11 of 1970, which concerns foreign investment, and the enactment of Law Number 6 of 1968 as amended by Law Number 12 of 1970, which outlines the domestic investment law. This latter law was very influential for the development of labour law.

In 1969, Indonesia promulgated Law No. 14 of 1969 concerning basic provisions of manpower. A significant difference is seen in the regulation of foreign labour placement through through Law No. 14 of 1969, which regulates foreign labour placement in Indonesia. Unlike the previous arrangements, this Manpower Law regulates foreign labour placement matters in one

single regulation. The reason for this law was due to foreign labours continuing to work in Indonesia for technology transfer, an issue on labour migration, work assistance and job training. It was then aimed at utilising the Indonesian labours to respond to the application as well as the continued use of technology.

In the period after independence until 2005, labour laws and the regulation of foreign labour have seen several changes. While the arrangement is no longer solely regulated as in Law No. 3 of 1958, the legal substance relating to licensing and supervision institutions, as well as the placement of foreign labours which are carried out by different institutions or agencies, are still maintained. Effective coordination is therefore needed between these institutions and agencies, which include Immigration, the Attorney General's Office, Police, the State Intelligence Agency (BIN), and Local Government.

Rights and obligations of foreign labours in Indonesia

All labours possess the same rights and opportunities to maintain decent jobs and proper livelihoods without having to distinguish gender, ethnicity, race, religion or political views. This also includes equal treatment of disabled persons. Article 5 of Law No. 13 (2003) states that “Every labour has the same opportunity without discrimination to get a job”.

The utilisation of foreign labours must also comply with Indonesian labour regulations. Therefore, if Indonesian labour provisions regulate a right for foreign workers that must be complied with by the employer, then those rights must also be given to the workers. Among those rights are:

- a. Every labor has the right to obtain protection of:
 - A safe, healthy and optimum work environment;
 - Moral and decent conduct and treatment, and
 - Treatment in accordance with human dignity and religious values.
- b. Every labor has the right to obtain an income that meets the requirements for a decent living. This involves the ability to meet the living needs of labours and their families in a proper manner, which includes adequate food and drink, clothing, housing, education, health, recreation and pension.

The wages for foreign labours differs from those of local labours as foreign workers are few in number and generally occupy particular, often important, positions in a, meaning that salaries are often higher than those of local labours. In the mining sector, foreign labours receive the highest salaries compared to those working in other sectors.

From the results of a survey conducted by Bank Indonesia, the average salary of foreign labour in Indonesia reached Rp. 25-50 million. Of that amount, the salaries of foreign labours are in the construction sector, with the mining and quarrying sector as the highest trades which earn above Rp. 125 million per month.

List of foreign labours' wages

No	COUNTRY	AMOUNT
1	Amerika Serikat	Rp. 25-50 million/month
2	Eropa	Rp. 25-50 million/month
3	Oceania	Rp. 125 million / month
4	Afrika	Rp. 10 million / month
5	Timur Tengah	Rp. 10 million/month

Article 99 of Law No. 13 of 2003 states that all labours and their families have the right to obtain social security for work (*Jamsostek*). Paragraph 2 of Article 99 further determines that *Jamsostek* is carried out in accordance with the applicable laws and regulations. The definition of social security is a protection for labours in the form of monetary compensation in lieu of lost or reduced income and services as a result of events or circumstances like workplace accidents, illness, pregnancy, maternity, old age or death.

Further, Article 11 of Law No. 13 (2003) also states that the development of work competencies that match the talents, interests and abilities of labours through job training are also the rights of workers. Labours have the right to obtain such recognition through work competency certification that is granted after attending job training. Competency certification is the process of developing labours' competency through training and tests that refer to national and international competency standards.

Foreign labour workers also have obligations to their companies, such as:

- a. completing their job for the employer;
- b. complying with the company regulations;
- c. complying with the employment agreements;
- d. complying with the labour agreements;
- e. protecting the company's sensitive or private information;
- f. complying with the employer regulations;
- g. fulfilling all obligations agreed between the worker and employer provided such obligations comply with legal regulations.

Allowed fields of work in the AEC

The Cebu Declaration on 13th January 2007 (12th ASEAN Summit) accelerated the formation of the AEC into 2015 to strengthen ASEAN's capacity to face global competition, particularly from China and India. With the economic integration, it is expected that regional infrastructure can be developed along with the integration of transportation, telecommunications and energy. In the 2015 AEC, the final goal of the ASEAN regional economic integration process was the implementation of a free market for both the product industry and in production factors. To ensure the realisation of the AEC, a framework has been prepared that serves as a guideline for each member to prepare themselves as stated in the 2015 AEC's blueprint. However, the discussion of the workforce in this blueprint was limited to the regulation of skilled labour while unskilled labour was not examined. Matters related to unskilled labour are usually discussed bilaterally between countries as they are seen as sensitive issues.

An important factor for employment issues in the AEC is the Mutual Recognition Arrangement (MRA) and the main competencies for jobs that require expertise and skills in the service sector. The MRA is recognised by all ASEAN countries to mutually acknowledge or accept some or all aspects of the results of evaluations, such as test results or certificates. The MRA is a policy instrument established to advance economic integration and increase trade between countries. This condition is achieved by reducing non-tariff barriers on goods and services.

Based on the MRA that has been carried out by ASEAN countries, it is agreed that 8 professional sectors can be filled by foreign labours. This position is also specific and not general. The service sector includes the following occupations:

- Architects

Provisions regarding the Architectural sector are governed by the ASEAN Mutual Recognition Arrangement and the Architectural Services agreement. This agreement aims to enhance cooperation in design services to improve effectiveness, competitiveness and distribution of design personnel, both within and outside the ASEAN community.

- Engineers

Provisions regarding the engineering sector are regulated in the ASEAN Mutual Recognition Arrangements on Engineer Services.

- Accountants

Provisions regarding accountants are regulated in the ASEAN Mutual Recognition Arrangement Framework on Accountancy Service.

- Dentists

Provisions regarding dentistry are regulated in the ASEAN Framework Arrangement on the Mutual Recognition of Dental Practitioners.

- Surveyor of Earth Measurement

Earth field survey labours are experts in the field of earth measurement and are usually graduates from institutions that teach earth measurement sciences programs, such as geodesy techniques, geomatics engineering and construction engineering. Provisions regarding the survey sector in the field of earth measurement are regulated in the ASEAN Framework Arrangement on the Mutual Recognition of Surveying Qualifications established at the 2007 Singapore conference.

- Medical Practitioners

Provisions regarding medical practitioners are regulated in the ASEAN Framework Arrangement on the Mutual Recognition of Medical Practitioners.

- Nurses

Provisions regarding nursing are regulated in the ASEAN Framework Arrangement on the Mutual Recognition of Nursing Services.

- Tourism Professionals

Provisions regarding tourism professionals are regulated in the ASEAN Framework Arrangement on the Mutual Recognition of Tourism Professionals.

Policy on the utilisation of foreign labours and Indonesian community welfare

The presence of foreign labours is required to increase economic competitiveness. Philosophically, the principles of benefits, security aspects and legal aspects stipulate that the entry of a foreign labour must be conducted through a work permit obtained from the Minister of Manpower. This permit will be issued in line with the utilisation of foreign labour to meet the professional needs of labours in certain fields that cannot be filled by local workers. Additionally, this permit is subject to the obligation to provide an acceleration of technology experts and increased investment. The utilisation of foreign labours in Indonesia cannot be avoided, and in principle, the utilisation of foreign labours in Indonesia is divided into two categories:

- foreign labours who bring capital (as investors) and
- foreign labours who carry skills surround the transfer of knowledge.

Apart from those who possess these two skill sets, foreign labours are not permitted entry or work and employers must prioritise local labour from Indonesia. The utilisation of foreign labours must:

- Increase competitiveness in the national economy. Law No. 13 of 2003 requires foreign labours to be educated and to possess good skills, which motivates Indonesian labours to equally enrich their own skills and expertise.
- Increase foreign exchange. This is also related to the payment of compensation for every foreign labour employed.
- Good relations are established between Indonesia and other countries. In the era of globalisation, opening up the sector of labour for international markets is an achievement in the eyes of the international community as Indonesia is considered not to alienate itself from globalisation and liberalisation.
- Increase transfer of knowledge and transfer of technology. This is evident in the provisions that require the presence of domestic counterparts for foreign labours. The accompanying labour is expected to obtain knowledge that cannot be obtained from other local labours.

Nonetheless, the utilisation of foreign labours also causes losses, including:

- The reduction of local employment opportunities. There are still many migrant labours who are inadequate to be employed in the 4th generation era of the industrial revolution, causing local labours to lack the experience needed to enter the market. The elements that distinguish foreign workers from local workers are work ethic, discipline, skills, accuracy and work results.
- The use of manpower as soft diplomacy. This soft diplomacy can be aimed at the political and economic fields. Taiwan, for example, sent labours to Indonesia in order to gain political recognition from Indonesia. China mirrored these actions in the economic field, sending workers to other ASEAN countries in order to reduce unemployment in China and increase foreign exchange at lower prices.

Legal protection of domestic labour and its legal basis

According to Iman Soepomo, the provision of legal protection to workers involves five fields of labour law, namely:

1. Field of employment and placement
2. Field of employment relations
3. Field of health
4. Field of safety
5. Field of social security

The enactment of Law Number 6 of 2012 ratifies the protection of rights of all migrant labours and their family members, and is the embodiment of governmental efforts in upholding human rights and providing a protection mechanism for Indonesian labours abroad. This legal protection covers:

- The field of employment and placement, the legal protection of which is required by labours prior to engaging in an employment relationship. This period is often referred to as the pre-placement or deployment period.
- The field of employment relations, which refers to the relationship between an employee and his or her employer. This employment relationship is preceded by an employment agreement, which can be carried out within or without a certain time limit.
- The field of health, the protection of which stipulates that labours must be guaranteed sufficient health cover during their employment relationship period.
- The field of safety, which ensures labours' safety while working.
- The field of social security, which relates to legal compensation for labours.

Although forming the basis of labour regulations, Law Number 13 of 2003 does not regulate a specific system regarding legal protection or the rights of foreign labour workers. This is because legal protection arrangements are based on Law Number 3 of 1992 concerning *Jamsostek*, which is generally applicable to all labours working in Indonesia.

The protection of foreign labours regulated in Law Number 13 of 2003 is limited to the provisions in Chapter VIII of Article 42-49, the provisions of which include:

a. Permit

Article 42 paragraph (1) states that every employer who engages with foreign labours must obtain written permission from the minister or from a designated official.

b. Time period

Article 42 paragraph (4) states that foreign labours can be employed in Indonesia only in employment relations for certain positions and at certain times.

c. Foreign Labours Utilisation Plan

Article 43 paragraph (1) states that employers who utilise foreign labours must have a Foreign Labours Utilisation Plan authorised by the appropriate ministers or designated officials.

d. Competency standards

Article 44 paragraph (1) states that employers of foreign labours must obey the provisions concerning the position and competency standards.

e. The obligation to appoint local labours as foreign labours' companions

Article 45 paragraph (1) states that an employer of foreign labour is obliged to appoint local labour to accompany foreign workers for the purpose of technology and expertise transfer.

f. Prohibition of occupying certain positions

Article 46 states that foreign labours are prohibited from occupying certain positions as regulated by ministerial decrees.

g. Compensation obligations

Article 47 paragraph (1) states that an employer is obliged to pay compensation for any foreign labour employed.

h. The obligation to repatriate foreign labours

Article 48 states that an employer of foreign labour must repatriate such workers to their home countries after the employment relationship ends.

Law Number 13 of 2003 concerning manpower and Law Number 3 of 1992 are supplemented by the regulation of the Minister of Manpower and Transmigration Number Per.02 / MEN / XII / 2004 concerning the implementation of social security for foreign labours. It is important to note that according to the Minister of Manpower and Transmigration, foreign labours have the right to social security by their home countries or by their employment company. Despite this regulation, however, foreign labour workers do not get similar guarantees as local workers for their labour rights.

After Indonesia ratified the ILO Convention through Law No. 6 of 2012, arrangements regarding foreign labour began to be regulated more broadly, especially those relating to legal protection policies concerning foreign labour rights. This is due to the ILO Convention functioning as a basic legal product that contains the recognition of human rights, particularly labour. In general, however, the legal protection mentioned in the ILO Convention is aimed at unskilled labour. As mentioned in the previous section, this style of labour was usually regulated by the state through a bilateral agreement. Nevertheless, the government is simultaneously required to take immediate effective action where required to ensure the complete elimination of illegal labour.

Conclusion

After Indonesia ratified the ILO Convention through Law No. 6 of 2012, arrangements regarding foreign labour began to be regulated more broadly, especially those relating to legal protection policies concerning foreign labour rights. The policy package of bilateral cooperation related to foreign direct investment must therefore not conflict with the law and



regulation. It is therefore necessary to add a clause in the labour law which states that “a foreign direct investment that includes an employment policy package must not conflict with this rule.”

Suggestions

Suggestions that can be given in the context of the application of policies on the utilisation of foreign labours in Indonesia are to strengthen the supervision and authority system of the Foreign Labours Supervisory Team in each district and city. Further, a Foreign Labours Supervisory Team could be formed in each sub-district if necessary.



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FIGURES

Figure 1. ASIA'S TRADE SHARE + 3 IN ASEAN TOTAL TRADE ((Source: UN Comtrade Statistic)