

## Mainstream Parties' Construction of Populist Discourse in Australia's Temporary Migration Policy

Journal:	<i>Organization</i>
Manuscript ID	ORG-22-0120.R3
Manuscript Type:	Article
Keywords:	populism, migration policy, political parties, political leaders, skilled migration
Abstract:	<p>Growing alarm has been expressed about populism in mainstream political parties, yet the vast majority of scholarship investigating populism has documented the role of radical right populist parties rather than that of mainstream parties. This article draws on non-essentialist understandings of populism—the idea that populism is a central aspect of democracy and not restricted to the realm of radical political parties and “populist” leaders—to examine how mainstream political leaders discursively articulate the antagonism between “the people” and the institutional order. We also examine how mainstream party leaders, who are likely to be deeply embedded in the institutional order, negotiate tensions between the institutionalized system and populist articulation. We study this in the Australian context, which is appropriate for examining populism in mainstream political parties given that far-right and far-left parties have gained much smaller shares of electoral support here than elsewhere. Our findings indicate that mainstream party leaders discursively construct the idea of “the people” by homogenizing disparate social demands and claiming their right to represent the community as a whole. In doing so, these leaders must negotiate pressures from the institutionalized order in the form of clientelism and accountability. This article contributes insights on the reconciliation of contemporary populism with institutionalized settings and processes.</p>

# Mainstream Parties' Construction of Populist Discourse in Australia's Temporary Migration Policy

## Introduction

In recent decades there has been renewed interest in populism and the political process, especially in the realm of migration policy (e.g., Mudde 2013). In particular, growing alarm has been expressed about populism and mainstream political parties. Mazzoleni (2008: 57), for example, argued that mainstream political discourse is experiencing a “populist contamination” and that even in countries without significant populist parties, mainstream parties have adopted “soft populist” rhetoric. Yet the vast majority of scholarship investigating the relationship between populism and migration policy has documented the role of radical right populist parties rather than mainstream parties. This paper addresses this problem by examining the following research questions: How do mainstream political leaders discursively construct “the people” in migration policy? How are tensions between populist articulations and the institutional order managed?

Populism has traditionally been studied as a phenomenon—a thing that is or is not—rather than as a form of discourse. Hence, scholars have classified political parties into “populist” and “non-populist” parties, and leaders as “populist” and “non-populist” leaders. We draw on non-essentialist understandings of populism—the idea that populism is a form of articulation rather than a specific content and thus can be adopted by a diverse range of political actors (Moffitt, 2016; Worsley, 1969). Seminal scholars of populism have maintained that rather than represent an antithesis to democracy, politics built around the primacy of “the people”—a core definition of populism—is *constitutive* of the democratic process (Laclau, 1977, 1993, 2005a). A framework that emphasizes populism as form rather than content enables us to examine the discursive articulation of “the people” by mainstream political leaders and

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3 mainstream parties in the context of migration policy. Migration policy is an area that has  
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5 historically invited essentialist analyses on the influence of populism on policy making.  
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7 Scholarship has thus associated populism with nostalgia for the community of the past, often  
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9 connecting it with restrictive immigration policies and desires for a more homogenous society  
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11 (Clarke and Newman, 2017). We provide an alternative, non-essentialist, rationale for  
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13 studying populism in the context of migration, in the sense that migration often provides the  
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15 deliberative space for explicit articulations of “the people” and “the homeland” (Laclau,  
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17 2005a).  
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22 We study mainstream parties’ discursive construction of “the people” in the context of  
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24 migration policy in Australia, a country distinguished both for its historical openness to  
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26 migration and societal anxiety towards certain types of migration. As far-right and far-left  
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28 parties have gained much smaller shares of electoral support in Australia than various  
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30 European countries, mainstream party practices are less prone to influence from radical  
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32 political parties (Robinson and Bristow, 2020). Hence, Australia is an appropriate context for  
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34 our study. While previous studies have examined the impact of far-right populist parties on  
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36 migration restrictions, our focus is on discursive articulations of “the people” across the  
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38 political spectrum rather than on predicting the content of migration policy. We present  
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40 findings from an examination of the discursive practices of Australia’s two mainstream  
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42 parties – the center-left Australian Labor Party (hereafter ‘Labor’) and the center-right  
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44 Liberal/National Coalition” (hereafter ‘Coalition’) – in the context of changes in temporary  
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46 skilled migration (TSM) policy. Our study answers recent calls to broaden the study of  
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48 populism beyond “populist” parties and leaders (Gidron and Bonikowski, 2013; Mazzoleni,  
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50 2008). We contribute to a theoretical understanding of populism as a discursive practice  
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52 central to democracy and politics as well as a practical understanding of how mainstream  
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3 political party leaders navigate the tensions between institutionalized systems and populist  
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5 representation.  
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### 8 **Populism as Discursive Politics**

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11 Although most conceptualizations of populism center around the antagonistic relationship  
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13 between the people and the elite in society (Shils, 1966; Taggart, 2000), consensus on its  
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15 definition has been elusive in the half century that scholars have studied it. A widespread  
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17 understanding of populism has been as an ideology or political strategy. Mudde (2004: 562),  
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19 perhaps the best-known theorist of populism as an ideology, defines populism as “an  
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21 ideology that considers society to be ultimately separated into two homogenous and  
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23 antagonistic groups, ‘the pure people’ versus ‘the corrupt elite’”. Apart from the primacy of  
24  
25 the people over their rulers, populism’s political tenets were relatively unelaborated.  
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27 Populism was seen to combine easily with other ideologies, such as communism, socialism,  
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29 or nationalism (Mudde, 2004: 544). Mudde (2004: 544) thus understood populism as a “thin-  
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31 centered ideology” with a core tenet focusing on “the people”.  
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37 Others have conceptualized populism as a political strategy, focused on the methods of  
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39 winning power. Weyland (2001: 12), for example, understood populism to be a method by  
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41 which “personalistic leaders” seek or exercise power by directly mobilizing large numbers of  
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43 mainly unorganized masses without relying on established intermediary organizations.  
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47 Although such understandings of populism as a distinct phenomenon have motivated studies  
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49 of countless populist parties and populist leaders from Europe to Latin America,  
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51 conceptualizing populism as an “entity” with accompanying cognitive assumptions,  
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53 structures, and practices has revealed limitations in understanding the broad appeal of  
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55 populism in recent decades. In what scholars have variously termed the “populist Zeitgeist”  
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57 (Mudde, 2004) and “populist revival” (Roberts, 2007), populism has increasingly been  
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3 adopted by a diverse range of political actors and parties in contemporary politics. Hence,  
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5 essentialist definitions of populism that limit its purview to populist parties and leaders fall  
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7 short in explaining how it continues to be adopted in new settings by actors that may, in some  
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9 cases, not even be characterized as populist (Hawkins, 2010; Moffitt, 2016: 20).

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13 Non-essentialist understandings of populism, on the other hand, where populism is conceived  
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15 as a form of discourse and as a political style, enable us to explain how populism is adopted  
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17 by actors and organizations of diverse forms. Ernesto Laclau, along with his co-author  
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19 Chantal Mouffe, has been a seminal theorizer of populism as a discourse. Laclau (2005a) put  
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21 forth the discursive construction of hegemony as key to the political process in the post-  
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23 communist world. Laclau and Mouffe (1985) ideated that after the Cold War and the failure  
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25 of Marxism, politics in the post-ideology era rested on the “structuration of hegemony”, and  
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27 that populism would be central to this process due to the primacy of “the people” in a post-  
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29 ideological world. Hence, these scholars have been interested in how “the people” have been  
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31 constructed through the political process, and how this has enabled new agents of social  
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33 movements to compete alongside traditional constituencies.  
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39 Laclau (2005a; Laclau and Mouffe, 1999) maintained that the notion of “the people” is an  
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41 empty signifier whose meaning must be articulated through the political process.  
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44 Articulation, for Laclau (2005a: 68), depended on discourse, which he argued was broader  
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46 than speech or text, and essentially relational. Populism, then, is the discursive articulation of  
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48 social demands in terms of an antagonism between the powerful and the people (Laclau,  
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50 2005b: 38). The heterogeneity of grievances in complex post-industrial societies necessitates  
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52 that politics discursively constructs what Laclau (2005b: 39) termed “equivalential  
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54 homogeneity” by integrating particularistic social demands in the name of “the people”. In  
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56 contrast to those who viewed populism as a fringe political phenomenon, Laclau (1977, 1993,  
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58 2005a) surmised it to be key to the democratic process. As Laclau (2005b: 43) famously and  
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3 somewhat controversially stated, “To ask oneself if a movement is or is not populist is,  
4 actually, to start with the wrong question. The question that we should, instead, ask ourselves,  
5 is the following: to what extent is a movement populist?”  
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10 A similarly non-essentialist view of populism has been developed by scholars who have  
11 characterized populism as a political style (Canovan, 1999) and as a performance (Moffitt,  
12 2016). Canovan (1999: 3-4), who theorized populism as a political style, stressed that the  
13 only constant in populism was what she referred to as its “legitimizing framework” that pitted  
14 “the people” against the established power structure. Importantly, the content of populism  
15 would vary depending on the context in which grievances were articulated against the elite  
16 and on the prevailing ideological environment (Canovan, 1999: 4). While Moffitt (2016)  
17 retained the focus on populism as a political style, he further argued that scholars must attend  
18 to its performative aspect. In his view, this was crucial to understanding populism’s enduring  
19 and increasing appeal in the contemporary world where communications are driven by media  
20 and technology (Moffitt, 2016: 51).  
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37 We draw on this non-essentialist school in populism scholarship and define populism as a  
38 form of discourse articulating a logic of antagonism between those with power and “the  
39 people” as the underdog (Laclau, 2005a: 51). Following Laclau (2005a, 2005b), we are  
40 interested in the dynamic and ongoing construction of the divide between the institutional  
41 order and “the people”. We thus answer calls to study populism in different political and  
42 cultural contexts (Gidron and Bonikowski, 2013: 9) by investigating how mainstream party  
43 leaders discursively construct the contention between the powerful and the community as a  
44 whole. While non-essentialist scholars of populism have opened the possibility of studying its  
45 influence outside of populist parties and its use by diverse political actors (Moffitt, 2016: 3),  
46 in practice these scholars have largely maintained the focus on “populist” leaders. A key facet  
47 of the populist leader that extant literature has emphasized is that this type of political actor  
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3 relies on a direct representation of “the people” to build personalized power (Canovan, 1999:  
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5 14). Importantly, populist leaders exhibit low reliance on institutionalized mediators such as  
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7 political parties (Canovan, 1999: 14). To win over the masses directly, populist leaders are  
8  
9 known to construct perceptions of crisis where existing systems are represented as threats to  
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11 “the pure people” (Taggart, 2000). Hence, Moffitt (2016: 45) explicated that “this  
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13 performance of crisis, breakdown or threat relates to a more general distrust of the complex  
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15 machinery of modern governance and the complicated nature of policy solutions, which in  
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17 contemporary settings often require consultations, reviews, reports, lengthy iterative design  
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19 and implementation”.

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24 Taking the non-essentialist perspective to populism opens the practices and behaviors of all  
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26 political leaders and parties to empirical examination. Submitting to the tenet that populism  
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28 as a form of articulation is *constitutive* of the democratic process to different extents (Laclau,  
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30 2005a, 2005b), we study mainstream political parties and their leaders’ practices in the  
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32 context of migration policy, an area that has frequently supplied inspiration for essentialist  
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34 understandings of populism.  
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### 39 **Populism and Migration Policy**

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42 Essentialist perspectives of populism have conceptualized it as imbued with nostalgia for a  
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44 relatively homogenous past and desire to defend frontiers, whether physical or political  
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46 (Clarke and Newman, 2017; Foroughi et al., 2019: 144). Hence, much research in this vein  
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48 has focused on studying the impact of populism and populist parties on migration policy,  
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50 frequently in the context of Europe. For example, Carvalho’s (2014) study of radical right  
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52 parties and immigration policies in Britain, France and Italy found that these parties have  
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54 achieved influence due to mainstream parties co-opting their policies to neutralize the  
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56 electoral threat of the radical right. Other studies have demonstrated that in some European  
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3 democracies with radical right populist parties, center-left parties have shown a clear turn  
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5 against migration (Alonso and da Fonseca, 2012). But overall, this literature has revealed  
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7 mixed evidence regarding the success of populist radical right parties in influencing  
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9 government migration policy. Bale (2003) argued that the rise of European radical right  
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11 populist parties has been driven by center-right parties adopting populist policies, including  
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13 on migration, which has helped to legitimize radical right parties' agendas. In his study of 17  
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15 West European countries, Lutz (2019) found that anti-migrant mobilization by radical right  
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17 policies parties has had a greater impact on the integration policies of governments reliant on  
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19 these parties to form governing coalitions than on their migration policies. Other writers have  
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21 examined the role of various factors mediating radical right populist parties' influence on  
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23 migration policy, such as radical parties' abilities to mobilize public opinion (Howard, 2010),  
24  
25 the issue salience of migration (Givens and Luedtke, 2005), and electoral systems that can  
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27 affect the representation of smaller and less established parties (Breunig and Luedtke, 2008:  
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29 142).

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36 Scholars have increasingly argued that the attention given to radical right populist parties is  
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38 likely misplaced in understanding the impact of populism on migration policy. Mudde (2013:  
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40 1) argued that radical right parties in Europe are "neither a necessary nor a sufficient  
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42 condition for the introduction of stricter immigration policies" but have affected a "populist  
43  
44 'contamination' of mainstream political discourse" (Mazzoleni, 2008: 57). This is because  
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46 mainstream governing parties across Europe have exhibited populist rhetoric on migration  
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48 policy including in countries without significant populist parties (Mudde, 2013).

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53 We submit that essentialist views on populism and their focus on the direct impact of populist  
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55 parties on migration policy overlook the wider adoption of populist forms of articulation by  
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57 other political parties and leaders as well as the broader influence that discursive  
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59 constructions of "the people" can have on politics and society. Hence, this study aims to  
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3 contribute to theoretical advancement in understanding how mainstream political party  
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5 leaders engage in populist discourse in the context of migration policy.  
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### 8 **Research Context: Temporary Skilled Migration in Australia**

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11 Studies have suggested that different types of migration can spur distinct reactions in the  
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13 political sphere (Joppke, 1998; Lutz, 2019). This is relevant to the Australian case, where  
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15 migration is consistently one of the most salient issues among voters (Cameron and  
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17 McAllister, 2019), with political leaders historically exploiting public opinion towards  
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19 different forms of migration (Wright, 2014). Public support historically has been stronger for  
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21 skilled migration than for family reunion and humanitarian migration (Wright, 2016). This  
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23 has informed migration policies, which have prioritized skilled migration and restricted entry  
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25 to family and humanitarian migrants on national interest grounds (Boucher and Davidson,  
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27 2019). The differential economic impacts of these migration types largely explain these  
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29 preferences. Compared to family migrants, skilled migrants had much better employment  
30  
31 outcomes and were found to make a net positive contribution to the Australian economy. This  
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33 led the center-right Howard government, in office 1996-2007, to shift the focus of  
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35 immigration policy from family to skilled visas (Hawthorne, 2005).  
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42 The Howard government also initiated a restrictive shift in humanitarian migration. While  
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44 humanitarian migration represents a very small share of Australia's overall annual migration  
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46 intake—typically less than 1% of non-tourist visas (Department of Home Affairs, 2023)—  
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48 there have been regular “moral panics” as measured by public opinion about seaborne asylum  
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50 seekers. These concerns related to: process as reflected in the trope that seaborne asylum  
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52 seekers have “jumped the queue” ahead of other migrant applicants; prominent images of  
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54 boats carrying asylum seekers that captured significant if disproportionate media and public  
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56 attention; and racism, since seaborne asylum seekers in Australia have come mainly from the  
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3 Middle East and Asia. Beginning with the Howard government, Australian governments have  
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5 responded by adopting strident discourses and policies to highlight increasing controls on  
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7 seaborne asylum seekers (Martin, 2015).  
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10 Skilled migration historically has been uncontroversial in Australia and in other countries  
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12 (Hainmueller et al., 2015), making it an unlikely area for the articulation of populist  
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14 discourse. In Australia, skilled migrants have above-average incomes and relatively low  
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16 unemployment rates; skilled migration intake levels are calibrated with labor market needs to  
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18 ensure that migrants do not displace non-migrants (Productivity Commission, 2016); and  
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20 virtually all skilled migrants were granted permanent residency, which gave them the same  
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22 employment and social rights as Australian citizens (Wright and Clibborn, 2020).  
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27 This changed with the expansion of temporary skilled migration (hereafter “TSM”) following  
28  
29 the creation of the “457 visa” in 1996. The 457 visa operated based on sponsorship from a  
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31 single employer, which limited the ability of skilled migrants to change employers. This visa  
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33 was originally designed exclusively for high-skilled migrants, but subsequent reforms  
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35 transformed the program into one that allowed sponsorship of intermediate skilled workers.  
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37 In the mid-2000s, media reports emerged of workers on 457 visas being underpaid and  
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39 mistreated by their employer sponsor. This led to increased criticism of the 457 visa  
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41 especially by trade unions (Campbell and Tham, 2013), and prompted policy responses from  
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43 political parties.  
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48 In recent years, the issue of skilled migration has created tensions within and between the  
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50 major parties. Labor has been reliant on the support of socially liberal middle class voters and  
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52 migrant community groups, which favorably disposes the party towards expansive migration  
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54 policies, and working-class voters, which traditionally support more restrictive migration  
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56 policies. A similar tension has also been evident within the Coalition’s support base, with  
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3 business groups supportive of expansive skilled migration policies and socially conservative  
4 voters more skeptical (Jupp, 2007).  
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8 In recent years populist minority parties have emerged with anti-migration platforms forming  
9 a centerpiece of their electoral strategies. Of note is the radical right Pauline Hanson's One  
10 Nation Party (ONP). ONP's electoral support is small overall having never exceeded 9% of  
11 the primary vote at federal elections and typically much smaller than this. Its support has  
12 been concentrated among working class voters who have traditionally voted for Labor and  
13 rural and socially conservative voters who have traditionally voted for the Coalition. Support  
14 for the ONP's migration policies among these critical segments of the major parties'  
15 traditional voter blocs have prompted these parties to redefine their own policy positions, as  
16 seen in the case of the Howard Coalition government reducing family and humanitarian visa  
17 intakes (Wright, 2014).  
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32 The scrutiny of a hitherto relatively uncontroversial policy scheme and the manifestation of  
33 tensions among groups constituting mainstream party support bases make TSM a suitable  
34 context in which to examine how mainstream party leaders integrate disparate demands in the  
35 name of "the people" and manage the tension between the institutional order and articulations  
36 on behalf of the community.  
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44 We examine two instances of policy change following intense controversy over TSM: the  
45 first in 2013 presided over by the Gillard Labor government and the second in 2017 under the  
46 Turnbull Coalition government. Labor Prime Minister Julia Gillard (in office 2010-2013) had  
47 close links with the union movement, which she relied upon for internal support within  
48 Labor, but also had strong support from the party's socially liberal wing. She was generally  
49 seen as a progressive leader. However, Gillard faced three different internal leadership  
50 challenges and had to deal with a combative leader of the opposition (Curtin, 2015). Coalition  
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3 Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull (in office 2015-2018) was seen as a cosmopolitan, socially  
4 progressive, and pro-business figure within the Coalition. This made him a natural supporter  
5 of an expansive skilled migration policy, but he also faced leadership turmoil during his time  
6 as prime minister (Savva, 2020).  
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## 13 **Method**

### 14 *Data collection*

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16 Our primary data was archival in nature, originating from different sources that allowed for  
17 triangulation (see Appendix for cited archival references). We focused on the period between  
18 the November 2007 and May 2019 Australian federal elections for two reasons. It spanned  
19 four electoral cycles, with Labor and the Coalition each controlling government for two  
20 cycles: Labor from November 2007 to September 2013 and the Coalition from September  
21 2013 to May 2019. Additionally, this period coincided with two major instances of policy  
22 change in 2013 and 2017, with Labor and Coalition governments each overseeing one reform  
23 juncture.  
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38 First, we collected statements made by ruling party leaders, operationalized in this study as  
39 heads of ruling parties and immigration ministers. Hence, we searched government databases  
40 for speeches by prime ministers and immigration ministers referring to migration and skilled  
41 migration. In addition, we collected media releases relating to TSM issued by government  
42 ministers responsible for migration policy from 2007 to 2019. In total, we collected 15 prime  
43 ministerial speeches (10 from Labor, 5 from the Coalition), 61 immigration minister speeches  
44 (40 from Labor, 21 from the Coalition), and 62 ministerial press releases (32 from Labor, 30  
45 from the Coalition) during our period of observation.  
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57 Second, we assessed statements made by both parties regarding migration and skilled  
58 migration in published party platforms in preparation for general elections held during the  
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3 period of our observation (2007, 2010, 2013, 2016, and 2019). This amounted to a total of 82  
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5 relevant statements (67 by Labor, 15 by the Coalition).  
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9 Third, we collected relevant media reports from major national and metropolitan daily news  
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11 publications between January 2012 and December 2013, and between January 2016 and  
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13 December 2018. These two periods were selected because they allowed key developments  
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15 preceding and following the two TSM policy changes to be captured. We selected daily news  
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17 publications with the largest readerships in Australia representing varying ideological  
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19 viewpoints: *The Australian* and the *Daily Telegraph* both owned by the Rupert Murdoch  
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21 controlled News Corp Australia and generally regarded as conservative, and the *Australian*  
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23 *Financial Review* and the *Sydney Morning Herald*, both owned by Nine Entertainment  
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25 (formerly Fairfax Media) and generally considered politically neutral (Boulus and Dowding,  
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27 2014). We did not include *The Guardian*, the only mainstream left-wing daily news  
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29 publication, since its Australian arm was founded in 2013 in the middle of our period of  
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31 analysis. To ensure that we captured all articles and opinion pieces relevant to TSM policy  
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33 developments, “457 temporary migra\*” (all words) was used as the search term. In total, we  
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35 analyzed over 629 pages of media content.  
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42 Lastly, we collected reports from two independent reviews of TSM that were conducted  
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44 during the study period, in 2008 and in 2014 respectively (Azarias et al., 2014; Deegan,  
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46 2008). Both reviews were commissioned by the Department of Immigration, yet they were  
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48 conducted independently and led by recognized experts.  
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### 51 *Data analysis*

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55 Our overall analytical strategy sought to understand how major political party leaders  
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57 discursively constructed “the people” in the context of TSM and how ongoing tensions  
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59 between the institutional order and the construction of populist discourse were managed. Our  
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3 analysis proceeded in two steps. First, we drew upon the four sources of data outlined above  
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5 to develop a chronological history of events before, during, and after the two policy junctures  
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7 in June 2013 and April 2017. This allowed us to construct a narrative storyline of each period  
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9 in question (Langley, 1999; Langley and Tsoukas, 2016). Formulating a narrative storyline  
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11 allowed us to clarify any influence that preceding events and discursive constructions may  
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13 have had on events that followed and to identify major actors and their roles for each period.  
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15 A timeline of major events and developments is presented in Figure 1.  
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22 INSERT FIGURE 1 ABOUT HERE  
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26 Second, we performed content analysis across our data sources to thematically analyze the  
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28 forms of articulation and ways of managing tension. We operationalized populism as  
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30 language (and other signifiers) that politically constructs “the people” in relation to migration  
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32 policy, positioning the people in an antagonistic relationship with powerful entities (Canovan,  
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34 1999; Laclau, 2005a). Thematic analysis was conducted first within the two policy junctures  
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36 separately, and second, across the policy juncture periods. As a part of the latter process, we  
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38 compared discursive constructions by Labor and the Coalition to identify similarities and  
39  
40 differences in the articulations of parties on different sides of the ideological spectrum. First-  
41  
42 order codes were designated by reading relevant passages of data repeatedly and inductively  
43  
44 coding for discursive constructions of “the people” and “the homeland” as well as tensions  
45  
46 between institutionalized practices and the ideational primacy of the community as a whole.  
47  
48 Each author coded the data separately, and subsequently met to debate any inconsistencies  
49  
50 until agreement was achieved. We iterated between patterns in the data and the literature on  
51  
52 populism to group first-order codes into second-order themes (Van Maanen, 1983).  
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54  
55 Subsequently, we discussed the theoretical implications of second-order themes and  
56  
57 identified the aggregate dimensions of these themes into building blocks for theorizing major  
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3 parties' articulations of "the people" in migration policy. Representative quotes for first-order  
4  
5 codes and the data structure are presented in Table 1.  
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10 INSERT TABLE 1 ABOUT HERE

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## 13 14 15 16 17 **FINDINGS**

### 18 19 20 **Two Policy Junctures in TSM**

#### 21 22 *Labor Government's Restrictions on TSM*

23  
24  
25 The TSM scheme grew to its largest intake under the Labor government (2007-2013) and  
26 played a role in propelling Australia's mining boom which started in 2005. Nevertheless, in  
27 anticipation of a federal election, the Labor government in June 2013 reversed its previously  
28 supportive position towards TSM, which the immigration minister in the previous year had  
29 declared was "more efficient and more responsive to changes in the labor market than at any  
30 time in its history" (Bowen, 2012). Key to Labor's policy turnaround was the dissatisfaction  
31 of unions in industries related to mining, who asserted that Australian workers were being  
32 sidelined by employers who preferred "compliant" migrant workers. High youth  
33 unemployment rates in mining regions, where migrants were among workers who "flew in,  
34 flew out" of the area, underscored these claims. In particular, project specific migration  
35 agreements that guaranteed labor supply to support large-scale new mining developments in  
36 relatively disadvantaged areas came under fire.  
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54 The central features of Labor government's policy changes were re-introducing labor market  
55 testing requirements for employers to advertise locally before hiring TSM workers, increased  
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3 powers to the government's labor inspectorate to strengthen oversight of employer  
4 compliance, and various measures to improve the protection of TSM workers.  
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### 8 ***Coalition Government's Restrictions on TSM***

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11 Despite endorsing Labor's restrictions on TSM prior to the 2013 federal election, the  
12  
13 Coalition, the victorious party in this election, sought to continue its traditional stance of  
14  
15 favoring skilled migration over family migration and asylum seekers upon coming to power.  
16  
17 In 2017, however, the government reversed its decades-long support of TSM, targeting the  
18  
19 scheme as part of a suite of measures designed to reduce the overall migration intake.  
20  
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23  
24 Central to the 2017 restrictions, which came into effect in 2018, was to sever the pathway  
25  
26 from TSM to permanent residency for some visa holders, shortening the list of eligible  
27  
28 occupations, and increasing English and skills requirements. The occupations eligible for  
29  
30 TSM were separated into two visa categories of two- and four-year maximum durations  
31  
32 respectively, with only the latter category providing eligibility for permanent residency. In  
33  
34 announcing this policy change, which was met with astonishment by businesses, the  
35  
36 Coalition used similar language as did the Labor government in 2013 and claimed that the  
37  
38 increased selectivity of TSM applicants in these measures would improve migrant integration  
39  
40 into Australian society.  
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46 In the following sections, we present the results of our analysis of the discursive process in  
47  
48 the two parties surrounding these TSM policy junctures. While we examined our data for any  
49  
50 similarities or differences between the two major parties, we found mainly commonalities  
51  
52 rather than differences. Hence, we combine our findings for both parties focusing on common  
53  
54 theoretical dimensions.  
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### 57 **Populist Articulations in the Context of TSM Policy**

#### 58 ***The construction of crisis***

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3 Changes in TSM policy were couched in a discursive frame that portrayed the status quo as a  
4 failure and a crisis. A frequently invoked phrase was that the scheme represented “a system  
5 of rorts”, i.e., misuse, typically due to decisions made by a previous government led by the  
6 opposing party. Gillard, for example, was quoted as stating, “We inherited a system here  
7 from the former government that was riddled full of rorts ... that had people brought into  
8 Australia not to take occupations because there were genuine skills shortages, but brought  
9 into Australia because the employer thought it would be easier to have a foreign worker”  
10 (Bolt, 2013). Political leaders exaggerated the number of violations and portrayed the scheme  
11 as immoral beyond repair. TSM was depicted as responsible for “human trafficking” and  
12 “slavery” (Hannan, 2013), and local workers as “being discriminated against and missing  
13 out” (Kelly, 2013). Misleading statistics were often drawn on to propel the message. Hence,  
14 Gillard belabored the fact that the number of TSM visas increased at a higher rate than total  
15 employment growth when this was to be expected given that TSM visas by design targeted  
16 occupations in high demand (Gillard, 2013).

17  
18  
19 The contribution of TSM to total migration intake is relatively small. Since the origins of  
20 TSM in 1996 it has accounted for less than 10% of the annual intakes of all non-tourist visas  
21 (Department of Home Affairs, 2023). Constructing the TSM as integral to Australia’s failure  
22 to keep its population growth in check justified a clean break from past policy. Leaders thus  
23 advocated wholesale change rather than amendments for better enforcement of standards.  
24 This was most starkly illustrated in 2017 by the Coalition government in announcing the  
25 abolition of the 457 visa. The immigration minister at the time stated, “We are cleaning it up  
26 because Labor made a mess of this migration program when they were in government”  
27 (Kelly, 2017). He explained the need for radical policy change by referring to the “systemic,  
28 endemic and rife exploitation of foreign workers” (Baker et al., 2016).

### ***The discursive construction of “the people”***

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3 In 2013, Labor’s construction of “the people” included voters who felt alienated from the  
4 prosperity created during Australia’s mining boom in the preceding decade. The Labor  
5 government had approved the signing of special agreements with resource companies  
6 overseeing large-scale mining projects, facilitating the timely recruitment of large numbers of  
7 migrant workers for all contractors. Criticism of confidential deals made with wealthy mining  
8 magnets heightened. Politicians were asked, for example, “why Labor would engage in what  
9 is actually a sellout of Australian jobs in the interest of a few greedy billionaires” (Sloan,  
10 2012). In response, leaders portrayed themselves as involved in a “fight” to defend the  
11 people’s rightful share in the windfall, which reportedly was felt by ordinary Australians as  
12 “someone else’s boom” (Kenny, 2013). Hence, Gillard’s immigration minister declared that  
13 “The Gillard government will not sit idly by while Australian citizens and permanent skilled  
14 migrants lose out to unscrupulous employers” (Benson, 2013), and that “Labor will not be  
15 influenced and lectured to by billionaires about allowing rorts to continue” (Kelly, 2013).  
16  
17 As Laclau (2005a) pointed out, who “the people” were in the TSM policy change served as  
18 an empty signifier whose boundaries were discursively constructed. Leaders of both parties  
19 referred to Australian workers as casualties in migration but constructed this group in various  
20 ways. While Gillard acknowledged the ethnic heterogeneity of Australian workers—“I offer  
21 absolutely no apology for putting the opportunities of Australian working people first, front  
22 and center, *wherever they were born*” (Gillard, 2013; emphasis ours)—at other times this  
23 group was described as being distinctive yet unvaried. Turnbull hence justified prioritizing  
24 Australian workers because they had Australian values (Benson and Martin, 2017), implying  
25 that such values could not be shared by migrant workers.  
26  
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28  
29 The “homeland” (Laclau, 2005a) was viewed as in need of protection from those who sought  
30 to free ride, such as employers who undermined Australian wages and benefits by bringing in  
31 foreign workers (in Labor’s formulation) and migrants who drew on the country’s welfare or  
32

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2  
3 did not integrate into Australian society (in the Coalition’s formulation). Turnbull thus  
4  
5 justified restricting overall migration by depicting membership in the homeland as a  
6  
7 “privilege” only bestowed to those with the right values: “Membership of the Australian  
8  
9 family is a privilege and should be afforded to those who support our values, respect our laws  
10  
11 and want to work hard by integrating and contributing to an even better Australia” (Coorey,  
12  
13 2017).  
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17  
18 Political leaders frequently reminded audiences that migration to Australia was contingent on  
19  
20 a “social contract” with the Australian people. Thus, leaders emphasized the importance of  
21  
22 maintaining public “confidence” in migration policy, and that once confidence was eroded,  
23  
24 the policy could not be retained. As a Labor immigration minister stated, “If the public  
25  
26 doesn’t have confidence in the integrity of the temporary skills migration program, it will be  
27  
28 seriously undermined and, quite frankly, there would be huge public pressure to end it”  
29  
30 (Evans, 2008). Letting in foreign workers who would either undercut Australian wages or  
31  
32 who failed to contribute economically was associated with betraying the people’s trust. As a  
33  
34 Coalition immigration minister put it, “The Australian people must have confidence that our  
35  
36 immigration system is, firstly, well designed to meet our economic objectives – immigration  
37  
38 is first and foremost an instrument of economic policy not welfare policy” (Morrison, 2014).  
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### 43 ***Constructing “the enemy”***

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46 In antagonism with “the people”, political leaders articulated the prevalence of powerful  
47  
48 interest groups. For Gillard, this was unscrupulous and greedy employers who put their  
49  
50 interests before the Australian workers. These employers were depicted as preferring foreign  
51  
52 workers for their compliance, which resulted in undermined wages and conditions for the  
53  
54 Australian worker. The language invoked had the effect of confounding TSM with  
55  
56 humanitarian migration. The latter activated voter anxieties around “losing control” over  
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1  
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3 borders that politicians have historically drawn on in Australia. For example, it was widely  
4  
5 believed, even by some within Labor, that the party's decision to restrict TSM in 2013 was  
6  
7 influenced by public resentment towards asylum seekers whom Labor was seen to be more  
8  
9 lenient towards than the Coalition (Coorey and Massola, 2013). This was reinforced by  
10  
11 Gillard's use of language to depict TSM workers as low-skilled workers taking jobs from  
12  
13 Australians and her invocation of the need to protect Australia's "clean beaches and precious  
14  
15 open spaces" from overcrowding (Kelly, 2012).  
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20 Turnbull, by contrast, depicted the enemy as powerful unions with influence over the Labor  
21  
22 Party. The Coalition, then, constructed a rhetoric that attributed the curtailing of TSM to  
23  
24 lobbying by large unions while accusing Labor of allowing into the country "the wrong kind"  
25  
26 of migration in the form of asylum seekers. Hence, as opposition leader, Coalition leader  
27  
28 Tony Abbott accused Gillard of betraying the community with policy that "tolerates people  
29  
30 coming illegally to this country and then going on welfare and is now trying to demonize  
31  
32 people coming legally to this country, paying taxes and making a contribution from day one"  
33  
34 (Kelly, 2013).  
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### 39 ***Claiming the right to represent "the people"***

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42 Laclau (2005b: 39) observed that populism entailed establishing what he termed an  
43  
44 "equivalential chain" by integrating heterogeneous and particularistic demands into a broader  
45  
46 anti-institutional narrative representing the community as a whole. As distinctions between  
47  
48 traditional party constituencies were blurred in this process, we find that mainstream political  
49  
50 leaders competed in their claims to represent the "Australian people". Frequently this led to  
51  
52 asserting one's own party as more genuine than the rival party in representing "the people's"  
53  
54 interests. As Turnbull declared in 2017, "Unlike Labor, the Turnbull government will always  
55  
56 put Australian workers first. [Labor leader] Bill Shorten sold out Australian workers by  
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3 allowing a record number of foreign workers into the country, many not filling critical skill  
4 shortages” (Turnbull, 2017). Mainstream party leaders also sought to instill in voters that  
5 their representation of “the people’s” interests was authentic rather than influenced by the  
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ONP, whose leader attempted to take credit for providing the rationale for both major parties’  
policy changes. Hence, Gillard sought to distinguish Labor’s discourse from the ONP  
leader’s:

Ms Gillard said ‘that’s a matter for her’ when asked about Ms Hanson, the former  
One Nation leader, endorsing her rhetoric about putting ‘Aussie workers’ before  
‘foreigners’ and saying the latter should go to the back of the queue. ‘I believe in  
putting Australian jobs first. Others can use whatever label they choose for that,’ she  
said (Coorey and Massola, 2013).

Hence, populist articulations gathered together the widely differing demands of the Coalition,  
Labor, and ONP constituencies in “a precarious unity” (Howarth, 2014: 12).

### **Tensions between the Institutional Order and Populist Articulations**

In Laclau’s formulation, institutional politics and the populist logic are continuously  
interacting rather than occupying distinct and separate spaces (Howarth, 2014: 15). Drawing  
from this tenet, we focus on two ongoing tensions between the institutional order inhabited  
by mainstream parties and populist articulations in TSM.

#### ***The need for clientelism***

Migration policy scholars have pointed out that governments in liberal democracies are  
rhetorically bound to anti-immigrant sentiments expressed by voters yet enact permissive  
immigration policies because of their need to be responsive to clientelistic pressures  
(Freeman, 1995). Major political parties negotiated the tension between clientelism and  
populism by adjusting public policy to accommodate stakeholder demands even whilst

1  
2  
3 pledging that they would prioritize Australian jobs for vulnerable Australians. After the 2017  
4  
5 policy change, a collection of business representatives “blasted the Turnbull government’s  
6  
7 move to scrap the 457 visa system as populist, blunt and a knee-jerk reaction that will hurt  
8  
9 business and the economy” (Durkin, 2017). In response to employer complaints, the  
10  
11 Coalition moved 36 occupations from the two-year category to the four-year visa category  
12  
13 eligible for permanent residency within months of announcing the two visa categories (Kelly,  
14  
15 2017). Similarly, the Labor government exempted the IT sector from labor market testing  
16  
17 requirements after these requirements were made public in 2013 (Foo and Griffith, 2013).  
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21  
22 A key indication that clientelistic interests were upheld was the relatively inconsequential  
23  
24 nature of the policies themselves. As a case in point, neither policy change resulted in drastic  
25  
26 reductions in the use of TSM. One expert commented that “the changes that Labor was  
27  
28 pursuing were little more than tweaks to previous overhauls of the scheme that would have  
29  
30 little impact on the number of visas granted under the scheme” (Colley, 2013). Similarly,  
31  
32 commentators pointed out that many of the occupations culled from the sponsored  
33  
34 occupations list in 2017 had in fact rarely used TSM visas (Aly, 2017; Sloan, 2017).  
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### 39 ***The need for accountability***

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42 Procedural and bureaucratic accountability rising from the institutional order also was often  
43  
44 in tension with articulating “the people’s” will in TSM policy. Yet the construction of a crisis  
45  
46 around the TSM scheme appeared to exonerate party leaders from pressures of  
47  
48 accountability, such as the failure to implement the outcome of consultative processes. The  
49  
50 Turnbull government’s disregard of recommendations from an independent inquiry it  
51  
52 commissioned into the TSM scheme illustrated this:  
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56  
57 When Turnbull said he was responding to the Coalition government’s own 2014  
58  
59 expert inquiry into the 457 visa program, he failed to acknowledge its core  
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3 recommendation. The inquiry led by John Azarias recommended the abolition of the  
4 current approach to labor market testing and its replacement with a new independent  
5 model. (The Sydney Morning Herald, 2017).  
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10 Leaders also undercut established stakeholder consultation procedures set up by their own  
11 party, as seen in Gillard's immigration minister overlooking the advice of his own ministerial  
12 advisory group:  
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17  
18 While Mr. O'Connor said his decision was 'informed' by his advisory council on  
19 skilled migration, *The Australian* understands the group was divided on key findings.  
20  
21 The council is chaired by former ACTU [Australian Council of Trade Unions] deputy  
22 Michael Easson, who strongly praised the 457 program in *The Australian* two weeks  
23 ago even as he acknowledged that more 'loose planks' in the policy might have to be  
24 nailed down. (Crowe and Hepworth, 2013).  
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33 Mainstream parties themselves exerted accountability pressures on their leaders and their  
34 practices. Although both party leaders faced disapproval in their populist articulations, we  
35 find that Labor experienced more resistance and dissent compared to the Coalition.  
36  
37 Dissenting Labor MPs expressed their views to the media, referring to the TSM scheme as  
38 "essential for economic growth" and expressing concerns that the rhetoric used to explain the  
39 policy "doesn't sound like Labor" (Maher, 2013). Reports stated that "there is deep disquiet  
40 in Labor ranks about the move, which is seen as a barely disguised counter to the party's  
41 political problems on border protection" (Tingle and Priest, 2013). Furthermore, Labor's  
42 reputation as the party that historically aspired to tripartite consultations (Jupp, 2007)  
43 arguably suffered when tripartite ministerial advisory council members objected to its policy  
44 change (Crowe and Hepworth, 2013).  
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3 In addition to party structures, the government bureaucracy imposed its own checks and  
4 balances, for example, on the use of facts and figures to articulate reality. Hence, when  
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6 Gillard’s immigration minister exaggerated the “illegitimate uses” of the TSM visa,  
7  
8 “Immigration Department officials distanced themselves from their minister’s claim of up to  
9  
10 10,000 rorts in the 457 visa program, revealing they never provided evidence of that figure to  
11  
12 [immigration minister] Brendan O’Connor and don’t know what advice he relied on for the  
13  
14 claim” (Massola, 2013).  
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### 20 **Societal Implications**

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23 As discursive construction and policy development are both constitutive of politics, we do not  
24  
25 follow the essentialist perspective in inquiring into the causal impact of populist discourse on  
26  
27 TSM policy change. Instead, we identified the broader cultural influences of a populist  
28  
29 articulation of societal demands including the undermining of multiculturalism as a goal for  
30  
31 Australian society and a policy tenet that the government had espoused since the 1970s (Jupp,  
32  
33 2007).  
34  
35

36  
37 Despite emphasizing the temporary nature of workers entering Australia to fill a “skills gap”,  
38  
39 policy changes were driven by intense concerns about their ability to integrate into Australian  
40  
41 society. The government justified raising the minimum standards for English proficiency and  
42  
43 skills requirements based on a stated assumption that doing so would provide “strong  
44  
45 prospects for integration” (Dutton, 2018). This was despite TSM workers holding higher  
46  
47 education and skills levels than average Australian workers. An apparent irony was that  
48  
49 policy changes stressing integration prospects made it increasingly difficult for TSM workers  
50  
51 to become a part of Australian society by restricting the pathway from TSM to permanent  
52  
53 residency. As the Australian Multicultural Foundation’s executive director attested, “If you  
54  
55 deny these people that opportunity to become citizens, then you’re creating a group of  
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3 second-class—where they come to do a job but don't feel part of society" (Crowe, 2013).

4  
5 Labor's own party platform had promoted permanent over temporary migration for decades,  
6  
7 stating, for example that, "Labor is committed to ensuring that no migrant is permanently  
8  
9 temporary. This recognizes that many permanent migrants begin their time in Australia as  
10  
11 temporary migrants" (Labor Party platform, 2016). Nevertheless, Labor endorsed Coalition-  
12  
13 led changes to the TSM scheme that severed the pathway between the TSM and permanent  
14  
15 residency.  
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19  
20 Community representatives also expressed concern that the language used by political leaders  
21  
22 served to stir anti-migrant sentiments that could normalize their exclusion. As the chairman  
23  
24 of the NSW Community Relations Commission stated, the situation was "certainly creating  
25  
26 an opportunity to legitimize anti-immigration debate. [...] Most certainly they are reflecting  
27  
28 on Australia and it has the potential of creating a negative attitude towards migrants in  
29  
30 general" (Hepworth, 2013).  
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## 37 38 **DISCUSSION**

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40 This study aimed to shed light on how mainstream party leaders discursively construct "the  
41  
42 people" in the context of migration policy amidst tensions between populist articulations and  
43  
44 the institutional order. Scholars have increasingly called attention to the spread of populism  
45  
46 into mainstream democratic politics (Moffitt, 2016: 47), and indicated the need to understand  
47  
48 how a "softened" populism is increasingly being practiced by non-populist parties (Mudde,  
49  
50 2013: 11; Mazzoleni, 2008: 56). Yet no study that we know of has hitherto investigated how  
51  
52 populism is practiced by mainstream party leaders who have not been characterized as  
53  
54 "populist" leaders. Our study demonstrates that "the people" was articulated as an empty  
55  
56 signifier assembling disparate social grievances, from that of trade unions seeking to maintain  
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3 work standards, Australian residents concerned with “border security”, and employers  
4 seeking flexibility in hiring. Political leaders constructed urgency around a TSM system that  
5 was portrayed as no longer meeting “the people’s” needs and violating a social contract with  
6 the community. As with populist leaders, mainstream party leaders created urgency by  
7 constructing a ‘crisis’ that provided the perception that the system was broken and therefore  
8 posed a threat (Taggart, 2000; Moffitt, 2016: 45).  
9

10  
11 Our findings demonstrate that populist articulations exist in tension with institutionalized  
12 practices in mainstream parties designed to represent clientelistic interests and promote  
13 accountability. Meeting clientelistic demands was at odds with the homogenizing and  
14 generalizing discourse around “the people”, and the need for accountability challenged  
15 populist articulations of reality by insisting on congruence and consistency of words and  
16 deeds.  
17

18  
19 Our major contribution to the literature on populism is to provide an account of the use of  
20 populism by mainstream party leaders who are not themselves “populist” in the essentialist  
21 sense. As previously explained, taking a non-essentialist perspective of populism as a form of  
22 articulation of social division that gives primacy to the notion of “the people” opens scholarly  
23 inquiries into populism to all political realms, yet we lacked empirical examinations of  
24 populist articulations by mainstream party leaders. While all political leaders must negotiate  
25 the articulation of populism within the given institutional order, mainstream parties more than  
26 “populist” parties constitute the established order (Husted et al., 2022). Thus, mainstream  
27 party leaders must discursively construct “the people” while negotiating historical  
28 expectations of clientelism and accountability to bureaucrats, party members, experts, and  
29 consultative bodies. We thus contribute to a growing body of scholarship that has called for  
30 examining how contemporary populism increasingly must reconcile itself with  
31 institutionalized settings and processes (Canovan, 1999: 14; Weyland, 2001: 14).  
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3 Our findings suggest that mainstream political leaders managed the need for clientelism by  
4 separating their statements from actual practice and making policy adjustments to  
5  
6 accommodate particularistic interests. Leaders were also forced to respond to the need for  
7  
8 accountability by internal dissidents, consultative and expert bodies, the media, and the  
9  
10 government bureaucracy. These findings imply that while populism may be constitutive to  
11  
12 the democratic process (Laclau, 2005a, 2005b), an amount of risk is borne by political leaders  
13  
14 who enact the populist logic due to ongoing conflict with the institutional order. Our research  
15  
16 suggests that electoral pressures and intra-party leadership competitions may provide the  
17  
18 rationale for political leaders to undertake the work required to manage the tensions. While  
19  
20 non-essentialist perspectives of populism have emphasized the historical imperative of  
21  
22 populism as a mode of articulating social demands, they have neglected the political agency  
23  
24 required to undertake populist articulations. Future research could shed further light into the  
25  
26 institutional work required to enact populist articulations and the motivations of the actors  
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28 undertaking this work.  
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Figure 1. Timeline of policy developments and discursive constructions

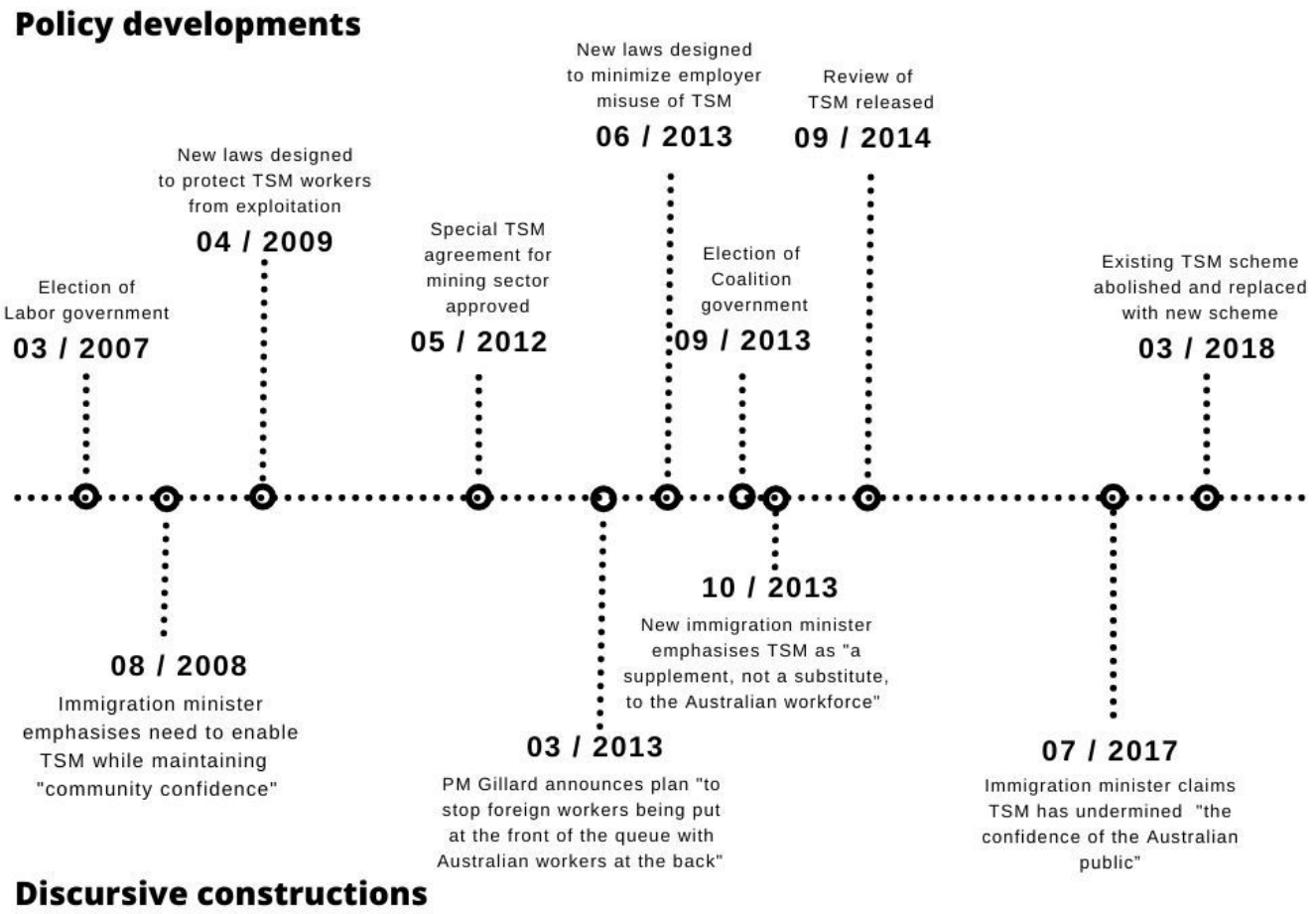




Table 1. Additional representative quotes for first-order codes

<b>Populist Articulations in the Context of TSM Policy</b>		
<b>The construction of crisis</b>	Portraying TSM as a “system of rorts”	Ms Gillard ignited a row over temporary skilled migration this week in Western Sydney by taking aim at the 457 visa program, saying it was “out of control” when inherited from the Howard government and was still being rorted. (Coorey, 2013)
	Depicting TSM as immoral	Are you proud of our Australian values? Are you a proud Australian? He [Prime Minister Malcolm Turnbull] asked a journalist at a press conference yesterday. “You should stand up for it. You should stand up for those values and that’s what we’re doing.” (Tingle, 2017)
	Justifying wholesale change over amendments	We have also announced the abolition and replacement of the 457 visa programme. It was a visa programme that had been distorted beyond recognition and had come to well and truly stray from its original purpose and undermine the confidence of the Australian public that I referred to earlier. The new skill list and forthcoming Temporary Skill Shortage visas are better calibrated to address genuine skills shortages in our economy. (Dutton, 2017)
	Spurious use of facts to construct urgency	Immigration Minister Brendan O’Connor was unable to provide evidence of up to 10,000 “illegitimate uses” of 457 visas by temporary skilled migrants, the day after claiming widespread rorting of the system. [...] A spokeswoman acknowledged the evidence was anecdotal. (Massola, 2013)
<b>The discursive construction of “the people”</b>	People vs powerful interest groups	Just as it is deeply dangerous for conservative State Governments to cut hundreds of millions of dollars from their training systems, for thousands of young people to be locked out of training, while a conservative Federal opposition offers business the solution of more temporary workers from overseas to fill the hole this creates. I will fight to keep Australia from going down that path. (Gillard, 2013)
	“The people” as empty signifier	Mr Turnbull [Coalition Prime Minister] said the change to an “Australian first” policy was needed to restore integrity to the temporary visa program, which would now be “manifestly, rigorously, resolutely conducted in the national interest to put Australians and Australian jobs first”. “That’s our commitment: Australian jobs, Australian values,” he said. (Benson and Martin, 2017)
	Construction of ‘homeland’ as in need of protection	In a speech to a Melbourne think tank, [Coalition Leader Tony Abbott] said nothing demonstrated Labor’s policy failings better than border protection. He said he would, on the first day of his prime ministership if elected, call Nauru to have the Howard government-era detention centre there reopened. (Daily Telegraph, 2012)
	Migration as dependent on social contract with “the people”	The Rudd and Gillard governments’ loss of control of illegal boat arrivals between 2007 and 2013 threatened that social contract with Australians over migration. Not to mention putting thousands of lives at risk, encouraging a criminal people smuggling industry, and poisoning relations with our neighbours. (The Australian Financial Review, 2016)
<b>Construction of “the enemy”</b>		Mr Morrison [Coalition Immigration Minister] said he had detected “considerable disquiet” in ethnic communities about Labor’s 457 visa campaign and about border protection... “What comes up is that people who have come through the orderly migration program, particularly the skilled program are offended by a government that is more focused on attacking people who come the right way and contribute from day one than stopping those who come the wrong way.” (Massola, 2013)
<b>Claiming the right to represent “the people”</b>		“Now, whether it is on border protection and Labor’s shameful record on people-smuggling—recall 50,000 unauthorised arrivals, over 1200 deaths at sea—that was Labor’s record on the borders,” Turnbull said on Tuesday. “They failed to keep our borders secure, and they failed to manage a 457 system—a temporary migration system—in the national interest. We are changing that.” His Immigration Minister, Peter Dutton, linked the changes to 457s and the citizenship test to national security, especially Islamic terrorism. (Tingle, 2017)

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<b>Tensions between the Institutional Order and Populist Articulations</b>		
<b>The need for clientelism</b>	Adjusting policy to incorporate stakeholder demands	The changes unveiled yesterday were made in response to industry feedback, after concerns were raised at the way the new TSS visa program had been divided, with some industry sectors saying they would be unable to attract world-class talent.... Yesterday’s changes mean 36 occupations are being restored to the four-year visa stream. (Kelly, 2017)
	Containing the fallout with stakeholders	The culling of occupations on the consolidated sponsored occupations list, from about 651 to 435, looks quite radical but for the fact most of the deleted occupations have never or rarely been used for 457 visas. (Sloan, 2017)
<b>The need for accountability</b>	Internal dissent and resistance	Internal fears are being raised, including by some Gillard supporters, that the move has subjected Labor to claims of xenophobia and failed to ease anger in western Sydney over the influx of asylum-seekers. [...] But the dissenting MPs [members of parliament] believe the 457 program is essential for economic growth -- in all areas -- and needs to be flexible to meet ebbs and flows in the demand for skilled workers. [...] An MP who did not want to be named described the 457 issue as “sinister” and a “throwback to the White Australia policy”. (Maher, 2013)
	Leaders are held accountable by bureaucrats and experts	Despite Mr O'Connor's claim that about 10 per cent of 457 visas were being abused, the chairman of the Ministerial Advisory Council on Skilled Migration, Michael Easson, said he did not believe there was “any credible evidence” that the management of the program was out of control or that 10 per cent of applicants were associated with rorts. (Hepworth, 2013)
	Exoneration from undermining consultative processes	The federal government's decision to not implement a key recommendation from an expert review of the scheme has raised fears that the temporary work visa system will become a low-skilled visa for workers paid low wages. Last week, the government said it had implemented the findings of a 2014 report on the 457 visa scheme led by John Azarias. However, it did not adopt a key recommendation to abolish employer labour market testing. It has also refused to adopt the key recommendation in another review Mr Azarias conducted this year into the Temporary Income Skilled Migration Threshold (TSMIT) which sets a minimum wage for 457 visa holders. (Patty, 2017)
<b>Societal Implications</b>		
<b>Undermining of multiculturalism in Australia</b>	Advocating for assimilation contra multiculturalism	Mr Morrison [Coalition shadow immigration minister] said the government's multicultural strategy was failing because it was too obsessed with “symbolism” and government-funded English language courses were not teaching immigrants properly. (Karvelas, 2012) Raising the points test mark will help to ensure we get migrants with valued skills and strong prospects for integration. (Dutton, 2018)
	Attack on TSM triggers anti-migrant sentiments	A prominent champion for multiculturalism has warned that federal Labor's rhetoric on “rorts” in the 457 visa system -- claims revealed as based on an “estimate” -- are fostering wider sentiment against migrants After Immigration Minister Brendan O'Connor admitted his claim the 457 visa system was plagued by 10,000 “rorts” was his own estimate, and not based on specific advice from his department. (Hepworth, 2013)