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An arithmetic analysis of Bangladeshi sending migrants stock and remittance per capita in Malaysia

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Abstract

Unskilled and short-term labour migration from Bangladesh to Malaysia has long historical phenomenon which has been contributing both countries micro and macro economy in terms of remittances (Bangladesh) and shortage of 3D labour (Malaysia). This paper objective is to describe migration process, pattern and policies as a sending country (Bangladesh) and receiving country (Malaysia) between developing-developing nations. This study uses cross data from official sources of Bangladesh, Malaysia and also World Bank migration and remittances database. The arithmetic analysis indicates that there is no significance relationship between migration stock and remittance per capita (migrant in Malaysia). The descriptive statistics show that the cumulative and documented migration stock has been decreasing while volume and per capita remittance has been increasing during the period. The most exciting results provide that the per capita remittance increase during 10 years 5,154.36% based on cumulative sending migrant stock from Bangladesh. Furthermore, the unbelievable results provide that the per capita remittance increase since 2005 to 2014 over 10 years 11,636.10% based on documented migrant stock increased only 21.78% although it is fact. Thus the study suggest depth investigation between the countries actual migrant stock (documented and undocumented) and remittance (formal or informal) and to develop better framework to recruit international labour in Malaysia (high deficiency of general labour) especially for Bangladesh (high labour surplus).

Key words: migration, unskilled, remittances, 3D jobs, per capita, international labour market

Introduction

International migration means ‘Movement of persons who leave their country of origin, or country of habitual residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country’, (IOM 2004). The first age of mass migration was during the 19th and early 20th centuries, when 55 to 60 million Europeans migrated to Americas and the second began during after World War II, when the United States and European countries recruited guest workers, some of whom settled, Canada and the US in the mid-1960s switched from national origins systems that gave preference to the entry of immigrants from Western Europe to selection system, (Martin & Martin 2006).

The ILO Convention on Migration for Employment 1949, (No. 97) in its Article 11, states distinctions between migrants in general and migrant workers’ as ‘a person who migrates from one country to another with a view to being employed otherwise than on his own account and includes any person regularly admitted as a migrant for employment’. Further, a more comprehensive definition, the 1990 UN Convention on the Protection of all Migrant Workers and their Families, ‘a person who is to be engaged, is engaged or has been engaged in remunerated activity in a State of which he or she is not a national’. While international migration refers to the ‘Movement of persons who leave their country of origin, or country of habitual residence, to establish themselves either permanently or temporarily in another country (IOM 2004), the migrant worker is one “who migrates from one country to another with a view to being employed otherwise than on his own account and includes any person regularly admitted as a migrant for employment (ILO 1949).

The first age of mass migration was during the 19th and early 20th centuries, when 55 to 60 million Europeans migrated to Americas and the second began during after World War II, when the United States and European countries recruited guest workers, some of whom settled, Canada and the US in the mid-1960s switched from national origins systems that gave preference to the entry of immigrants from Western Europe to selection system (Martin & Martin 2006).

International migration now recognise as an important mechanism for globalisation. According to IOM (2013), the total number of international migrants has increased over the last 10 years from an estimated 150 million in 2000 to 214 million persons today. In other words, one of out of every 33 persons in the world today is a migrant (whereas in 2000 one

out of every 35 persons was a migrant). The percentage of migrants has remained relatively stable as a share of the total population, increasing by only 0.2 per cent (from 2.9 to 3.1 per cent), over the last decade (IOM 2013). There is total estimated number of international migrants in Asia 32.5 million (IOM 2013). According to Rosenzweig and Rodrik (2010), the contribution of international migration to arbitrating wage differences, reducing macroeconomic volatility, diffusing knowledge across borders, and facilitating trade suggests that there may be substantial welfare gains for letting labour flow between countries.

Causes of international migration

Migration is driven by labour demand arising from the uneven pace of economic development among countries as seen by the inflow of migrant labour into Malaysia, Hong Kong or Singapore, for instance (Piore 1979; Skeldon 1992). The major pull factors include the wide range of wages differentials, economic shifts from manufacturing to the service sector and migrant community networks (Krishnan & Odynak 1987; Appleyard 1989; Skeldon 1992; Salt 1992; Castles 1998)

As migration experience in originating communities accumulate, migration flows become increasingly self-sustaining over time. Community structures and characteristics, individual and household variables become socio-demographic push variables. Many empirical studies such as those by Massey et al. (1994), Massey & Espinoza (1997), Massey and Zenteno (1999), Espinoza & Massey (1999), Kabaiupuni (2000), Winters et al. (2001), Davis et al. (2002), Lindstrom & Lauster (1999), Fussell & Massey (2004), and Curran et al. (2005, 2007) have also examined the cumulative causation of a wide range of factors involved in international migration flows.

The economic determinants of international labour migration can be broadly categorized into cost and benefit factors (Greenwood & MacDowell 1982). Costs are further divided into direct and indirect costs; direct migration costs arise due to distance (Marr 1977; Greenwood and McDowell 1991; Lucas 1976; Berger & Webb 1987) and information (Jasso & Rosenzweig 1986a; Shaw et al. 1973). Indirect migration costs are linked to occupational skills such as language similarity (Lucas 1976; Berger & Webb 1987), attending school in the destination country (Greenwood & McDowell 1991; MacPhee & Hassan 1990; Vasegh-Daneshvary et al. 1987), originating country development level (Fleisher 1963; Greenwood & McDowell 1991; Borjas 1987), influence of past migration (Greenwood 1969; Dunlevy

1991; Wilkinson 1970; Massey 1988; Stark & Taylor 1989), political conditions in the originating country (Jasso & Rosenzweig 1990; Huang 1987) and the importance of alternative destinations (Marr 1977; DeVoretz & Maki 1983).

Consequences of migration

Along with national development (Farid et al. 2009), migrant remittances improve the living standards of household members with longer term migration enabling higher saving ratios than for other migrants. The ability to remit money to the country of origin depends on the intensity and duration of the migrant's experience and exposure at the destination. Household members assume the role played by the migrant in extending community social networks (Nguyen et al. 2006). Unskilled migrants are invariably blamed for social ills, exploiting public services and lowering wages in the destination country (Huntington 2004). Unskilled labour migration from underdeveloped countries facilitates human trafficking (Firoze 1997; Shamim 1997; Blanchet 2002) increasing the number of refugee at the destination (Khondker 1995).

International migration has accelerated both as a cause and consequence of globalisation; about 215 million people or 3 per cent of the world's population live outside their birth countries (Rodrik & Rosenzweig 2010). International migration “provides wage differential advantages, reduces macroeconomic volatility, diffuses knowledge across borders, and facilitates trade which may endure substantial welfare gains for letting labour flow between countries” (Rodrik & Rosenzweig 2010).

Over the past decades, temporary unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled labour migration schemes, regulated and otherwise, have become widespread in Asia and the Middle East as they enable more flexible labour markets than permanent migration and favour low-skill services, agricultural, construction and labour intensive manufacturing sectors (Abella 2004). However, lack of protection rights and regulatory frameworks discriminate against such workers (Rudnick 2009) but reduce overall labour importing costs (Ruhs & Martin, 2006).

Emigration Pattern in Bangladesh

Following table 2 describe the migration pattern from Bangladesh:

Table 2: Different emigration pattern in Bangladesh

Permanent settlement	This form of emigration occurs very rarely from Bangladesh. It is very difficult to take investment opportunity to migrate developed countries due to regulatory system of money transfer from Bangladesh to other country. Family ties and the networks of community help to permanent settlement.
Education	Student visa is one of the major forms of long-term or permanent settlement to developed country. There are two types of student-one really study and get job to the destination country, and other use only for entry to the destination country for employment. The second forms of student sometimes enrol third country to cross-border illegally to other country.
Social Visit	This types concerns with short-term entry either social visit or business purpose. However, a large number of social and business visitors also overstay for employment purpose and become illegal in the destination countries. Sometimes they also use third country's visit pass to border cross destination country. In the case of Malaysia, most of the Bangladeshi comes from Thailand through land border.
Temporary Employment	
-Skilled	This form of skilled migration occurs to the Middle East as a doctor, engineer, and accountant and so on.
-Semi-skilled and unskilled	This form concerns with major emigration pattern from Bangladesh. Major destination countries are Middle West-Saudi Arab, UAE, Kuwait, Oman, Bahrain, Jordan; South East Asia-Malaysia, Singapore, Brunei, South Korea; Africa-Libya, Egypt, Sudan; recently agriculture sector to Italy. Usually it is short-term employment agreement. Sometimes migrant do continue the employment terms and conditions due to higher job offer in the destination country.
Religious	This forms of emigration only for Saudi Arab. A large number of Bangladeshi are overstaying under Omrah-visa in Saudi Arab for the illegal employment in the destination country.
Illegal	This forms also a number of practices in Bangladesh through human trafficker. Sometimes they use other people passport to departure from Bangladesh.

Emigration Process

The employment emigration process from Bangladesh divides into three categories such as individual employment, employment through government agency, and private employment agencies. Individual employment basically occurs by the individual family ties and the networks community. Bangladesh Overseas Employment and Services Limited (BOESL) is a government owned employment agency in Bangladesh. This is the only company created by the government to provide all sources of destination countries labour market demand and supply as well as. The agency acts on behalf of employers and employees on the whole recruitment process. They send unskilled, semi-skilled, skilled, and professional migrants from Bangladesh to all over the world. A large number of private employment agencies operates in Bangladesh under one umbrella by the name of Bangladesh Association of International Recruiting Agencies (BAIRA). Usually they send unskilled and semi-skilled categories of migrants from Bangladesh to Middle East and South East Asia.

Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training (BMET), establish by the government as an attached department of the Ministry of Manpower Development and Welfare with specific purpose of meeting the manpower recruitment of the country for export of manpower as well as. BMET is the key control body of labour export to overseas either individual employment, or through private employment agencies. BMET process and verify the demand letters and all necessary documents through Bangladesh High Commission of the destination country or nearest Embassy of the country and allow to further process to local diplomatic mission. They control and regulate emigration clearance for recruited workers for overseas employment. According to destination country, recruitment and processing vary from one to another.

Unskilled Temporary Labour Migration

The word unskilled means either the skill required for a task, the task itself or the person's education level (Iancu 2010). Unskilled workers typically have low education levels and engage in menial and repetitive tasks earning low incomes. In studying unskilled labour migration, researchers such as Iancu (2010) and Rajan (2011) adopt study-linked definitions; Rajan (2011) defines unskilled migrants as those without specific skills including sweepers, construction workers, cleaners, peons, hawkers, vendors, petty traders, domestic workers and cooks, while . Iancu (2010) defines them as having below secondary education level.

Unskilled migrants earn low income (Razin & Sadka 1999), send limited remittances home (Hugo 2009), and are temporary or short term (Icuna 2010). In Malaysia, unskilled migrant workers are employed in manufacturing, service, construction, plantation and as domestic help and earn less than RM 2500 monthly (Kanapathy 2006).

There is no single definition of temporary labour migration, which is the part of the matter the literature on the subject suffers from a lack of theoretical coherence. Temporary labour migration often confused with circular migration, a few discussion papers show little different between the temporary labour migration and circular migration. However, Triandafyllidou (2010) point out that “while the term circular and temporary are often used in a slash fashion ‘temporary/circular’ without distinguishing whether these are simply two words for describing the same phenomenon or whether they refer to different phenomenon and process. The migrant profiles migrating internationally are immensely vast and heterogeneous, in order to understand what the abstract of temporary labour migration is, it is of great importance to look at who are temporary international labour migration perspectives.

Temporary labour migration favours the movement of migrants between the sending and receiving countries with a framework of the memorandum of understanding or bilateral agreement. According to Werner (1998) there is not a simple definition of temporary labour migration because migration is not fixed; migration itself is a cyclical phenomenon; nevertheless, he explains that the major characteristic of temporary work, in terms of migration, is that ‘it is limited in time and cannot be preliminary step for a foreign worker to settle permanently in the host country’. European Migration Network (2011), illustrated a table, where shows few Member States has a clear formal or legal definition of temporary labour migration (Belgium, Finland, Germany, Latvia, Lithuania, Portugal, Spain, Sweden, United Kingdom), however no definition exist a number of Member States (Austria, Bulgaria, Czech Republic, Estonia, France, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Netherlands, Poland, Slovak Republic).

The ‘unskilled labour migrant’ refers to those who have been issued visit passes (Temporary Employment) by the Immigration Department of Malaysia under the Immigration Regulations, 1963 [Reg. 11(10)] and section 2(1) of the Passport Act, 1966.

Immigration framework in Malaysia

Malaysia is a federal constitutional monarchy in Southeast Asia. It consists of the thirteen states and three federal territories. The population is 27.90 million and total labour force 11.62 million, (CIA World Factbook 2011). During the period of 1986-1997 rapid economic growth in Malaysia stimulated contemporary labour flows from ASEAN and East Asia of unprecedented proportion, (Kassim 1997). Accurate statistics are difficult to come by due to the significant incidence of illegal border cross as well as undocumented of exist for regularised workers. From the approximately 500,000 foreign workers in 1984 (Abella 1995), numbers swelled to in excess of 1.2 million by 1991, (Pillai 1998). By the mid-1990s, foreign workers made up 15% of the labour force, (Lin 1999). Even after the tumultuous Asian Currency Crisis, which led to retrenchment, the official assessment was that the number of foreign workers in Malaysia had doubled to 2.4 million, (Abdul Rashid 2001). According to Abella & Ducanes (2009), more than 2.1 million registered foreign workers in Malaysia. A total of 752,000 foreign workers in manufacturing sector, 212,000 in service sector, 330,000 in construction sector, and 301,000 domestic helpers whom are from Indonesia, Bangladesh, Nepal, India, Pakistan, and Vietnam.

There are no comprehensive methods to recruit foreign workers by the employers. It is depend on sourcing country and also sector basis. Most of migrant workers in Malaysia obtain their jobs through private employment agencies or labour hire firms that operate both in the source and destination countries, Amarjit (2007). Malaysian government issues private employment agency licence under Private Employment Agency Act, 1981 to recruit local and foreign workers on behalf of the employer. Currently 'out-sourcing company' which issues from Ministry of Home Affairs who act as an employer and supply to local employer on commission basis.

Visit pass for temporary employment is the key strategy to overcome Malaysian labour shortage market. Malaysian government allow only semi-skilled and unskilled migrant workers especially for 3D (Dirty, Difficult and Dangerous) jobs in all sectors such as manufacturing, service, construction, agriculture, plantation, and domestic helper. The visit pass for temporary employment covers less-skilled migrant workers whose earning fall below RM 2500 a month and who are employed in the manufacturing, construction, service, and domestic worker sector, (Kanapathy 2006).

Source countries are Indonesia, Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, Myanmar, Thailand, Vietnam, Cambodia, Philippines, Laos, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan, and Kazakhstan. Kassim (1994), points out in 2005 and 2008 the number of legal migrant workers rose to 1.8 million to 2.1 million respectively. Shahir (2006), estimates 500,000 to 100,000 illegal migrant workers in Malaysia. According to Amarjit (2007), the migrant workers' country of origin is also taken into account and the government has placed restrictions on the origin and number of workers from any one individual sending country in specified occupational sectors.

Most of the studies focuses on temporary labour migration in Malaysia, in term of migrant labour absorption, migrants movements, Pillai (1998), policies and implementation, (Athukorala & Manning 1999), regionalisation and labour flows, labour market adjustment, Kanapathy (2006), integration of illegal immigrants, Kassim (2000; 2005), migrant workers in construction sector, Abdul-Aziz (2001), gender relations, Dannecker (2005a; 2009), cross-national migration and migration policy, Amarjit 2007), relocation of manufacturing industries, (Kassim 1988, 2000; Pillai 1998), and welfare facilities, (Abdul Aziz 2001).

Immigration Policy in Malaysia

There are no clear structure, mechanisms, and policy for the importation of unskilled migrant labour from neighbour countries Thailand and Indonesia. By the end 1970s the government to take measures to regulate migrant labour inflows due to rises of labour shortages led to further foreign worker shortages, and the increase visibility of migrant workers. According to Abubakar (2002), the chronological list of policy measures pertaining migrant labour shows that between 1980-1998 several steps like the passage of an Act that allows the private sector to specific agencies to directly recruit legally foreign workers (1980), the signing of Medan Agreement, (1984), sanction imposes on the importation of Pilipino, Bangladeshi and Thai workers to work in the domestic maid, plantation and construction sector, (1985-1986), freeze on labour importation from Indonesia, (1990), regularisation programme of illegal domestic maid, (1991), permission to the manufacturing, recreation and tourist industry sectors to import foreign labour from Indonesia, (1992), work permit issues to over stayers from Indonesia and Bangladesh, regularise and increase levy, (1996), freeze on maids and hotel workers, (1997), and second phase increase the annual levy and the government open for 120,000 alien foreign workers into the Peninsula and Sabah. In recent Malaysian

government also signed memoranda of agreement (MoU) with different sourcing countries like Indonesia (2004), Bangladesh, and Pakistan.

Immigration Pattern in Malaysia

Table 3: Current immigration pattern in Malaysia

Permanent residence	New eligibility for permanent resident status as a individual investor with USD 2 million fixed deposit in Malaysia (High Net Worth Individual), expert (Highly Talented and High Skilled Individual), professional, spouse to Malaysian citizen, and through point based system.
MM2H (Malaysia My Second Home)	Under Malaysia My Second Home Programme promote by the government of Malaysia to allow foreigner who fulfil certain criteria to stay in Malaysia for as long as possible on multiple-entry social visit pass. The social visit pass is initially for a period of ten years, and is renewable.
Student pass	Any foreigner who wishes to study in Malaysia is required to obtain student pass.
Short-term social visit pass	Short-term social visit pass require to foreigner upon arrival for the purpose of social visit, visiting relatives, tourism, journalist/reporter, meeting/conference, business discussion, factory inspection, auditing company account, signing agreement, doing survey on investment opportunities/setting up factory, attending seminars, on goodwill mission for students or sitting for examinations in university, and taking part in sports competitions. For other activities, should be approved by the Director General of Immigration.
Expatriate (DP10 and DP11)	Key post-top managerial post of a foreign owned company operating in Malaysia, responsible to look after the company's interests and investments, and responsible in determining the company's policies and goals. Executive post-professional/middle managerial post, and responsible in implementing the company's policies and supervision toward the junior staff. Non-Executive post-highly skilled and technical skills relevant to the respective jobs.
Temporary Employment pass	Semi-skilled and unskilled migrant workers under this category. Application for approval of the quota to bring foreign workers to make at the Centre for Local approval, Ministry of Home Affairs.
Foreign domestic helper	Foreign domestic helper source countries are Indonesia, Thailand, Cambodia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, India, Vietnam, and Laos.
Illegal Entry	Through human trafficker by border crossing.

Temporary immigration process

There are no comprehensive methods to recruit foreign workers by the employers. It is depend on sourcing country and also sector basis. Most of migrant workers in Malaysia obtain their jobs through private employment agencies or labour hire firms that operate both in the source and destination countries, Amarjit (2007). Malaysian government issues private employment agency licence under Private Employment Agency Act, 1981 to recruit local and foreign workers on behalf of the employer. Currently ‘out-sourcing company’ which issues from Ministry of Home Affairs who act as an employer and supply to local employer on commission basis.

Table 4: Sector wise source countries, annual levy and processing fees

Sector	Source Country	Levy (RM)	Processing fees (RM)
Manufacturing	Indonesia, Philippine, Cambodia, Kazakhstan, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Vietnam	1250.00	130.00
Construction	Indonesia, Philippine, Cambodia, Kazakhstan, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Vietnam	1250.00	130.00
Plantation	Indonesia, Philippine, India, Cambodia, Kazakhstan, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Vietnam	410.00	70.00
Agriculture	Indonesia, Philippine, India, Cambodia, Kazakhstan, Laos, Myanmar, Nepal, Thailand, Turkmenistan, Uzbekistan and Vietnam	590.00	70.00
Service		1850.00	130.00
-Restaurant	All countries for general workers except India (For India, cook only).		
-Laundry, cleaning/sanitation, caddy, resort island, welfare homes, cargo	All countries for general workers except India		
High Tension Cable	India only		

Source: Immigration Department of Malaysia

Metrial and Method

The current study has been collected official published data from Bangladesh government such as BMET, Bangladesh Bank, BBS and survey literature. Subsequently collected same way from Malaysia such as immigration department, labour department, economic department, parliament session, NGO and survey literature. To determine the sending Bangladeshi migrant stock and per capita remittance (migrant in Malaysia) undertaken arithmetic analysis such as cumulative migration stock for the last few years and percentage during the period.

Arithmetic Analysis of Bangladeshi migration to Malaysia

There is no conclusive source of Bangladeshi migration data and statistics to Malaysia. BMET is only source who have been recoding migration data for officially migrated for employment. The table 5 explore sending cumulative migration stock during the period 1978 to 2014 to Malaysia. The first migrant workers from Bangladesh are believed to have been a group of 500 plantation workers who came in 1986. Cumulative sending migration stock reached 709,731 and this figure has been recoded based on manpower clearance either individual or through recruiting agent while it has not accounted for actual migration, unsuccessful (either in Bangladesh or Malaysia), returnee and otherwise migration process. During (2006-2009) Malaysian government approved special approval for Bangladeshi unskilled workers estimated 500,000 while sending migrant stock to Malaysia 437,834, (BMET), in the five sectors (Manufacturing, Construction, Service, Agriculture and Plantation) and remaining number of (estimated 55,000) approval were revoked due to mismanagement of approval procedures.

Table 5: Cumulative Migration Sending Stock from Bangladeshi to Malaysia

Year	Number of migrant	Cumulative Migration Stock	Year	Number of migrant	Cumulative Migration Stock
1978	23	23	2000	17,237	252,733
1980	3	26	2001	4,921	257,654
1983	23	49	2002	85	257,739
1986	530	579	2003	28	257,767
1988	2	581	2004	224	257,991
1989	401	982	2005	2,911	260,902
1990	1,385	2,367	2006	20,469	281,364
1991	1,628	3,995	2007	273,201	554,572
1992	10,537	14,532	2008	131,762	686,334
1993	67,938	82,470	2009	12,402	698,736
1994	47,826	130,296	2010	919	699,655
1995	35,174	165,470	2011	742	700,397
1996	66,631	232,101	2012	804	701,201
1997	2,844	234,945	2013	3,853	705,054
1998	551	235,496	2014	4,677	709,731

Sources: Author calculation from BMET data

The two countries conclude a governmental-level agreement on manpower exports-imports in 1992, following which migration expands sharply both legal and illegal entry to Malaysia. Table 6 indicate the sector wise documented migrant stock 0.24, 0.447, 0.86, 1.12 and 1.35 million in 1990, 1995, 2001, 2003 and 2004 respectively. In 2000, Bangladeshi migrant workers in Malaysia 24.6% of total foreign workers which 270,000, (Economic Report, 2004/2005). According to Skeldon (2010), some 13,000 Bangladeshi workers were sent back during the first two months of 2009 and the work permits of further 55,000 Bangladeshi workers were revoked from early march 2009. However, even if all 55,000 are ultimately sent back, they still only represent a relatively small proportion of the perhaps 800,000 Bangladeshi in Malaysia (Skeldon 2010).

Table 6: Sectorial Distribution of Foreign Workers in 1990-2004 ('000)

Sector	1990		1995		2001		2003		July 2004	
	No of migrant	Share %	No of migrant	Share %	No of migrant	Share %	No of migrant	Share %	No of migrant	Share %
Agriculture	115.8	47.9	173.0	36.1	284.1	32.9	185.9	16.5	335.2	24.7
Mining	1.4	0.6	1.8	0.4	2.1	0.2	-----	-----		
Construction	25.1	10.4	64.8	13.4	99.0	11.5	265.9	23.6	269.1	19.8
Manufacturing	23.7	9.8	115.7	24.1	213.0	24.7	355.4	31.5	414.3	30.5
Service	76.0	13.3	124.0	25.9	265.6	30.7	319.6	28.4	340.9	25.0
	242.0	100	479.3	100	863.8	100	1,126.8	100	1,359.5	100

Source: Author Adapted from the Economic Report 2004/2005, Ministry of Finance Malaysia

As previously has discussed that there is no compressive statistics about migration stock in Malaysia weather documented or otherwise, either Bangladeshi or any other nationalities. The following table 7 was collected for this study from CARAM ASIA who was collected the following figure from department of immigration of Malaysia. The table 7 show that the total documented migrant worker stock has reached 1.91 million while Bangladeshi became 16.63% as accounted for 0.319 million. According to BMET estimated migrant sending stock reached 698,736 in 2009 while 437, 834 number of migrant were sent during the short period 2006-2009 moreover in 2004 legalised 270,000 migrant, therefore the stock of migrant should be reached at least 700,000 above between 2004 to 2009.

Table 7: Registered foreign workers in Malaysia at 31st August 2009

Country	Domestic worker	Construction	Manufacturing	Services	Forestry	Agriculture	Total	%
Indonesia	230,141	196,929	167,155	38,684	260,232	98,799	991,940	51.71
Bangladesh	23	65,212	173,821	28,893	32,064	19,007	319,020	16.63
Nepal	89	3,605	139,845	28,929	1,919	82,814	182,668	9.52
Myanmar	127	14,350	90,175	23,134	2,000	9,945	139,731	7.28
India	224	5,314	17,353	52,336	16,690	30,465	122,382	6.38
Vietnam	858	3,576	65,359	2,342	42	505	72,682	3.79
Philippines	10,004	1,733	2,516	3,625	3,672	2,834	24,384	1.27
Pakistan	6	5,962	2,334	1,623	1,236	10,730	21,891	1.14
Thailand	372	1,183	710	16,570	63	504	19,402	1.01
Cambodia	8,713	104	2,183	244	173	125	11,542	0.60
China	15	1,453	958	6,563	30	19	9,038	0.47
Sri Lanka	769	80	1,240	686	128	418	3,321	0.17
Laos	2	7	16	3	1	28	57	0.003
Uzbekistan	-	-	-	4	-	-	4	0.00
Kazakhstan	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.00
Others	11	67	2	3	-	-	83	0.004
Total	251,355	299,575	663,667	203,639	318,250	181,660	1,918,146	100

Source: Author adapted from CARAM Asia Report, 2010

Following table 8 comprised from three sources during the period of 2006 to 2010. Sultana (2008) provides the year of 2006 and Fakhzah (2011) for the year of 2008 for their PhD thesis from immigration department of Malaysia while 2010 data from the World Bank migration database for Malaysia.

Table 8: Different category of Migrant by Country of Origin in Malaysia

Country	Year 2006	Percentage	Year 2008	Percentage	Year 2010	Percentage
Bangladesh	58,878	3.1824	316,401	17.2894	122,912	5.2134
Australia					6,903	0.2927
Brunei Darussalam					7,905	0.3009
Cambodia	6,637	0.3587	12,887	0.7041		
China			9,822	0.5367	125,584	5.3267
Indonesia	1,215,036	65.6753	1,085,658	59.3247	1,397,684	59.2841
India	139,716	7.5519	130,265	7.1182	106,880	4.5334
Japan					19,595	0.8311
Myanmar	92,020	4.9738			17,034	0.7225
Nepal	200,000	10.81	201,997	11.0379		
New Zealand					2,783	0.1180
Pakistan	15,021	0.8119	21,278	1.1627	16,477	0.6988
Philippines	22,080	1.1934	26,713	1.4597	277,444	11.7680
Sri Lanka	5,076	0.2743	3,940	0.2152	4,453	0.1888
Singapore					103,318	4.3823
Thailand	7,282	0.3936	21,065	1.1510	79,604	3.3764
UK					12,803	0.5430
Vietnam	85,835	4.6395				
Others	2,482	0.1341				
Other South					52,478	2.2259
Other North					3,745	0.1588
Total	1,850,063	100	1,830,026	100	2,357,603	100

Source: Author compiled from Sultana (2008), Fakhzah (2011) and World Bank Bilateral Migration Matrix 2010

Following table 9 has comprised from the labour department of Malaysia which indicate the documented migrant stock in Malaysia in 2010. The table 9 explore that the total number of documented migrant reached 1.80 million while Bangladeshi become 0.307million.

Table 9: Documented Migrant Workers in Malaysia 2010

Country of Origin	Total Number of Migrant Workers (All Sectors)	Country of Origin	Total Number of Migrant Workers (All Sectors)
Indonesia	917,932	Cambodia	12,091
Bangladesh	307,366	China	8,894
Nepal	175,810	Sri Lanka	3,414
Myanmar	140,260	Laos	57
India	113,797	Uzbekistan	4
Vietnam	74,842	Kazakhstan	1
Philippine	18,640	Others	61
Pakistan	22,989	Total	1,803,260
Thailand	7,102		

Sources: Author compiled from the Labour Department of Malaysia 2010

Following table 10 has comprised from Malaysian Senate's Session, July 2011. The table explore that the total number of migrant stock decreased during the period between 2010 to 2011 as 1.80 to 1.61 million while Bangladeshi migrants stock almost remain same as 0.319 million.

Table 10: Top five countries statistics of migrant workers in different sector in Malaysia, 2011

Country Sector	INDONESIA	BANGLADESH	NEPAL	MYANMAR	INDIA	Total
Domestic Workers	189,391	64	63	114	497	190,129
Construction	151,333	50,303	3,050	12,221	3,488	220,395
Manufacturing	127,127	144,332	209,446	116,478	7,982	605,365
Services	28,587	22,002	26,502	19,368	38,648	135,107
Plantations	214,594	20,480	2,032	3,462	16,954	257,522
Agriculture	81,777	82,294	10,323	8,861	27,543	210,798
Total	792,809	319,475	251,416	160,504	95,112	1,619,316

Source: Author Adopted from Malaysian Senate's Session, July 2011

Following table 11 explore the annual revenue received by the Malaysian government in 2009 in terms of levy and processing fees while other cost (medical, insurance and compensation) also involved for every year renewal for the migrant workers. The arithmetic results indicated that the total revenue reached 1, 921.79 million Malaysian Ringgit from 1.91 million foreign workers in 2009.

Table 11: Yearly Government revenue from foreign workers in 2009

Sectors	No of workers	Levy (RM)	Total Levy (RM)	Processing fees (RM)	Total Processing fees (RM)	Grand Total (RM)
Construction	299,575	1200	359,490,000	130	38,944,750	398,434,750
Manufacturing	663,667	1200	796,400,400	130	86,276,710	882,677,110
Services	203,639	1800	366,550,200	130	26,473,070	393,023,270
Forestry	318,250	360	114,570,000	70	22,277,500	136,847,500
Agriculture	181,660	540	98,096,400	70	12,716,200	110,812,600
Total			1,735,107,000		186,688,230	1,921,795,230

Source: Author calculation from official data

However, following table 12 state sector wise levy and processing fee paid by the Bangladeshi migrants in 2009. Estimated 0.319 million documented migrant workers were paid RM388.67 million in terms of Malaysian government levy and processing fees (excluded medical, insurance and compensation expenses).

Table 12: Bangladeshi workers paid Levy to Malaysian government in 2009

Sectors	No of workers	Levy (RM)	Total Levy (RM)	Processing fees (RM)	Total Processing fees (RM)	Grand Total (RM)
Construction	65,212	1200	78,254,400	130	8,477,560	86,731,960
Manufacturing	173,821	1200	208,585,200	130	22,596,730	231,181,930
Services	28,893	1800	52,007,400	130	3,756,090	55,763,490
Forestry	32,064	360	1,154,304	70	2,244,480	3,398,784
Agriculture	19,007	540	10,263,780	70	1,330,490	11,594,270
Total			350,265,084		38,405,350	388,670,434

Source: Author calculation from official data

Following table 13 explore the cumulative sending migrant stock from Bangladesh and receiving money at their left behind household members by the name of official international remittances during the period of 2005 to 2014. The cumulative arithmetic results show that the remittance per capita (migrant in Malaysia) has been increasingly steadily except the year 2007 while this year highest number of migrant stock (273, 201) were sent to Malaysia and the per capita remittance were lowest rank as USD35.36. In 2014, the per capita remittance reached USD1500.12 while this cumulative figure of estimated migrants neither recorded in Bangladesh nor Malaysia or any third reliable authorities. The most exciting arithmetic results provide that the per capita remittance increase during 10 years 5,154.36% based on cumulative sending migrant stock from Bangladesh.

Table 13: Cumulative migration stock and per capita remittance flow (2005-2014)

Year	Migration Sending Stock	Cumulative migration stock	Increase migration stock in %	Remittance inflow (USD in million)	Remittance (Per capita USD)	Remittance increase (Per capita USD)
2005	2,911	260,902	1.11	7.45	28.55	-----
2006	20,496	281,364	7.29	17.22	61.20	32.65
2007	273,201	554,572	49.26	19.61	35.36	(-25.84)
2008	131,762	686,334	19.20	165.03	240.45	205.09
2009	12,402	698,736	1.78	469.5	671.93	431.48
2010	919	699,655	0.14	653.17	933.56	261.63
2011	742	700,397	0.10	755.71	1078.97	145.41
2012	804	701,201	0.15	940.11	1340.72	261.75
2013	3,853	705,054	0.55	997.43	1414.69	73.97
2014	4,677	709,731	0.65	1064.68	1500.12	85.43

Source: Author calculation from cross country data

Following table 14 provide the documented Bangladeshi migrant stock in Malaysia and the per capita remittance sent by the migrants during the period 2005 to 2014. The stock of migrant has been used for the arithmetic calculation either direct or indirect source from the immigration department of Malaysia except the World Bank data for the year of 2010 which was 122,912 while same year the labour department of Malaysia provided the number of Bangladeshi 307,366. However, the per capita remittance has been increasingly steadily in every year while sending migration stock decrease more or less every year, except the year of 2007 when the highest number of migrant has sent by Bangladesh. According to World Bank (2010) migration stock and remittance (Bangladesh Bank 2010) cross data explore that the per capita annual remittance USD5,314.13 while migration stock (Labour Department of Malaysia 2010) show USD 2,0125.06 in same year in 2010. However, the per capita remittance has reached in term of documented Bangladeshi migrant in Malaysia 3,237.99 in 2014. The unbelievable arithmetic results provide that the per capita remittance increase during 10 years 11,636.10% based on documented migrant stock increased only 21.78%..

Table 14: Documented migration stock and per capita remittance flow (2005-2014)

Year	Documented Migration Stock	Increase/decrease migration stock	Remittance inflow (USD in million)	Remittance (Per capita USD)	Remittance increase (Per capita USD)
2005	270,000 ^a	-----	7.45	27.59	-----
2006	58,878 ^b	(-211,122)	17.22	292.47	264.88
2007	332,079 ^h	273,201	19.61	59.05	(-233.42)
2008	316,401 ^c	(-15,678)	165.03	512.59	453.54
2009	319,020 ^d	2,619	469.5	1,471.70	959.11
2010	122,912 ^e	(-196,108)	653.17	5,314.13	3,842.43
2010	307,366 ^f	(-11,654)	653.17	2,125.06	653.36
2011	319,475 ^g	12,109	755.71	2,365.48	240.42
2012	320,279	804	940.11	2,935.29	569.81
2013	324,132	3,853	997.43	3,077.23	141.94
2014	328,809	4,677	1,064.68	3,237.99	160.76

[Note: a. Economic Report, Malaysia, (2004/2005), b. Sultana (2008), c. Fakhzah (2011), d. CARAM ASIA, e. World Bank, f. Labour Department of Malaysia (2010), g. Malaysian Senate's Session, July (2011), h. Compiled cross country data]
Source: Author calculation from cross country data

Conclusion

This paper objective is to describe migration process, pattern and policies as a sending country (Bangladesh) and receiving country (Malaysia) between developing-developing nations. This study finds that there is no comprehensive framework or policy between the countries to recruit migrant workers. Therefore, there is no reliable and valid data neither Bangladeshi migrant stock (documented and undocumented) nor remittances. Hence the remittance per capita on Bangladeshi migrant in Malaysia and also volume of yearly remittance is still doubtful. However, the most exciting arithmetic results provide that the per capita remittance increase during 10 years 5,154.36% based on cumulative sending migrant stock from Bangladesh. Furthermore, the unbelievable results provide that the per capita remittance increase since 2005 to 2014 over 10 years 11,636.10% based on documented migrant stock increased only 21.78% although it is fact. Thus the study suggest depth investigation between the countries actual migrant stock (documented and undocumented) and remittance (formal or informal) and to develop better framework to recruit international labour in Malaysia (high deficiency of general labour) especially for Bangladesh (high labour surplus)

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