Migration Flow and Social Protection Policy: Case Study Indonesia – Malaysia

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ARTICLE DETAILS

ABSTRACT

Nowadays, the rest of the world concentrates on increasing global economies through the development of technology and productivity growth. This intent creates uneven economic opportunities, inequality, and social disparity between developed, developing, and undeveloped countries. On the other hand, the discrepancy between them contributes to increasing the migration flow, particularly in ASEAN. Moreover, the population movement between Indonesia-Malaysia majority is a low-skilled migrant and brings several problems for both countries. Thus, the scheme of social protection for a migrant becomes a crucial matter to implement. Hence, this paper aims to acknowledge the migration flow and assess Indonesia and Malaysia’s social protection schemes. The result shows that distance is an essential variable of Indonesia’s worker migrant than Malaysia’s wage rate. Hence, the discourse for stopping worker migrants, particularly domestic workers, is not a great solution. Notably, the government should create a proper MoU with Malaysia to protect worker migrants, particularly domestic workers.

Keywords

Migration, social protection, labor migration, ASEAN, Indonesia, Malaysia

1. Introduction

The mobility often happen because a lot of factors, however Ravenstein’s law of migration said that majority factor of this movement is the gap between low-income regions and high-income regions. Furthermore, de Has (2014) added another reason is expectation, the expecting of better opportunities or circumstances. Jobs opportunities, higher wages, safety or freedom of expression that offering by high-income country are the examples of the migrant’s expectation. Additionally, several studies asserted that mobility between countries created by disequilibria of labor market. (Lewis, 1954; Ranis, Gustav, & Fei, 1961). Moreover, Tuccio (2017) stated that demographically (demographic transition), economically (gap of income), and geographically (the porosity of borders) could affect the transnational movement. On the other hand, migrants also confronting the risks and the cost of making decision for their movement (Stark & Bloom, 1985; de Haas, 2011). Stark & Bloomm (1985) explained that the migration cost not only economically, but also psychological sources for the journey and united into the country of destination.

Furthermore, ASEAN is the one of the calculated geopolitical bloc and the fastest growing economic region in the world (Hugo, 2012). The ASEAN land territory is 4,493,515.64 km² with 649.1 million habitant (1). In the global value chain, ASEAN ranks fourth after the EU, China and the US in global goods trade with a share of 7.2% and 6.8% share in global service trade (2). Based on the table 1, nominal GDP of ASEAN is 2,986.4 billion USD and put ASEAN on the fifth rank in the world. Moreover, the position and nominal GDP of ASEAN make it

1 https://asean.org/storage/2019/01/17a.-October-2018-ASEAN-Community-2018-folded-brochure.pdf

2 https://asean.org/storage/2019/11/ASEAN-integration-report-2019.pdf
attractive to investors, inevitable FDI inflows of ASEAN is ranked third in the world with value of 154.7 billion USD or accounted for 11.9% in the global share (see table 1). Therefore, ASEAN become one of the dynamic economic region in the world.

**Table 1. Economic situation in ASEAN**

| Indicator        | Rank | Value (billion) | USDGlobal | Share (%) | Share (2015) | Share (2018) | Share (2015) | Share (2018) |
|------------------|------|-----------------|-----------|-----------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| Nominal GDP      | 5    | 2,455.6         | 2,986.4   | 3.3       | 3.5          | 3.5          | 3.5          | 3.5          |
| Trade in goods   | 4    | 2,727.9         | 2,817.4   | 6.8       | 7.2          | 4.0          | 6.8          | 7.2          |
| Trade in services| 4    | 160.2           | 778.6     | 6.5       | 6.8          | 6.5          | 6.8          | 6.8          |
| FDI inflows      | 5    | 12.3            | 118.7     | 5.8       | 3.5          | 5.8          | 3.5          | 5.8          |
| FDI outflows     | 8    | 6.6             | 69.6      | 4.1       | 6.9          | 6.9          | 4.1          | 6.9          |

Source: ASEAN (2019).3

Nevertheless, the economic in ASEAN lead by several countries, such as Indonesia, Thailand, Singapore, Malaysia, and Philippines with share to ASEAN more than 10%. Indonesia become one of the vast contributor on ASEAN’s economy, although they facing several problem such as tremendously populated country with more than 10% of people living in the below of poverty line. Comparison with Malaysia as the closest Indonesia’s neighbor, their GDP share to ASEAN and the population are lower than Indonesia, frankly, their poverty line is also lower. Hence, this uneven economic condition between them creates a people movement for seeking the better conditions or opportunities.

**Table 2. Economic situation in ASEAN**

| Country  | Nominal GDP (USD billion) | Share to ASEAN (%) | Total Population | Poverty at national poverty line (%) |
|----------|---------------------------|--------------------|------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Indonesia| 1,041.6                   | 34.9               | 267,663,435      | 10.6                                |
| Thailand | 505.1                     | 16.9               | 69,428,524       | 8.6                                 |
| Singapore| 364.1                     | 12.2               | 5,638,676        | -                                   |
| Malaysia | 358.4                     | 12.0               | 31,528,585       | 0.4*                                |
| Philippines| 342.7                    | 11.5               | 106,651,922      | 21.6                                |
| Vietnam | 241                       | 8.1                | 95,540,395       | 9.8                                 |
| Myanmar | 77.3                      | 2.6                | 53,708,395       | 32.1                                |
| Cambodia | 24.6                      | 0.8                | 16,249,798       | 17.7                                |
| Lao PDR  | 18.1                      | 0.6                | 7,061,507        | 23.4                                |
| Brunei   | 13.6                      | 0.5                | 428,962          | -                                   |
| Darussalam|                         |                    |                  |                                      |

Note: *Malaysia’s data obtained until 2015*. Singapore has not adopted an official poverty line or participated in international relative poverty reports such as those of the OECD’s, and Brunei doesn’t have data of poverty.

Source: ASEAN (2019), World Bank data (2020)4 UNDP (2019).

Historically, migration between Indonesia and Malaysia were intertwined for centuries. During the colonial period, movement between Sumatra-Malay Peninsula and Javanese employments to Malaysia were increased. Hence, the economic conditions, interactions, cultures, movements and relations between Indonesia and Malaysia people have been vivid. On the one hand, Indonesia known globally as labor-sending countries (Ullah and Alkaff, 2018). On the other hand, majority of the Indonesia’s workers are in low skilled (Hugo, 2012; IOM INDONESIA, 2010; Kouba & Baruah, 2019). Currently, the expectation of this movement to Malaysia is not equal with the reality, hence, undoubtable that a lot of news about Indonesian migrant mistreatment in Malaysia. Prusinski (2016) asserted that plenty of the migrant domestic workers from Indonesia, even though they are legal or illegal, endured from physical abuse with horrifying account of cases in Malaysia. Additionally, migrant workers receive unfair treatment, such as torture, rape, no salary, humiliation, injustice judge, exploitation, abuse, health risks and poverty, particularly Indonesia workers (Hennebry, 2014; Prusink, 2016; Buana, et al, 2020). On the contrary, the Malaysian migrant workers are rare receive those treatments. Thus, Indonesia government built a discourse about delaying or stopping the sending of female domestic workers abroad, except for skilled and professional labor. Another effect of this circumstance is the issuance of social protection rules for migrants in ASEAN, however not all countries have implemented this scheme. Hence, the purpose of this study is to overview the flow of migration between Indonesia and Malaysia and assess how the social protection scheme protects migrant workers on both countries.

### 2. Literature Review

#### 2.1. Theory of Migration

Labor migration is defined as people’s flow from their root country to a different country for work purposes. (Herold, 1979; IOM, 2010). Economic reasons are the fundamental reasons for such movement. There are several theories that have been developed to explain the phenomenon of migration. One of the most influential theories is the push-pull theory, which suggests that migration occurs due to a combination of factors that push people away from their home country and pull them towards another country.

[3] https://asean.org/storage/2019/11/ASEAN-integration-report-2019.pdf

[4] https://dbank.worldbank.org/indicator/SI.POV.NAHC/1f4a498/Popular-Indicators

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for migrating. For instance, economic reasons are the improvement of jobs, inadequate jobs, higher living standards, or better income. Historically, in 1885, the law of migration was created by Ravenstein. This law's essence is where people migrate from low-income regions to high-income regions (Ravenstein, 1885). Furthermore, the development of migration theory, neoclassical economics is the foundation for understanding why someone migrates. In this theory, the main migration reasons are the difference in wages and working conditions between countries and the cost of migration. Massey et al. (1993) stated that this theory acknowledges migration as a household settlement taken to reduce family income risks or overwhelm capital limitations on a family's production activities.

Meanwhile, at the macro-level, immigration is intertwined with the modern industrial economy's structural requirements and the effect of economic globalization and market distribution transcending state borders. Hence this theory also highlights that international migration is caused by a gap in the labor market geographically (Lewis, 1954; Ranis, Gustav, & Fei, 1961; Harris & Todaro, 1970). The mark of a high-wage country is followed by limited labor relative to capital. Contrarily, based on the relationship curve between supply and demand labor, countries with plenty of labor relative to capital have low equilibrium market wages (Lewis, 1954; Ranis, Gustav, & Fei, 1961). Therefore, this wage gap induces the labor movement from low-wage nations to high-wage nations.

Table 3. Pull and Push Factors

| Demographic  | Pull factors                                      | Push factors                                      |
|--------------|--------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------|
|              | Population growth                                | Family reunification                              |
|              | High fertility rates                              | Diaspora migration                                |
| Geographic   | Distance                                          | Freedom from discrimination                       |
|              | Common border                                     | Common language                                   |
| Social,      | Human rights abuses                              | Colonial relationship                             |
| historical   | Discrimination based on ethnicity, gender and    |                                                 |
| and cultural | religion                                          |                                                 |
|              | Poverty                                          | Prospects of higher wages                         |
| Economic     | Unemployment                                      | Potential for improved standard of living         |
|              | Low wages                                         | Personal or professional development              |
|              | Lack of basic health and education                |                                                 |
| Political    | Conflict, insecurity, violence                   | Safety and security                               |
|              | Poor governance                                   | Political freedom                                 |
|              | Corruption                                        |                                                 |

Source: Praussello (2011) cited from Ramos and Surinach (2013)

The movement leads to diminishing labor supply in the emerging country has caused wages to rise. On the other hand, in capital-rich countries, improving labor supply induces wages to fall. Thus, this change leads to equilibrium and wage differentials reflecting the costs, money, and psychic of international migration (Harris & Todaro, 1970); (Massey et al., 1993). Therefore, other push factors would ordinarily include economic matters such as unemployment, underemployment, low productivity, low GDP per capita, poverty, and home country income (de Haas, 2011; Ramos & Surinach, 2013; Shrestha, 2016; Olver, 2017). Pull factors would encompass the act of migrants and the labor market condition in destination countries (de Haas, 2011; Boswell, 2002; Kumar and Sidhu, 2005; Ramos & Surinach, 2013). For instance, opportunities for better employment, higher wages, better working conditions and amenities. Involuntary displacement would draw through the generalized intensity of civil war or state detention (Boswell, 2002).

Neo-classical migration theory at the micro-level describes migrants as individuals who rationalize income and consider migration risks and costs (Stark & Bloom, 1985; de Haas, 2011). Stark and Bloom (1985) refined that migration costs include the economic and psychological sources financed in driving and uniting into the destination country. Meanwhile, benefits include more excellent payroll or physical protection. Harris and Todaro (1970) stated the differential of "expected income" (adjusted for the possibility of unemployment) leads to the migration phenomenon. Consequently, on the micro-level often represent the rational choice theory, which makes some debatable hypotheses about how and why individuals create their decisions. Although, they acknowledge abusing risk, such as Indonesia-Malaysia migrant cases.

In point of view of new economics highlighting that migration is an alternative of household preference to defeat market failures, freed from poverty life, and increased income risks more willingly than an inadequate response of income-maximizing individuals to expected payment differentials (Stark & Bloom, 1985). Moreover, several studies detected that women are more significant migrants than men (Ravenstein, 1885; Buana et al., 2020). Hence, the recent trend of women's migration internationally is going up (Ghosh, 2009; Fleury, 2016; Le Goff, 2016). Therefore, to reduce migrant abusing cases, the government needs to regulate social protection.

2.2. Social Protection

Collombat (2014) claimed that the frequently primary matter of labor mobility is social protection. Historically, social security
system development in the late 19th and 20th centuries is distinguished by the continuous extension of the scope of application of various benefit schemes, both in terms of the categories of protected persons and the risks and contingencies are covered (Vonk 2002). Social protection was formed to fulfill the UN Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), such as reducing poverty (the first goal), gender equality (the fifth goal), and reducing inequalities (the tenth goal) (Hagen-Zanker, Vidal, and Sturge 2017; ILO 2013). The essential part of the ILO’s Decent Work Agenda is to accommodate adequate compensation for lost or diminished income and permit adequate healthcare access. According to the ILO’s report, the aspects of social protection are (1) interchangeable with “social security;” and (2) as “protection” provided by social security in case of social risks and needs (Schüring et al. 2017).

The notion of social protection is beyond social assistance for the vulnerable poor to include social justice efforts that transform structural inequalities (Yeo, Goh, and Wee 2020). García and Gruat (2003) affirmed that social protection systems live up to societies’ well-being and citizens’ security by protecting them from vulnerability and deprivation to pursue a decent life. Meanwhile, social protection for migrants becomes problematic for society and legal matters, particularly in developed countries (van Ginneken 2013; Vonk 2002). Furthermore, migrant domestic work vulnerabilities have long presented as a global concern (Tayah 2016; Vonk 2002; Yeo, Goh, and Wee 2020). Therefore, a lot of restrictions for migrants to access the social benefits caused if the government allowed them would be a threat to national social unity and ruined the national welfare foundation (van Ginneken, 2013).

Schüring et al. (2017) pictured the connection between migration and social protection as the role of social protection as a driver of migration, influencing the decision to either migrate to a country of destination or return to the country of origin.

3. Research Methodology

Using data from World Bank with the period 2000-2019, this research conducted through the gravity model, OLS and literature analysis. A gravity model and OLS are using for understanding the pull and push factors that are intertwined between Indonesia and Malaysia. Hence, based on Poot et al. (2016), the general model of the population migration gravity law states that:

\[ M_{ij} = G \frac{P_i^{\alpha} \times P_j^{\beta}}{D_{ij}} \]

or

\[ \ln M_{ij} = \delta + \alpha \ln P_i + \beta \ln P_j + \gamma \ln D_{ij} + \epsilon_{ij} \]

Moreover, several studies regularly are enlarged gravity models with extra variables related to different pull and push factors (see, Volger and Rotte, 2000; Clarc, Hatton & Williamson, 2002; Gallardo-Sejas et al., 2006; Mayda, 2010; or Ortega and Peri, 2013). For instance, Ramos and Surinach (2013) formed their model with common language and colonial link between countries. Hence, their equation is as follows:

\[ \ln M_{ij} = \beta_1 \cdot \ln \text{Pop}_{it} + \beta_2 \cdot \ln \text{Pop}_{jt} + \beta_3 \cdot \ln \text{Dist}_{ij} + \beta_4 \cdot \ln \text{Area}_i + \beta_5 \cdot \ln \text{Area}_j + \beta_6 \cdot \log \text{contiguity}_{ij} + \beta_7 \cdot \log \text{comlang} f_{ij} + \beta_8 \cdot \log \text{comcolon}_{ij} + \beta_9 \cdot \log \text{col45}_{ij} + \beta_{10} \cdot \log \text{GDPP}_{it} + \text{fixed effects} + u_{ijt} \]

In line with Mayda (2010), she used similar variables, but she added several variables such as the young population, correlation between GDP and migration. Wajdi et al. (2017) and Beine et al. (2014) using the variables such as poverty, unemployment and the education rate between regions. Furthermore, Mishra and Spilimbergo (2009) added the differences wage among the countries. Based on the theretical an available data of both countries, therefore, this study model is:

\[ \ln M_{ijt} = \beta_1 \cdot \ln \text{Pop}_{it} + \beta_2 \cdot \ln \text{Pop}_{jt} + \beta_3 \cdot \ln \text{D}_{ijt} + \beta_4 \cdot \ln \text{U}_{it} + \beta_5 \cdot \ln \text{U}_{jt} + \beta_6 \cdot \ln \text{E}_{it} + \beta_7 \cdot \ln \text{E}_{jt} + \beta_8 \cdot \ln \text{wage}_{it} + \beta_9 \cdot \ln \text{wage}_{jt} + u_{ijt} \]

where \( M_{it} \) expresses the stock of immigrants from country i (origin) in country j (destination) at time t. \( \text{Pop}_{it} \) and \( \text{Pop}_{jt} \) indicate the population in origin (i) and purpose (j) countries at time t. Geographically denotes by \( D_{ij} \) as the distance between capital cities of countries i and j; \( \text{U}_{it} \) and \( \text{U}_{jt} \) represent, sequentially, the amount of unemployment of origin (i) and target (j) countries. Respectively, \( \text{E}_{it} \) and \( \text{E}_{jt} \) picture the education rate by school enrollment in the secondary level of origin (i) and destination (j) countries. Further, \( \text{W}_{it} \) and \( \text{W}_{jt} \) draw the minimum wage of origin (i) and destination (j) countries.

Moreover, this study also using literature research for understanding the social policy between those countries. Literature research aims to critically analyze or review knowledge, ideas, or findings in numerous academic-oriented literature sources (Thomas and Hodge, 2010). The literature research point is to find multiple theories, laws, statements, policies, or concepts used to investigate and solve research questions formed. This research’s nature is
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descriptive analysis, namely the conventional amplification of data that has been collected, next given perception and information so that the reader can well understand it.

4. Result and Discussion

4.1. Push and Pull Factors: Indonesia-Malaysia

This study found that Indonesia and Malaysia's distance played a prominent role in the movement and was reinforced by the negative relationship. Notwithstanding, the abundance of people in Indonesia unaffected the migration movement. Although the Malaysian population is less than Indonesia is unconcerned by the migrants. Interestingly, the education variable picture the reason why the majority of Indonesia's migrant workers are uneducated people. Based on the negative result of education level in Indonesia and the movement showed if educated people not decided to move to Malaysia. The lack of unemployment circumstance between Indonesia and Malaysia have significant of this movement. In other words, Indonesians are looking for better opportunities in Malaysia. Hence, economically prospect of high salaries in other countries is slightly affecting the workers’ movement. Hypothetically this result draws the consideration of migrants to decide the rational choice, such as the probability of physical and mental abusing, sexual harassment, and injustice law.

Table 4. Pull and Push Factors

| Source: Author's calculation (2020) |
|------------------------------------|
| **Coeff**                          |
| **Const.**                         | −17,4907 |
| **Pull Factors**                   |          |
| Pop_idn                            | −0,0549133 |
| Edu_idn                            | −0,142027*** |
| U_idn                              | 0,0609839*** |
| W_idn                              | −0,0366414 |
| D_idn_m                            | −0,510299*** |
| **Push Factors**                   |          |
| Pop_m                              | 2,04014 |
| Edu_m                              | 0,446675 |
| U_m                                | −0,121100*** |
| W_m                                | 0,0044523*** |
| R-squared                          | 0,998954 |
| Adjusted R-squared                 | 0,997823 |
| Prob. (F-statistic)                | 13151,90 |
| Durbin Watson Stat                 | 1,79119*** |

Indonesia's social protection is principally restricted to schemes of social insurance that are prepared only for formal workers. Any welfare programs are on the grounds of willful membership to informal sector workers yet have considerably low coverage (OECD, 2000; ILO, 2008:18). This scheme afforded access to health care and income security, particularly in cases of old age, unemployment, sickness, invalidity, work injury, maternity, or loss of the primary income earner. Since 2004, Indonesia has constituted the National Social Security System Law (No. 40 of 2004), which specifies companies' responsibility to register their workers in social security schemes. Additionally, for poverty people, the government should grant social aid them. Based on Law No. 40 of 2004, social security scope converges on five different programs, i.e., health insurance, old age (prudent fund), employment injury, invalidity, and death benefits.

The manifestation of this social security is Jamsostek, Taspen, Askes, and Asabri. Hence, the function of Jamsostek and Askes is to cover the healthcare sector. Moreover, Jamsostek and Askes were replaced by Social Security Administrator for Health (BPJS Kesehatan), whereas the government added Workers Social Security (BPJS Ketenagakerjaan) for non-government workers pensions. Unfortunately, these schemes dismiss Indonesian migrant workers. Generally, overseas migrant workers are not covered or receive social security support from Indonesian or host governments. Therefore, host countries' social protection systems are also suitable for understanding labor migrants' situation.

On Malaysia's side, social protection also converges health insurance, old age (prudent fund), employment injury, invalidity, and death benefits. Actually, for migrant workers, Malaysia also covers it with the social protection floor. This social protection available if they are documented well or legal migrant workers. Malaysian Immigration law classifies three groups of migrants, including (1) documented migrants who are frequently low skilled workers; (2) expatriate workers who are hired in positions of managerial and executive; (3) irregular migrants who violate immigration laws by entering without authorization (IOM, 2010:42). Moreover, based on Amnesty International...
(2010), Malaysia has some 2.2 million documented foreign workers, almost 20 percent of Malaysia's workforce, and around the same amount is undocumented. Unfortunately, the third category is flooded in Malaysia, predominantly from Indonesia. Therefore, in 2006, Indonesia and Malaysia created an MoU regarding migrant workers, particularly domestic workers.

Based on report of Mahidol Migration Centre (2011), this MoU still irritating the migrant workers, particularly domestic workers. Additionally, the MoU presents no material on guarantees on sufficient rest and provides interdictions of getting married and bringing spouses into the country; refusals on the hiring of those who are distinguished as having specific diseases; bans on gatherings with workers' families; and bans on keeping their own passports (Mahidol Migration Centre, 2011). Therefore, our migrant workers stable in a vulnerable position.

5. Conclusion

In migration theory, distance is a prominent part of the movement. In line with this study, migration between Indonesia-Malaysia is tightly intertwined by location or geography. Additionally, a gap in the unemployment situation has a contribution and represent the desire of migrants to release from poverty. Unluckily, most of the migrant who working in Malaysia is uneducated people and want to work as a domestic worker. Hence, a lot of abusing cases of Indonesian workers in Malaysia.

These reasons are pushing the rational choice of the migrant to consider the probability of being abused victim. Moreover, the government has an essential part to protect them with the MoU. Regrettably, the Indonesian government not optimal to protect them, particularly for domestic workers. For instance, there are unguaranteed on sufficient rest, prohibitions on keeping their own passports and gatherings with workers' families, and so on. Therefore, our migrant workers stable in a vulnerable position. Rather than discourse for stopping domestic workers' flow, punishing, stopping, or talking the illegal or lousy worker agents is more effective. Hence, the government could prevent this vicious circle. Moreover, the government should immediately create the proper MoU to cover them, who become the victims of worker agents, under the law. These ways could be a preventive path and make up good terms between countries.

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